

**Establishing the store attributes that black consumers  
consider when buying casual wear**

by

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## ABSTRACT

South Africa has a diverse population with almost 80% being black. It is therefore necessary that retailers understand this population group as the black population is responsible for the majority of consumer purchasing power in South Africa. To understand this population group and how they make purchasing decisions, it is necessary for retailers to gain a better understanding of the consumer decision-making process and retailing as well as the store attributes they consider important when making purchasing decisions. This understanding is needed since store attributes influence consumers' store perceptions and are thus one of the main reasons why consumers will decide to purchase from a store. Therefore, store attributes are important when consumers decide where to shop and thus the challenge for retailers is to determine which store attributes are more important to their targeted consumer so as to create store patronage and store loyalty.

Many scholars researching store image have identified a number of store attribute categories, including merchandise, service, store atmosphere, post-transactional satisfaction, promotion, physical facilities and convenience. Despite the identification of these attributes to form store image, limited research has been done on the specific store attributes consumers consider when selecting a store to purchase from.

The primary objective of this study was to determine the store attributes black consumers consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear. The study included a literature review in which main categories of store attributes were identified, which aided in the development of the questionnaire. Interviewer-administered questionnaires were distributed to 16-35 year old black consumers buying casual wear in a mall in Soweto by means of a non-probability convenience sampling method.

A total of 513 respondents participated in the study. By means of an exploratory factor analysis, 10 factors were identified that were considered as important by black respondents when choosing a store selling casual wear, namely: Service provided by salespeople; Check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store; Display of casual wear and in-store advertising; Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear; Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience; Offering of cell phones and accessories; Music played; Price of casual wear; Variety of brand names and credit card facilities and Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services.

From the results obtained, it is recommended that retailers implement these 10 identified store attribute factors in their marketing strategies in order to attract black consumers to the store, which can aid the retailer to increase store patronage, thereby resulting in the development of a competitive advantage.

Recommendations for future research include conducting a similar study among other population and age groups to determine whether differences or similarities can be observed between population and age groups in terms of the importance of store attributes when selecting a store. Future research could also include more geographic areas and include other retail types. This would enable similarities and differences to be identified in the retail industry in terms of the store attributes black consumers consider when selecting a store.

## SAMEVATTING

Suid-Afrika het 'n diverse populasie waarvan ongeveer 80% swart is. Dit is dus nodig dat kleinhandelaars hierdie populasiegroep verstaan, aangesien die swart populasie verantwoordelik is vir die meerderheid van verbruikers se koopkrag in Suid-Afrika. Om hierdie populasiegroep te verstaan, sowel as hoe hulle aankoopbesluite neem, is dit nodig vir kleinhandelaars om 'n beter begrip van die verbruikers se besluitnemingsproses en kleinhandel te ontwikkel, sowel as die winkeleienskappe hulle belangrik ag wanneer hulle aankoopbesluite neem. Hierdie begrip is nodig aangesien winkeleienskappe verbruikers se winkelpersepsies beïnvloed en is dus een van die hoofredes hoekom verbruikers sal besluit om 'n aankoop by 'n winkel te doen. Dus is winkeleienskappe belangrik wanneer verbruikers besluit waar om aan te koop en dus is die uitdaging vir kleinhandelaars om te bepaal watter winkeleienskappe belangriker is vir hul teikenverbruiker om sodoende winkel-klandisie en winkel-lojaliteit te skep.

Baie navorsers wat winkelbeeld navors het reeds 'n aantal winkeleienskappe-kategorieë geïdentifiseer, insluitend handelsware, diens, winkelatmosfeer, na-transaksie tevredenheid, promosie, fisiese fasiliteite en gerief. Ten spyte van die identifisering van hierdie eienskappe om winkelbeeld te skep, is beperkte navorsing nog gedoen op die spesifieke winkeleienskappe wat verbruikers oorweeg wanneer 'n winkel om by te koop, gekies word.

Die primêre doelwit van hierdie studie was om te bepaal watter winkeleienskappe swart verbruikers as belangrik ag wanneer hulle 'n winkel kies om informele drag by te koop. Die studie sluit 'n literatuuroorsig in, waarin die hoofkategorieë van winkeleienskappe geïdentifiseer is, wat die ontwikkeling van die vraelys tot ondersteuning was. Onderhoudvoerder-geadministreerde vraelyste is versprei aan 16-35 jaar oue swart verbruikers wat informele drag aankoop in 'n winkelsentrum in Soweto deur middel van 'n nie-waarskynlikheid gerieflikheidsteekproefmetode.

In totaal het 513 respondente aan die studie deelgeneem. Deur middel van 'n eksploratiewe faktorontleding, is 10 faktore geïdentifiseer wat belangrik geag word deur swart verbruikers wanneer hulle 'n winkel kies om informele drag by te koop, naamlik: Diens verskaf deur verkoops persone; Betaalpunten, aantrekkamers, winkellure en nabyheid aan winkel; Vertoning van informele drag en inhuus reklame; Winkelvoorkoms, style, groottes en kwaliteit van informele drag; Fisiese fasiliteite om die koopervaring te

bevorder; Die bied van selfone en selfoonbykomstighede; Musiek wat gespeel word; Prys van informele drag; Verskeidenheid handelsmerke en kredietkaartfasiliteite; en Verstellings aan klere en bērekoopdienste.

Vanuit die resultate wat bekom is, word voorgestel dat kleinhandelaars hierdie 10 geïdentifiseerde winkeleienskappe in hul bemarkingstrategieë toepas om sodoende swart verbruikers na die winkel te lok, wat die kleinhandelaar kan help om winkel-klandisie te verbeter, wat daartoe sal lei dat 'n mededingende voordeel geskep word.

Aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing sluit in dat 'n soortgelyke studie onder ander populasie- en ouderdomsgroepe uitgevoer word om te bepaal of ooreenkomste en verskille waargeneem kan word tussen populasie- en ouderdomsgroepe in terme van die belangrikheid van winkeleienskappe wanneer 'n winkel gekies word. Toekomstige navorsing kan ook meer geografiese areas sowel as ander kleinhandeltipes insluit. Dit sal help om ooreenkomste en verskille te identifiseer in die kleinhandelindustrie in terme van die winkeleienskappe wat swart verbruikers oorweeg wanneer 'n winkel gekies word.

## LIST OF KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

The following outlines the key terms as used within this study together with a brief definition of each.

- **Black consumers**

Solomon (2004:597) defines a consumer as a person who identifies a need, makes a purchase to satisfy this need and thereafter disposes of the product. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1987:7), a consumer is an individual who buys products and services for his or her own use, for the use of the household, for just one member of the household, or as a gift for a friend. This study will focus on black consumers, one of the four population groups in South Africa, which consists of 39 million people or approximately 80% of the population (Statistics South Africa, 2009:4). This study will only include black consumers aged 16 to 35 who buy casual wear from malls in Soweto because consumers aged 16 to 35 are either entering or are already in the early stages of adulthood with spending priorities related to personal appearance and fun (Ryan, 2002 & Paul, 2001:43) and see clothing shopping as a high priority when spending their money (Der Hovanesian, 1999 & Setlow, 2001:16).

- **Store attributes**

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:844) state that store attributes influence consumers' overall view of a store. Paulins and Geistfeld (2003:371) add that store attributes are certain aspects or characteristics of a store that have an effect on consumers' store choice and influence their purchase decision, for example the merchandise a store sells or the service offered by the store.

- **Casual wear**

Zang, Li, Gong and Wu (2002:53) define casual wear as a dress code that is non-formal and emphasises comfort and personal expression. This study will focus on retail stores selling casual wear to the final consumer.

- **Store selling casual wear**

Terblanché (1998:2) explains that a store is the physical place where a retailer sells a product or service to the final consumer for consumption. Frings (1996:313) adds that an apparel retail store is the connection between the apparel industry and the final consumer by means of selling apparel (e.g. casual wear) to the final consumer.



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# CHAPTER 1

## BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the background for this study. The chapter commences with the problem statement that serves to motivate why the study should be conducted. The problem statement introduces the key constructs that will be detailed in the literature review and furthermore suggests how store attributes could influence consumer decision-making and thus a consumer's choice of retail store to purchase casual wear from. Concomitantly, the primary and secondary objectives are formulated for the study followed by a brief discussion on the methodology that was implemented to reach the study's objectives. The chapter concludes with a chapter outline that provides a short description of what will be discussed in the remaining chapters.

### 1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Berman and Evans (2007:3) state that retailing is the centre around which the marketing of products and services revolve, as it is the connection with the final consumer. Retailing therefore plays a vital role in satisfying the needs and wants of the final consumer by means of offering products or services (Beisel, 1993:40).

Retailing is important to the South African economy as it supplies products and services to a wide range of consumers and provides employment opportunities to thousands of consumers (Cant, Nel, Gerber-Nel & Stanford 2005:4). This becomes evident when considering that the South African apparel retail industry is a multi-billion Rand industry and has experienced continued growth since 2000 (Statistics South Africa, 2009). Despite its apparent attractiveness, the apparel retail industry is characterised by intense competition and is capital and people intensive, thereby necessitating the need for retailers to differentiate themselves in the marketplace in order to gain a competitive advantage (Du Preez & Visser, 2003:15; Lewis & Hawksley, 1990:21).

Newman and Patel (2004:773) and Newman and Foxall (2003:599) state that the dynamic nature of the apparel retail industry results in consumer expectations being in a continuous state of change. The authors add that apparel purchase behaviour in particular is spontaneous and characterised by an era where individual consumer needs

have to be met. In other words, consumers' apparel needs and wants change frequently because consumers view apparel as a way to display personal and social status, self-image as well as other personality traits (Kaiser, 1990:20-25), thereby forcing retailers to be pro-active in order to comply with the apparel needs and wants of the consumer. It is also important to take into consideration that South African consumers in particular are becoming more demanding regarding products and services that are good value and thus retailers need to continually monitor consumer needs and wants to be able to adjust their product and store offerings (Euromonitor, 2009; Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003:96; Terblanché, 1998:26).

Retailers must therefore continually adjust their store offerings if they wish to survive in the competitive apparel retail industry – this emphasises the importance of understanding consumer behaviour and consumer decision-making in particular. Yavas (2001:97) supports this view by stating that it is in the retail stores' best interest to improve their understanding of consumer decision-making and purchasing behaviour. Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006:70) explain that the consumer decision-making process is the process a consumer goes through when making decisions regarding products and services. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:531) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:71) explain that the consumer decision-making process comprises seven stages, namely (1) need recognition, (2) search for information, (3) pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives, (4) purchase, (5) consumption, (6) post-consumption evaluation, and (7) divestment. By understanding the consumer decision-making process, retailers will gain a better understanding on how consumers decide from which retail store to purchase. Furthermore, if retailers have an understanding of their targeted consumer, it enables them to develop an accurate retail strategy and the possibility to create a positive store image in the mind of the consumer. By doing this, consumers will be attracted to the store and not seek fulfilment from another store.

North, De Vos and Kotze (2003:42) and Jernigan and Easterling (1990:329) mention that with stores selling similar products (such as apparel stores), consumers tend to select a store based on the stores' image. Baker, Parasuraman and Grewal (2002:120) and Porter and Claycomb (1997:374) explain that store image is an individual's cognitions and emotions that are derived from his/her observation regarding a specific store and its attributes and signifies what the store represents to the consumer. Stern, Zinkhan and Jaju (2001:202) and Jernigan and Easterling (1990:329) therefore argue that a major goal for retailers should be to maintain a store image that they consider to be appropriate for the specific store as to attract the targeted consumer.



Although many scholars have researched store image, not much consensus has been reached on the store attributes that comprise store image. However, common to most store image scholars is a number of attribute categories, including merchandise, service, store atmosphere, post-transactional satisfaction, promotion, physical facilities and convenience (Janse van Noordwyk, 2008:60; Visser, du Preez & Janse van Noordwyk, 2006:50; Peter & Olson, 2005:408; Koo, 2003:68; Terblanché, 1998:63; Huddleston, Ford & Mahony, 1990:76; Lindquist, 1975:31; Martineau, 1958:48). Despite the identification of these attributes to form store image, limited research has been done on the store attributes consumers consider to be important when selecting a store. Therefore this study will focus on determining the store attributes consumers consider when selecting a store selling casual wear by borrowing from store image literature as a basis for the discussion.

McGrath (2005:55) continues by stating that consumers are no longer satisfied with stores having only a positive store image: they want an in-store experience. This in-store experience is consequently made-up of the various store attributes offered by a store. Each store attribute therefore serves as a marketing tool to communicate to the consumer, thereby emphasising the importance of presenting store attributes in a consistent way. Birtwistle, Clarke and Freathy (1998:148) and Joyce and Lambert (1996:24) suggest that store attributes contribute to retail store patronage. Janse van Noordwyk, 2008:60, Ko and Kincade (1997:92), Mowen (1995:439) and Osman (1993:133) are furthermore of the opinion that store attributes are important when consumers decide where to shop and thus the challenge for retailers is to determine which store attributes are more important to the targeted consumer as to create store patronage and store loyalty. However, store patronage, store loyalty and consumer satisfaction cannot be gained by only providing appropriate store attributes; maintaining the quality of these store attributes is also critical for survival in the apparel retail industry. Therefore, it is retailers' responsibility to focus on implementing the correct store attributes in order to become the retailer of choice and differentiate themselves from the competition. Van der Vyver (2008:12) and Osman (1993:133) add that retailers should manage these store attributes in their retail strategy so as to build and maintain consumer store patronage.

Kim and Jin (2001:237) and Lindquist (1974:31) conclude that consumers' shopping satisfaction and their intention to purchase from a store are direct results of the store's

attributes, thereby emphasising the need for retailers to determine which store attributes consumers consider as important when selecting a store to purchase from.

According to McGregor (2006) and Van Eck, Grobler and Herbst (2004:1), the black market in particular forms an important and strategic market segment in the South African apparel retail industry to focus on since many black consumers have risen from poverty to the middle class within a few years following the 1994 democratic elections, resulting in stronger black consumer purchasing power. According to Statistics South Africa (2006), the black market constitutes approximately 80% of the total South African population. The consumer goods and retail forecast also indicates that black consumers were responsible for 55.7% of all purchases of clothing and footwear in 1995, whereas the 27,8% increase in clothing and footwear sales in South Africa between 1998 and 2005 is a direct result of the increase in black consumers' spending power (EIU, 2008).

Van Eck *et al.* (2004:2) continue by stating that by not focusing on the black market, profit opportunities have been lost in the retail industry. Johnson (2006:24) and McKinney, Legette-Traylor, Kincade and Holloman (2004:389-390) therefore suggest that since the black market is a growing segment with a great deal of money, retailers should gain an understanding of this market in order to effectively target them.

The reason for undertaking this study is to gain a better understanding of the store attributes black consumers consider as important when selecting a store selling casual wear. Identifying those attributes viewed as important will enable retailers to create a unique, positive position in the market by means of applying the identified store attributes and thus differentiating themselves from competitors.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES OF STUDY**

#### **1.3.1 Primary objective**

The primary objective for the study is to determine the store attributes black consumers consider when selecting a store selling casual wear.

#### **1.3.2 Secondary objectives**

To reach the primary objective, the following secondary objectives were set, namely:

- To identify the attributes consumers in general consider when selecting a store by conducting a literature review.
- To determine which store attributes black consumers consider when selecting a store selling casual wear.
- To determine whether certain store attributes are considered more important than others to black consumers when selecting a store selling casual wear.
- To determine the influence of demographic variables on the importance that black consumers place on store attributes they consider when selecting a store selling casual wear

#### **1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

In this section, the method of investigation will be discussed according to the literature and empirical study performed in this study.

##### **1.4.1 Literature study**

The current literature available relevant to the study was examined by means of a literature review. Most of the sources used were obtained from secondary sources such as books, published articles, scientific journals, research documents and the internet.

The following databases were used to conduct the literature review:

- NEXUS: Current and completed South African research;
- SACat: Catalogue of books available in South Africa;
- SA e-publications: South African magazines;
- Internet: Google scholar; and
- International magazines:
  - Academic Search Premier;
  - Business Source Premier;
  - Consumer Mass Media; and
  - Emerald.

## 1.4.2 Empirical study

The empirical study implemented in this study will be discussed in terms of the research design, sampling method, research instruments, pre-testing of the questionnaire, data collection method and data analysis procedures. Chapter 4 is dedicated to the research methodology followed in the study.

### 1.4.2.1 Research Design

McDaniel and Gates (2001:28) state that the research design is the plan that has to be followed to answer the research objectives. Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2006:63) add that three important designs can be identified, namely: exploratory, causal and descriptive research. In this study, descriptive research was used because descriptive studies are used to answer questions pertaining to *who*, *what*, *when*, *where* and *how* (Tustin, Lighthelm, Martins & Van Wyk, 2005:86).

Zikmund and Babin (2007:42) explain that the descriptive research method describes the characteristics of the chosen sample. In this study this meant that the respondents' answers could be used to determine which of the identified store attributes identified through the literature review were seen as most important when deciding which store to purchase casual wear from.

### 1.4.2.2 Sample plan

Cooper and Schindler (2006:438), Proctor (2005:108) and Churchill and Iacobucci, (2002:449) explain that the purpose of a sample plan is to define the target population, to obtain the sample frame, to choose the sampling method and to determine the sample size. Wiid and Diggins (2009:160) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:266) add that the main reason for selecting a sample is to make conclusions applicable to the population from which the sample was drawn.

Tustin *et al.* (2002:97) state that defining the population is the first step of the sample plan. Churchill and Brown (2007:351) explain that the population refers to all individuals who meet certain requirements for inclusion in the sample. The population for the study included all black consumers aged 16 to 35 who buy casual wear from malls in Soweto. This age group was chosen for a number of reasons. *Firstly*, consumers aged 16 to 35 are either entering or are already in the early stages of adulthood with spending priorities

related to personal appearance and fun (Ryan, 2002 & Paul, 2001:43) and see clothing shopping as a high priority when spending their money (Der Hovanesian, 1999; Setlow, 2001:16). *Secondly*, this group of consumers, comprising approximately 15 million people (Statistics South Africa, 2009:9), are either entering the labour force or are already part-time or full-time employed, implying that they either already have, or soon will have, access to money to spend (TNS Research Surveys, 2007 & Gardyn, 2002:18). *Thirdly*, this group was specifically chosen due to the greater disposable income they have for spending on clothing, as consumers who are older than 35 tend to start focusing on family needs, resulting in changing purchasing decisions that tend to focus more on food, housing and transportation (Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2000).

Malhotra (2007:337) explains that in order to draw a sample, the researcher must decide between a probability and non-probability sampling method. The sample for this study was identified by means of a non-probability sampling method. Cooper and Schindler (2006:455) explain that non-probability sampling is when some of the elements of the population have little or no chance of being selected for the sample. Shao (2002:369) adds that by making use of non-probability sampling, researchers make use of their own judgement when selecting the sample units. Malhotra (2007:352) mentions that non-probability sampling methods are helpful when researchers have time and financial limitations.

Churchill and Brown (2007:356) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:455) add that there are different non-probability sampling techniques namely: convenience sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling. Convenience sampling was used in this study. Cooper and Schindler (2006:455), Zikmund (2003:426) and Tustin *et al.* (2002:346) explain that convenience sampling is when sample selection is based on ease of accessibility and the fieldworkers have the freedom to choose whomever they find. Convenience sampling was chosen for this study because information needed to be obtained quickly and inexpensively (Malhotra, 2007:341).

Bradley (2007:189) explains that the number of sample elements included in the research survey is referred to as the sample size. Cant, Gerber-Nel, Nel and Kotze (2005:177) add that to assure that reliable and valid conclusions are made about the population, the researcher must ensure that the sample size is big enough. Therefore, the sample for this study consisted of 513 respondents.

### 1.4.2.3 Research instrument

The research instrument chosen for this study was a questionnaire (see Appendix A p. 158). Tustin *et al.* (2002:98) explain that a questionnaire is designed to collect information from the sample population. An initial screening question was asked to respondents in order to only include respondent between 16 and 35 years old. The questionnaire consisted of two sections. Section A of the questionnaire listed 48 store attributes identified from the literature review (in Chapters 2 and 3) that could influence a consumer's store choice. Section B of the questionnaire determined the demographic information of the respondents.

Section A of the questionnaire measured responses by means of a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 = not important and 5 = very important. Bradley (2007:209), Churchill and Brown (2007:283), Zikmund and Babin (2007:214) and Tustin *et al.* (2005:408) explain that Likert-type scales are implemented when respondents are asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each constructed statement in the question. The responses of the respondents are given numerical values that reflect the strength of the respondents' attitude towards each of the constructed statements.

Section B of the questionnaire consisted of closed-ended questions where respondents were offered a selection of responses to choose from. Bradley (2007:207) adds that closed-ended questions can be pre-coded, which makes them easier to administer. In Section B, information regarding the respondents' age, gender, marital status, transportation method used to reach a store, amount spent on casual wear, level of education and payment method used most frequently to purchase casual wear was collected. Section B also indicated whether respondents claim variety offered or price as more important as well as whether the store name or brand name was more important when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from.

### 1.4.2.4 Pre-testing the questionnaire

Pre-testing a questionnaire is vital if the researcher is to be certain that the questionnaire will meet the objectives set for a study. Cooper and Schindler (2006:418) add that pre-testing a questionnaire is essential for discovering errors. If errors are found, the questionnaire must be adapted to ensure that the objectives are reached. In this study

the questionnaire was pre-tested by means of a pilot study among the population. (See Chapter 4 for a detailed explanation of the pilot study).

#### **1.4.2.5 Data collection**

*In this study* data was collected by means of a mall-intercept survey where fieldworkers intercepted consumers while shopping and asked them if they would be willing to participate in the research study (Churchill & Brown, 2007:208; Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:286). *In this study*, fieldworkers asked consumers in a mall in Soweto to complete the questionnaire. The fieldworkers asked the respondents a screening question to determine how old they were so as to only include respondents between 16 and 35 years of age.

#### **1.4.2.6 Data analyses**

Tustin *et al.* (2005:479) state that once the data has been captured, that data can be analysed and stored in the format of a dataset. The software used to analyse the data together with the statistical analyses performed are briefly discussed below.

##### **A. Software**

The data obtained from the questionnaire was analysed by means of descriptive statistics, factor analysis and effect sizes. The Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) (see Appendix B p. 162) performed the data analyses by means of SAS, SPSS and STATISTICA software (SAS Institute Inc, 2009; SPSS Inc, 2009 & StatSoft, Inc, 2009).

##### **B. Statistical analyses**

Statistical analysis provides summary measures of the data contained in all the items and transforms the raw data into a form that is easier understood.

The following analyses were done in this study:

- Frequency distribution of the variables included in the questionnaire;

- The percentages, means and standard deviations for individual items were calculated;
- An exploratory factor analysis was performed to identify attribute factors respondents consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear;
- Cronbach Alpha-values were used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire as measuring instrument;
- T-tests were performed to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between two groups;
- One-way ANOVAs were performed to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between more than two groups; and
- Cohen's d-values were used to determine the practical significance by means of effect sizes.

## 1.5 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This study is divided into six chapters, namely:

**Chapter 1** provides the background and motivation for undertaking the study. Firstly the problem statement is provided by introducing the main constructs examined in the literature review, including retailing, store attributes and consumer decision-making. The primary and secondary objectives of this study were given followed by the methodology implemented to reach the stated objectives.

**Chapter 2** consists of a literature review on the consumer decision-making process. The consumer decision-making process will be discussed in detail so as to gain knowledge concerning the process the consumer undergoes when making a decision to buy casual wear as well as the external and internal variables that influence the consumer decision-making process.

**Chapter 3** provides an overall understanding of retailing and its relation to consumer decision-making so as to provide an understanding of what store attributes consumers consider when selecting a store to purchase from. Retailing will be discussed in detail, including the retail concept, retail characteristics, types of retailers as well as the influence of retailers on consumers. The chapter concludes by providing a detailed discussion on the store attributes that could influence consumers' decisions when selecting a store to purchase from.



**Chapter 4** discusses the research design and methodology and will focus on the marketing research process followed in this study. The research design, the research method, the procedure followed when selecting the sample and collecting data, performing the data analysis and reporting the results of the study will be discussed. The questionnaire and its relation to the objectives will be presented as well as the different statistical analyses used in this study for data analysis. The chapter concludes by providing a discussion on statistical and practical significance.

**Chapter 5** discusses the data analyses and interpretation of the results obtained from the study. The sample profile is first provided, followed by results from an exploratory factor analysis to determine which store attributes respondents consider when selecting a store selling casual wear. This is followed by an analysis of various demographic variables. The main findings from the results from the study reported throughout the discussion are summarised as a conclusion to the chapter.

**Chapter 6** concludes the study by providing a brief overview of the study, draws conclusions based on the main findings from the study, makes recommendations for retailers selling casual wear, links the secondary objectives to the main findings and questions in the questionnaire, states the limitations of the study and offers recommendations for future research.

## **1.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

This chapter offers a background and motivation for the study. A discussion on the problem statement commenced the discussion, followed by a formulation of the primary and secondary objectives for the study. This was followed by a brief description of the research methodology used in the study. The chapter concluded with a chapter outline for the study. The next chapter offers a literature overview of the consumer decision-making process and retailing.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **THE CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The primary objective of the study is to determine which store attributes black consumers consider when selecting an apparel retail store. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:4) explain that in order to succeed in the retail industry, especially in today's evolving apparel market, retailers need to understand their consumers and how consumers make decisions. It is therefore important for retailers to determine the internal and external factors that influence the decision-making process when consumers choose which products and services to purchase, as well as which store to buy from. This chapter focuses on gaining a better understanding of the consumer decision-making process. By understanding the consumer decision-making process, retailers will gain a better understanding on how consumers decide from which retail store to purchase as well as which variables influence the consumer decision-making process.

The key concepts discussed in this chapter are the consumer decision-making process as well as the external and internal variables that influence the consumer decision-making process.

#### **2.2 LEVELS OF CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING**

According to Kerin, Hartley and Rudelius (2009:120), Hawkins, Mothersbaugh and Best (2007:501), Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:526), Blackwell *et al.* (2006:89) and Solomon (2004:295), various types of consumer decision-making levels can be distinguished as the consumer moves from a very low level of involvement to a very high level of involvement with the purchase. The higher the level of involvement, the more complex the decision-making becomes. Three levels of consumer decision-making can be distinguished, namely extensive decision-making, limited decision-making and nominal decision-making. It is important to keep in mind that these types of consumer decision-making processes are not different but rather that they blend into each other, ranging from low to high involvement.

### **2.2.1 Extensive decision-making**

Some authors refer to extensive decision-making as extended problem-solving (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:120; Berman & Evans, 2007:216; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:89; Solomon, 2004:219), but this study will refer to extensive decision-making (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:526; Zikmund & d'Amico, 2001:154).

According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:89), extensive decision-making takes place when the decision-making process consists of a vast amount of detail and a high degree of complexity and involvement. Kardes, Cronley and Cline (2011:183) and Pellemans (1971:14) explain that extensive decision-making occurs when the consumer is confronted by an unknown brand in an unknown product class. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:549) add that extensive decision-making occurs when consumers do not have established criteria for evaluating a product category or specific brands in that category, or that they have not narrowed down the number of brands or products they will consider to a manageable subset.

According to Solomon and Rabolt (2004:355), extensive decision-making is usually initiated by a need that is fairly central to the self-concept, and the decision is perceived to carry a high degree of risk. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:526) and Berman and Evans (2007:216) add that consumers need a great deal of information to establish a set of criteria on which to judge specific brands. Consumers will therefore collect as much information as possible, both from internal and external sources, and then evaluate each product alternative carefully. The evaluation will often be made by considering the attributes of one brand, and then seeing how each brand's attributes shape up to a certain set of desired characteristics (Solomon, 2004:295).

Kerin *et al.* (2009:120) and Hawkins *et al.* (2007:513) further state that extensive decision-making is a response to a high level of purchase involvement. After the purchase, doubt about its correctness is likely to occur and a thorough post-purchase evaluation is then initiated.

### **2.2.2 Limited decision-making**

Kardes *et al.* (2011:181) and Solomon (2004:295) state that limited decision-making occurs when consumers use simple decision rules to choose among alternatives. According to Solomon and Rabolt (2004:335), simple decision rules are cognitive

shortcuts that enable consumers to fall back on general guidelines instead of having to go through the entire decision-making process from the start. Berman and Evans (2007:216) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:526) add that consumers making limited decisions have already recognised the basic criteria for evaluating product categories as well as for the different brands in those categories because of previous experience. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:89) add that consumers do not always have enough time, motivation and resources to engage in extensive decision-making. Consumers rather simplify the process by reducing the number and variety of information sources, alternatives and criteria used for evaluation. Thus, limited decision-making involves internal and limited external search, few alternatives, simple decision rules on a few attributes, as well as little post-purchase evaluation (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:513). Perreault and McCarthy (2006:128) suggest that limited decision-making also applies to a situation where a consumer has some previous experience with solving a problem, but is not certain which product is the best choice at the present time.

### **2.2.3 Nominal decision-making**

Nominal decision-making, also known as routinised response behaviour (Berman & Evans, 2007:216 & Schiffman & Kankuk, 2007:527), habitual decision-making (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:154; Solomon, 2004:220 & Hoyer, 1984:823) or repeat purchases (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:90), is when most purchases are repeated over time. Nominal decision-making, according to Solomon and Rabolt (2004:355) and Hoyer (1984:823), is decisions made with little or no conscious effort and sometimes consumers do not even realise they have made the decision until they actually make the purchase. The development of nominal decision-making allows consumers to minimise the time and energy spent on everyday purchase decisions.

Pellemans (1971:14) states that nominal decision-making deals with a situation where the consumer is familiar with a brand or product and needs relatively little information to make a decision. Kardes *et al.* (2011:181) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:527) suggest that consumers at this level have had experience with the product and thus they have a set of established criteria that they use to evaluate brands they consider to buy. Consumers may search for a small amount of extra information in some purchasing decisions, but in most cases they merely review what they already know about the product. It is thus clear that consumers have little need for additional information with nominal decision-making compared with limited decision-making, which requires more information in order to make decisions.

## 2.2.4 Factors influencing the levels of consumer decision-making

Once the three levels of consumer decision-making are understood, the different factors that influence the levels of consumer decision-making must be identified and taken into consideration. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:93), supported by Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff and Terblanché (2004:78) and Häubl and Trifts (2000:5), state that the extent of the decision-making process that a consumer undergoes in different purchase situations depends on five factors, namely: the degree of involvement; the amount of time available; cost; information search; and the number of alternatives. These factors will be discussed before attending to the levels of consumer decision-making.

### 2.2.4.1 Degree of involvement

Wilkie (1994:164) defines involvement as a state of energy that a consumer experiences with regard to consumer decision-making. According to Lake (2009:34), Zellman, Kaye-Blake and Abell (2010:272) and Hughes, Hutchins and Karathanassi (1998:344), involvement is the level of perceived personal importance and interest evoked by a stimulus within a specific situation. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:93) continue by explaining that the degree of involvement is determined by how important the product or service is to the consumer and this is determined by a few factors, namely:

- **Previous experience**

McDaniel, Lamb and Hair (2008:152) and Hoyer (1984:823) explain that when consumers have had previous experience with a product or service, the level of purchase involvement decreases. Therefore, consumers learn to make quick choices after repeated purchases. Consumers become less involved in a purchase over time because consumers are already familiar with the product and know whether it will satisfy their needs. For example, consumers continue to buy clothes from Woolworths because it has proven to be good quality in the past.

- **Interest**

McDaniel *et al.* (2008:152) and Lamb *et al.* (2004:78) state that involvement is directly related to consumer interests and varies from consumer to consumer. If a consumer is interested in a product, he/she will be more involved in the purchase decision. For

example, if a consumer likes shoes, he/she will be more involved in making the right shoe choice.

- **Perceived risk of negative consequences**

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:187) and Lamb *et al.* (2004:78) mention that the higher the perceived risk is that a consumer associates with a purchase, the more involved the consumer will be in the purchase decision (see section 3.2.3.2 for a more detailed discussion on perceived risk).

- **Situation**

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:94) explain that the situation includes factors such as whether the product is purchased for personal use or as a gift and whether it is consumed alone or with others. According to McDaniel *et al.* (2008:152), Blackwell *et al.* (2006:94) and Lamb *et al.* (2004:78), the circumstances of a purchase may temporarily change a low-involvement decision into a high-involvement decision. For example, the consumer may generally buy low-priced clothing. However, when the consumer must attend a work function, the consumer might make a high-involvement decision and buy a more expensive outfit.

- **Social visibility**

Involvement increases as the social visibility of a product increases. Apparel makes a statement about the purchaser and therefore carries a social risk (see section 3.2.3.2). To avoid this social risk, consumers become more involved in the purchase decision (McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:154; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:187; Berman & Evans, 2007:202; Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard & Hogg, 2006:272; Wang, Sui & Hui, 2004:240).

Therefore, it can be stated that the higher the involvement, the more complex the decision would be.

#### **2.2.4.2 Time availability**

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:94) explain that there are two factors that influence the time availability, namely how much time a consumer has available to make a decision as well as how quickly the decision needs to be made. According to Berman and Evans

(2007:2002) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:485), the time available for consideration is also influenced by the urgency and importance of the need for the consumer.

It can thus be stated that the more time and the more important the need, the more complex consumer decision-making will be.

#### **2.2.4.3 Cost**

According to Lake (2009:280) and McDaniel *et al.* (2008:152), the cost of the product influences the consumer decision-making process. The more expensive a product is, the more time is spent on making the right decision.

#### **2.2.4.4 Information search**

A consumer wants to make the right choice and will thus search for as much as possible information on the product category and available brands as to aid in the decision-making process (Lake, 2009:146; McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:153; Bakewell & Mitchell, 2000:95).

#### **2.2.4.5 Number of alternatives**

The more similar products or services are perceived to be, the less time a consumer will spend on making a decision, whereas, on the other hand, if the difference between the two alternatives is perceived to be big, then the consumer will spend more time on deciding which alternative to purchase (Zellman *et al.*, 2010:271; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:94). McDaniel *et al.* (2008:153) adds that consumers usually make use of an evaluation criterion and spend much time in seeking the information so as to choose the right alternative.

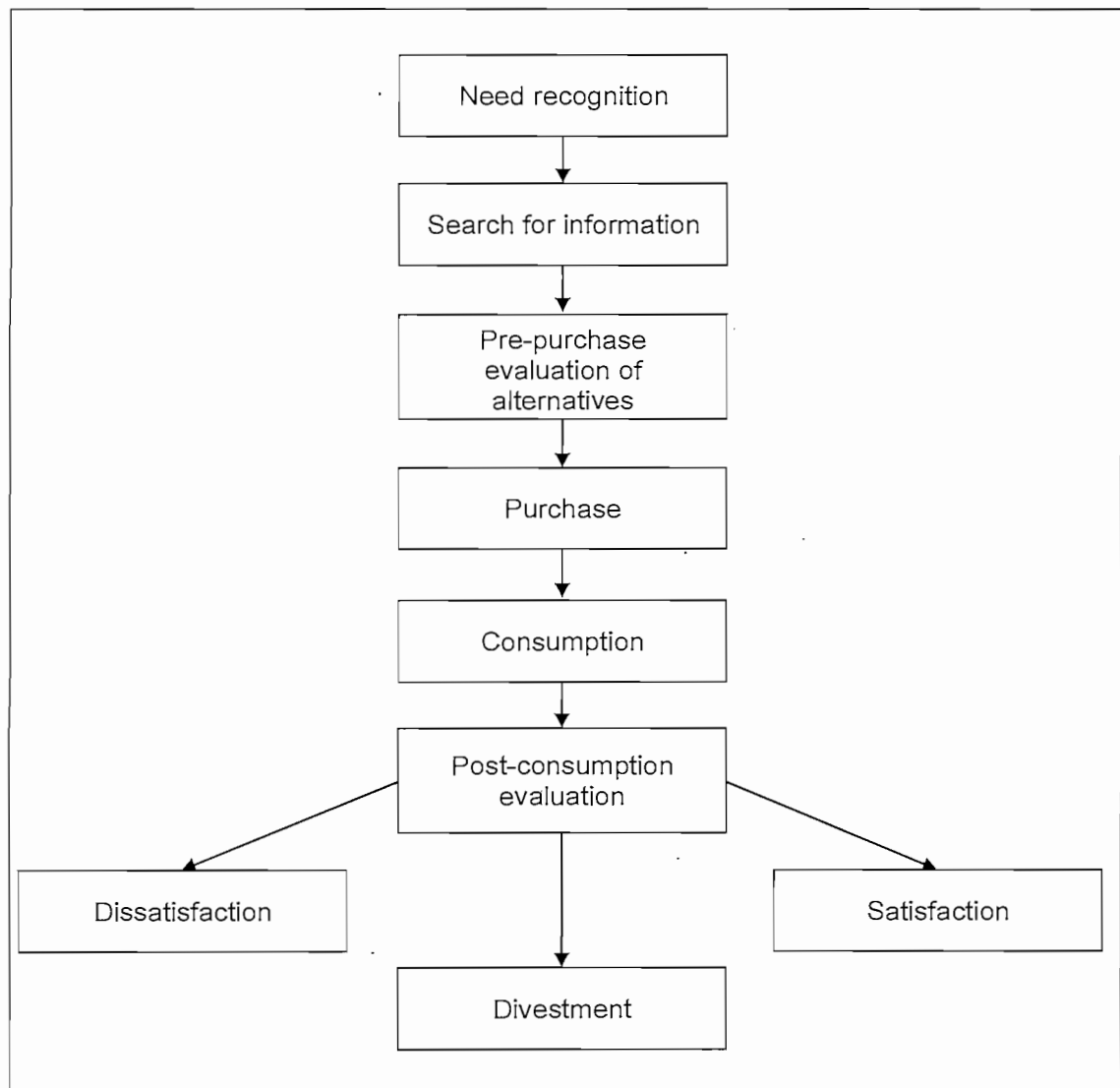
Shiffman and Kanuk (2007:526) add that after taking the factors that influence consumer decision-making into consideration, it is clear that not all consumer decision-making situations receive the same degree of involvement on the consumers' part.

Taking the levels of consumer decision-making and the factors that influence consumer decision-making into consideration, Table 2.1 shows the interaction between these levels and factors.





**Figure 2.1: The consumer decision-making process**



Adapted from Blackwell *et al.* (2006:70), Hawkins, Best and Coney (1998:497) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:611).

From Figure 2.1 it can be seen that the consumer decision-making process consists of seven stages, namely need recognition, search for information, pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives, purchase, consumption, post-consumption evaluation, and divestment. Each of these stages will be discussed in more detail in sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.7.

### **2.3.1 Need recognition**

Need recognition is regarded as the first stage of the consumer decision-making process and can be defined as the result of a difference between a consumer's desired state and

the actual state and is thus enough to provoke and activate the decision-making process (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:116; Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:156; Zikmund & d'Amico, 2001:156; Hawkins *et al.*, 1998:502).

Hawkins *et al.* (2007:514) explain that a *desired state* refers to the way an individual wants to be or feel at the present time, whereas an *actual state* can be seen as the way an individual perceives their current feelings and the situation at the present time. The type of action taken by consumers in response to a recognised need relates directly to the need's importance to the consumer, the situation as well as the dissatisfaction or inconvenience created by the need. If the differences between these two states are very large, the consumer will begin to search for a solution to the need (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:502; Wilkie, 1994:483).

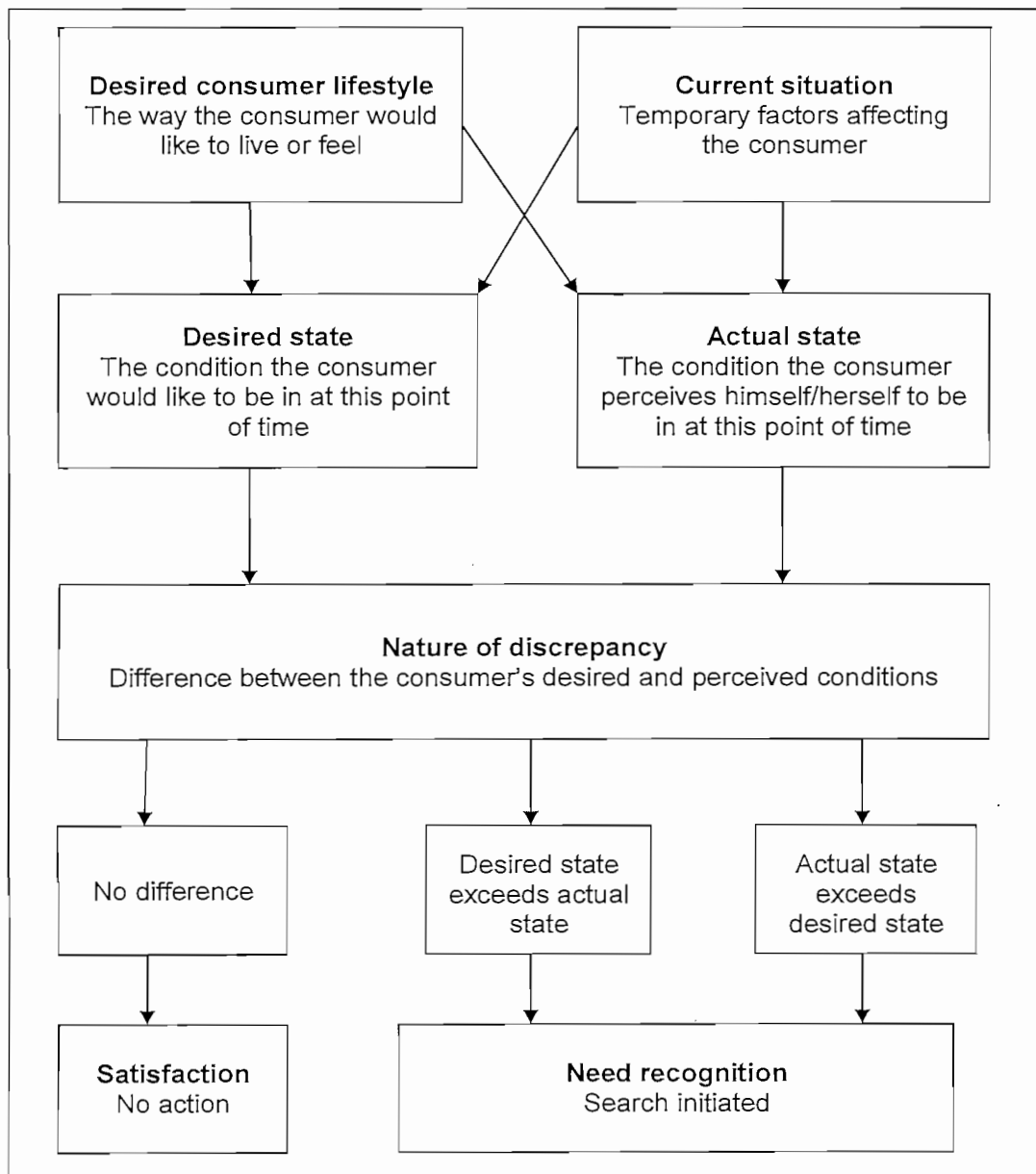
Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:533) continue to explain that consumers have two different need recognition styles. Some consumers are desired state types, for whom the desire for something new may bring forth a purchase decision. Other consumers are actual state types, who perceive a problem when a product does not perform satisfactorily.

To better understand the process of need recognition, it is necessary to briefly discuss the determinants of need recognition as well as the types of consumer needs.

### **2.3.1.1 Determinants of need recognition**

Figure 2.2 depicts the need recognition process by highlighting a consumers' actions taken to an identified need.

**Figure 2.2: The need recognition process**



Source: Hawkins *et al.* (2007:503).

According to McDaniel *et al.* (2008:146), Zikmund and d'Amico (2001:156), Gröppel-Klein, Thelen and Antretter (1999:64) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:487), consumers' need recognition depends on how much discrepancy exists between the desired state and the actual state. A need is recognised when the difference between the desired and actual situations meets or exceeds a certain level. Therefore, when changes in either the desired or actual state cause the two to be distinctly out of alignment, need recognition

will occur. However, if the difference is below a certain threshold level, the consumer will not recognise a need.

McDaniel *et al.* (2008:147) and Hawkins *et al.* (1998:504) explain that there is no need for a decision if a need is not recognised, namely when there is no difference between what the consumer would like and what the consumer perceives as already existing. However, if there is a discrepancy between the perceived actual and desired state, the consumer recognises a need.

### **2.3.1.2 Types of consumer needs**

Hawkins *et al.* (1998:504) state that consumer needs can be active or inactive. An *active need* is a need that the consumer is aware of, or will become aware of in the regular course of events; whereas an *inactive need* is a need the consumer is not aware of. Active and inactive needs require different marketing strategies. With active needs, consumers are already aware of the need, and the marketer needs to convince consumers that its product offers the better solution. In contrast to this, inactive needs require the marketer to convince consumers that they have a need and that theirs is the best product or service to fulfil the consumer's need. Thus, as explained by Hawkins *et al.* (2007:517), marketers attempt to cause a change in consumers' perception of the actual state as well as draw out the recognition of an inactive need. To convince consumers that they have the need and that the brand is better, is a more difficult task than convincing consumers who have active needs.

Once a need has been identified, the consumer will proceed to the second stage of the consumer decision-making process by searching for information to satisfy this need.

### **2.3.2 Search for information**

According to McDaniel *et al.* (2008:148) and Solomon (2004:297), once a need has been recognised, consumers require adequate information to resolve the need. Search for information (also referred to as information search) can therefore be defined as the process where a consumer surveys the environment for appropriate information to make a reasonable and informed decision (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:156; Solomon, 2004:223; Verbeke, 2000:523). Blackwell *et al.* (2006:109) offer a different perspective by defining search for information as the motivated activation of knowledge stored in the memory or gaining of information from the environment relating to ways to satisfy potential needs.

Hawkins *et al.* (2007:533) furthermore explain that searching for information involves mental and physical activities that consumers must perform. It takes time, energy, money and can often require giving up some desired activities. From the discussion, it can be derived that two primary types of information search can be identified namely internal and external searches.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:533), Blackwell *et al.* (2006:74) and Padberg and Westgren (1979:623) state that an internal search involves examining and recovering decision-relevant knowledge that is stored in the consumer's memory. With an external search, information is collected from marketing-and other non-commercial sources. These two types of information search are briefly discussed below.

### **2.3.2.1 Internal search**

According to Kerin *et al.* (2009:116), McDaniel *et al.* (2008:148), Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:533) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:109), internal search involves the scanning and retrieving of knowledge from memory that is relevant for the decision-making process. Consumers begin their information search internally after they experience a need since many needs are resolved by using previously gained knowledge. Therefore, consumers often do not have the need to undertake an external search before a purchase. Even when consumers undergo extensive decision-making with an extensive external search, the initial internal search produces a set of guidelines that limit and direct the external search. The quality of consumers' existing knowledge and their ability to retrieve the knowledge will therefore determine their reliance on this knowledge. The degree of satisfaction consumers experience with previous purchases also influences their reliance on internal search (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:109). Therefore, if a consumer does not have sufficient internal information to make a decision, a consumer will conduct an external search.

### **2.3.2.2 External search**

McDaniel *et al.* (2008:148), Kim, Forsythe, Gu and Moon (2002:481) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:507) suggest that a consumer may resolve a consumption problem by mainly using stored information, but at some point consumers acquire information from external sources such as personal contacts, independent sources, experiential sources, and marketing information.

Therefore, when an internal search proves to be insufficient for decision-making, consumers may decide to gather additional information from the external environment (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:111). An external information search thus occurs when consumers are motivated to search for information from sources other than memory (Verbeke, 2000:523; Heaney & Goldsmith, 1999:305). Kerin *et al.* (2009:116) and Hawkins, Best and Coney (2004:530) add to this view by dividing external consumer sources of information into four categories, namely:

- independent sources, such as magazines, consumer groups and government agencies;
- marketing sources, such as sales personnel, websites and advertising;
- experiential sources, such as inspection or product trial; and
- reference groups, such as family and friends.

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:111) continue by explaining that two types of external search can be distinguished, namely pre-purchase external search and ongoing external search. With pre-purchase external search, the external search is motivated by an upcoming purchase decision. The primary motivation behind this type of search is the consumer's desire to make better consumption choices. The motivation behind an ongoing external search is that consumers want to develop a knowledge base that can be used for future decision-making, as well as because of the pleasure derived from an ongoing external search.

Lake (2009:32), Hawkins *et al.* (2004:530) and Bakewell and Mitchell (2003:99) state that marketing activities, such as promotional activities, websites and salespeople influence all other sources of information. Therefore, the characteristics, distribution, and the promotional messages about the product or service provide the basic information available in the market. Consumers do not necessarily use advertising or other marketer-provided information as immediate input to purchase decisions, but continual exposure to advertising frequently influences consumers' perceptions, evaluative criteria, and the beliefs regarding the performance levels of each brand.

If the information is available by means of an internal and external search, the consumer moves onto stage three of the consumer decision-making process, namely pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives.

### 2.3.3 Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives

Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives, stage three of the consumer decision-making process, is defined by Blackwell *et al.* (2006:80) as when a consumer seeks answers to questions such as “What are my options?” and “Which is best?” when evaluating products or services.

Nagpal and Krishnamurthy (2008:696) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:534) are of the opinion that consumers have a tendency to utilise two types of information when potential alternatives are evaluated. Consumers have to decide between alternative brands as well as the criteria they will use to evaluate each brand. However, the search for information will continue as long as the consumer is not willing to make a purchase decision on the basis of the information collected so far (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:157; Pellemans, 1971:14). Zellman *et al.* (2010:272) and Hawkins *et al.* (2004:526) suggest that consumer decisions require evaluative criteria, appropriate alternatives, information about alternative characteristics and the selection of a decision rule when evaluating the performance level of each evaluative criterion.

#### 2.3.3.1 Evaluative criteria

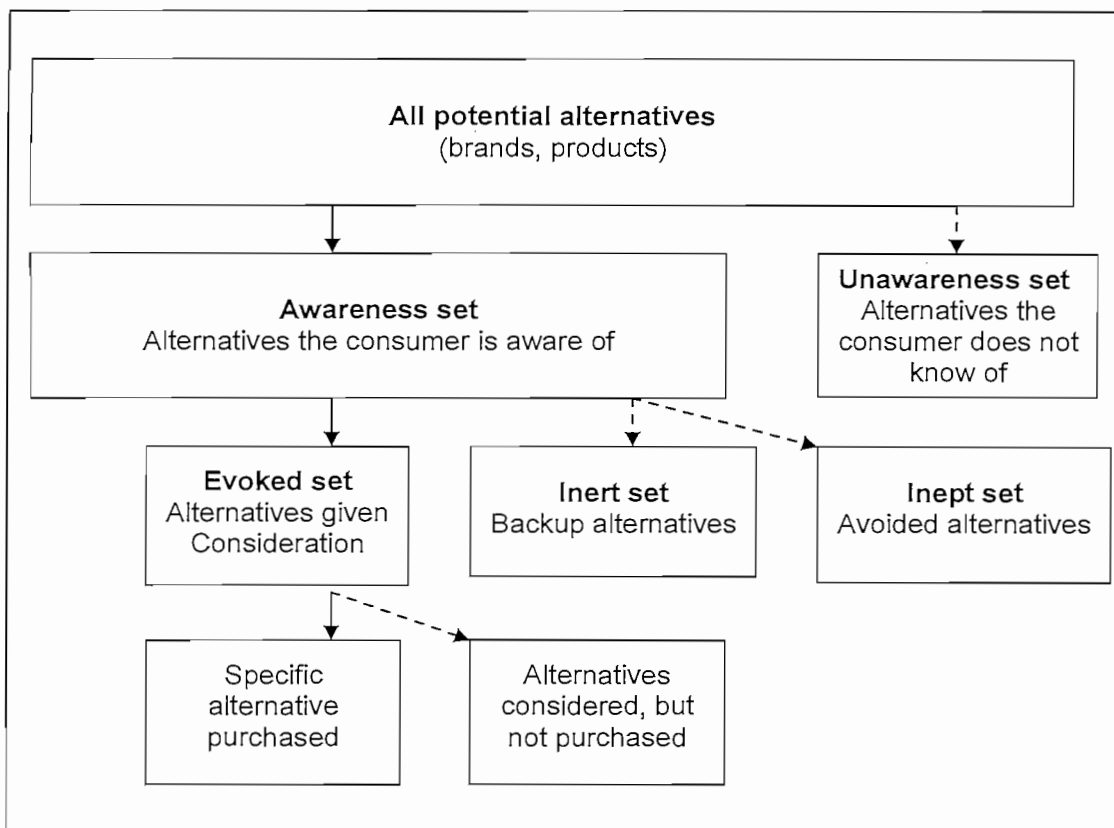
Blackwell *et al.* (2006:80), supported by Zikmund and d’Amico (2001:158), define evaluative criteria as the standards and specifications consumers use to compare different products, services and brands. Kerin *et al.*, (2009:117) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:537) also state that the criteria used in consumers’ evaluation of alternatives are mostly expressed in terms of essential product attributes, for example price or quality (see section 3.4.1 for a discussion on the attributes consumers can consider when evaluating between or selecting a store selling casual wear).

According to Hawkins *et al.* (2004:526) and Häubl and Trifts (2000:4), consumers engage in an internal search to determine the features or characteristics of a certain product or service required to meet their needs. These desired features are a consumer’s evaluative criteria. If a consumer has had limited experience with a certain product, he/she might also do an external search to learn what the desired characteristics of a certain product should be. An objective of both internal and external search is the determination of appropriate evaluative criteria. Marketers influence consumers to use evaluative criteria that match their product’s strengths by providing product information as their information is designed to influence the evaluative criteria that consumers use.

### 2.3.3.2 Appropriate alternatives

Hawkins *et al.* (2004:527) and Solomon (1994:230) suggest that consumers seek appropriate alternatives that will satisfy the identified need during and after the search for evaluative criteria. After consumers have identified a number of products as appropriate alternatives, they again start with an internal search to support their evaluation. Furthermore, the potential available alternatives can be divided into an awareness set and an unawareness set. The number of products, services or stores consumers think of as potential solutions, are known as the awareness set. The awareness set consists of three subcategories that have substantial importance to marketers, namely the evoked (consideration) set, inert set and inept set. Figure 2.3 illustrates the relationships between the different categories of decision alternatives.

Figure 2.3: Categories of decision alternatives



Source: Hawkins *et al.* (2004:526).

According to Belch and Belch (2004:116), the evoked set is a subset of all the brands the consumer is aware of. Hawkins *et al.* (2004:527) suggest that an evoked set are those brands or products consumers will evaluate for the solution of a particular consumer



problem. Evoked sets often consist of brands or products from a single product category, but different categories may form part of a consumer's evoked set. Consumers may even learn about additional acceptable brands when moving through the decision-making process. If a consumer is initially satisfied with the evoked set, the information search will focus on the performance of each brand in the evoked set based on the evaluative criteria. It is essential that a product is part of a consumer's evoked set if it is to be considered at all (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:535). Solomon (2004:305) as well as Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:535) state that consumers often include only a small number of alternatives in their evoked set. The evoked set is generally the one from which consumers make defined purchase decisions. Therefore, marketers need to focus on consumers recalling their brands in response to a need and to get consumers to consider their brands as worthy solutions to a need (Belch & Belch, 2004:116).

Hawkins *et al.* (2004:528) explain that also stemming from the awareness set is the inert set, consisting of brands of which the consumer is aware of but mostly unconcerned towards. Consumers will accept favourable information about the brands in the inert set, but they do not actively seek out such information. Brands in the inert set are usually acceptable when the consumer's preferred brands are not available.

Furthermore, Hawkins *et al.* (2004:528) add that brands in the inept set are actively disliked or avoided by the consumer and are therefore undeserving of further consideration by the consumer. Consumers are unlikely to process positive information about these brands even if the information is readily available.

### **2.3.3.3 Alternative characteristics**

According to Hawkins *et al.* (2004:529) the consumer compares brands based on certain evaluative criteria when choosing among brands in the evoked set. During this process, the consumer gathers information about each brand on each significant evaluative criterion.

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:80) distinguish between salient attributes and determinant attributes as evaluative criterion. Salient attributes are those attributes that consumers consider as potentially the most important. The difference in the alternatives regarding the determinant attributes, determines which product, service or store consumers prefer.

#### 2.3.3.4 Selecting a decision rule

According to Zellman *et al.* (2010:272), Peter and Olson (2010:166) and Hoyer (1984:824), consumers use certain decision rules to aid their brand or consumption choices. These decision rules provide guidelines or routines that make the decision-making process less challenging. These authors also refer to decision rules as heuristics, decision strategies, and information processing strategies. Zellman *et al.* (2010:272), Solomon (2004:319) and Todd and Gigerenzer (2000:727) state that consumers will consider certain sets of product attributes by using different decision rules. The complexity and the importance of the decision will influence the extent to which decision rules result in different brand choices.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:539), Blackwell *et al.* (2006:136) and Solomon (2004:319), consumer decision rules can be generally classified into two major categories, namely compensatory and non-compensatory decision rules, which are discussed subsequently.

##### A. Compensatory decision rules

When following a compensatory decision rule, consumers evaluate brands in terms of relevant attributes, and then compute a summated score for each brand. The score for each brand reflects its merit as a potential purchase choice. It is assumed that consumers will choose the brand that scores the highest among the evaluated alternatives (Zellman *et al.*, 2010:272; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007:539).

According to Zellman *et al.* (2010:272) and Solomon (2004:321) compensatory decision rules allow positive aspects of products to make up for its shortcomings. Consumers who follow these decision rules are more involved in the purchase and are more willing to balance out good and bad product qualities. In other words, a positive evaluation on one attribute of a product can balance out a negative evaluation on another attribute. This is considered by Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:539) as a unique feature of a compensatory decision rule. For example, a positive assessment of the environmental friendly clothing material used by a specific retail store may offset an unacceptable assessment in terms of the price of the clothing.

Solomon (2004:321) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:138) also suggest that two basic types of compensatory decision rules can be distinguished, namely the simple additive decision

rule and the weighted additive decision rule. When using the simple additive decision rule, the consumer simply chooses the alternative that is perceived to have the largest number of positive attributes. A shortcoming to this approach is that the consumer may consider positive attributes that may not be very meaningful or important. The weighted additive decision rule is a more complex compensatory decision rule. Consumers not only consider whether attributes are favourable or not, but also take into account the relative importance of positively rated attributes when applying this decision rule.

## **B. Non-compensatory decision rules**

Non-compensatory decision rules are simple decision rules where a product with a low standing attribute cannot make up for the position by being better on another attribute (Zellman *et al.*, 2010:272; Solomon & Rabolt, 2004:366). Blackwell *et al.* (2006:136) and Solomon (2004:319) explain that consumers simply eliminate options that do not meet certain basic standards. Four types of non-compensatory decision rules are identified, namely conjunctive, disjunctive, lexicographic, and elimination-by-aspects decision rules.

### **i. Conjunctive decision rule**

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:539), McFadden (2000:351) and Evans, Moutinho and Van Raaij (1996:99) state that the consumer creates a separate minimally acceptable level as a cut-off point for each attribute when using the conjunctive decision rule. If any particular brand falls below the cut-off point for any attribute, the product or service is removed from further consideration. The conjunctive decision rule is useful when a consumer quickly wants to lessen the number of alternatives considered. According to Peter and Olson (2005:161), a consumer will only accept an alternative if every criterion is met equally or exceeds the minimum cut-off point.

### **ii. Disjunctive decision rule**

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:540) and Evans *et al.* (1996:99), the disjunctive decision rule is the mirror image of the conjunctive decision rule and is based on positive attribute values. The consumer establishes a separate, minimal satisfactory cut-off point for each attribute; however, this is usually higher than the point established for a conjunctive decision rule (Peter & Olson, 2005:161). If a product or service alternative meets or exceeds the cut-off point for any one attribute, it is accepted. However, a

number of brands might exceed the cut-off point, producing a situation where another decision rule might be necessary to make a decision (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:540).

### **iii. Lexicographic decision rule**

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:541) explain that when following a lexicographic decision rule, the consumer firstly ranks the attributes in terms of perceived relevance or importance. A comparison among the various product alternatives is made in terms of a single attribute that is considered as most important. When one product scores satisfactorily high on this most important attribute, the product is selected and the process ends. Peter and Olson (2005:161) add that if a tie occurs, selection will occur regarding the best score on the second most important criterion and so on. This process will be continued until one best alternative can be chosen.

### **iv. Elimination-by-aspects decision rule**

Hawkins *et al.* (2004:574) and Todd and Gigerenzer (2000:728) explain that as with the lexicographic decision rule, the elimination-by-aspects decision rule requires that the consumer ranks the evaluative criteria in terms of importance. However, with this decision rule, a cut-off point for each criterion is established. The lexicographic decision rule seeks maximum performance at each stage, whereas the elimination-by-aspects decision rule seeks acceptable performance at each stage. Peter and Olson (2005:161) add that each alternative brand will firstly be considered on the most important criterion. Brands that do not exceed the cut-off point are then eliminated from consideration. If more than one brand then passes the cut-off point for that particular criterion, the process is repeated on those brands for the second most important criterion. This process will be repeated until only one brand remains.

Furthermore, as stated by Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:540), decision rules can be combined to form new variations, such as conjunctive-compensatory decision rules, conjunctive-disjunctive decision rules, and disjunctive-conjunctive decision rules. Belch and Belch (2004:120) add that consumers maintain evaluations of the brands in their evoked sets in their long-term memory. Thus, in many purchase situations, the consumer will simply select the brand with the highest perceived overall rating (known as the affect-referral decision rule). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:540), the affect-referral decision rule may represent the simplest of all decision rules.

As pointed out with the conjunctive decision rule, if none of the brands evaluated by the consumer are acceptable, the cut-offs must be revised, a different evaluation strategy used, or the consumer can postpone his/her choice (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:136; McFadden, 2000:352).

After a consumer has evaluated all available alternatives and chooses a specific option, he/she will go on to the fourth stage of the consumer decision-making process, namely purchasing the product or service.

### 2.3.4 Purchase

Bakewell and Mitchell (2003:98) and Hawkins *et al.* (1998:588) suggest that consumers go shopping for more complex reasons than simply to buy a product or service. Consumer motivation for shopping can range from aspects such as diversion from routine activities, exercise, sensory stimulation, social interactions, learning about new trends and even acquiring personal power by bossing around the clerks.

Shopping orientation, according to Hawkins *et al.* (2007:616), Solomon and Rabolt (2004:440) and Wang, Siu and Hui (2004:241), is defined as the shopping style that puts emphasis on certain activities or the motivation for shopping and refers to a consumer's general attitude about shopping.

Solomon and Rabolt (2004:440), Wang, Siu and Hui (2004:241), Bakewell and Mitchell (2003:96) and Osman (2001:141) explain that there are five types of consumer shopping styles:

- the economic shopper: a rational, goal-orientated consumer who is primarily interested in maximising the value of his/her money;
- the personalised shopper: a consumer who tends to form strong personal attachments to store personnel;
- the ethic shopper: a consumer who sacrifices lower price in order to help the smaller stores survive against the chain stores;
- the apathetic shopper: a consumer who does not like to shop and sees it as a necessary but unpleasant chore; and
- the recreational shopper: a consumer who views shopping as a fun, social activity.

To understand how the motivation to go shopping is created, attributes influencing consumer decision-making need to be evaluated. Furthermore, the determining store

attributes, which in turn affect shopping motivation, rely on the perceived importance of the attributes and therefore it is also necessary to understand the different determining attributes. The determining store attributes will be discussed in Chapter 3.

By understanding consumer shopping orientation, the fourth stage in the consumer decision-making process, namely purchase, can now be explained. The purchase stage is defined by Peter and Olson (2005:153) as the decision to buy the chosen alternative. Belch and Belch (2004:120) state that at some point in the consumer decision-making process the consumer should make a purchase decision. As an outcome of the pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives stage, consumers might develop a purchase intention or predisposition to buy a certain brand or product. These authors suggest that a purchase decision is not the same as the actual purchase. Consumers must still implement their decisions and make the actual purchase.

Wang, Siu and Hui (2004:241) and Belch and Belch (2004:120) state that additional decisions may be needed after the consumer decides which brand to purchase. During the purchase decision process consumers decide whether to buy, when to buy, where to buy (type of retailer and specific retailer), and how to pay. Even though one would think that what to buy and where to buy should have been dealt with during the first three stages (need recognition, search for information, and pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives), the consumer can still be influenced during the purchase stage.

Van der Vyver (2008:22) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:82) state that consumers often purchase something different from what they actually intended to buy because of circumstances during the purchase stage. Therefore, consumers may prefer a certain product or retailer, but choose another because of a competitor's sale or promotional event, hours of operation, location, or traffic problems. Consumers might change their minds inside a store because of aspects such as in-store displays, failure to find the intended product, persuasion by a salesperson, or price considerations. Solomon (2004:328) refers to the above-mentioned aspects as situational effects on consumer behaviour.

East, Wright and Vanhuele (2008:126), Blackwell *et al.* (2006:150) and Solomon (1994:341) further suggest that the decision to purchase can lead to a fully-planned, partially-planned, or an unplanned purchase. According to these authors, a purchase is fully planned if the consumer has decided exactly which brand in which product category to buy. However, fully-planned purchases can be affected by various marketing activities,

such as point-of-purchase displays and promotions. A purchase is partially planned if the consumer has decided on the product category, but not specifically on the brand, specific style or size. The final decision can therefore also be influenced by marketing factors. Purchases are unplanned when consumers decide to buy a product as they shop. This type of purchasing is also referred to as impulse shopping (Solomon & Rabolt, 2004:446; Kinnear, Bernhardt & Krentler, 1995:284). According to Van der Vyver (2008:26) and O'Quinn and Faber (1989:148), for these types of shoppers, the value of the product purchased is secondary to the value provided by the feelings associated with the purchase itself. Furthermore, consumers often use product displays and materials from catalogues as a substitute shopping list, which suggests that consumers might have hidden needs that are triggered by aspects such as in-store displays (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:150).

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:545) continue by suggesting that a purchase can also be a trial or long-term commitment purchase. A trial purchase refers to when a consumer purchases a product for the first time and buys a smaller quantity than usual. Trial is thus an exploratory phase in which consumers attempt to evaluate a product through consumption. According to Solomon (1994:342), trial is often encouraged by marketers through promotional tactics, such as free samples, coupons, or sale prices. If a product is found to be more satisfactory or better than other brands through trial, consumers are likely to repeat the purchase. This shows that the consumer likes the product and that he/she is willing to use it again and in larger quantities. These repeat purchases may lead to brand loyalty, which most marketers try to encourage because brand loyalty contributes to the target market returning to the store. With long-term commitment purchases, the consumer moves directly from evaluation to a long-term commitment without the opportunity for an actual trial. This is relevant with most durable products, such as refrigerators, washing machines and electric ranges (Schiffman & Kanuk 2007:545).

After a consumer has chosen to make a purchase as well as bought the chosen product or service, the consumer moves into the fifth stage of the consumer decision-making process, namely consumption.

### **2.3.5 Consumption**

According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:190), consumption, the fifth stage of the consumer decision-making process, represents the consumer's use of the purchased product.

Solomon, Zaichowsky and Polegato (2008:643) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:190) state that purchase and consumption go hand in hand in many cases, but consumption can occur immediately, be delayed or the product might not be used at all. For example, a consumer can buy winter clothes during an end-of-season sale, only to wear the product the following winter or buying a skirt a size smaller in hope of losing weight, but does not lose the weight and thus never wears the skirt.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:553) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:194) furthermore suggest that how consumers use products can affect how satisfied they are with the purchases and how likely they are to repeat purchases of particular brands or products. How carefully consumers use and maintain a product also determines how long the product will last before another purchase is needed.

An important characteristic of consumption behaviour is the particular feelings experienced during consumption. Lake (2009:38) and Peter and Olson (2010:217) add that a consumption experience can provide positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, or punishment. Positive reinforcement occurs when the consumer receives a positive outcome from product usage. Negative reinforcement occurs when the consumption of a product enables the consumer to avoid a negative outcome. Punishment refers to when consumption leads to negative outcomes.

After a consumer has used a product, he/she will evaluate the product and thus proceeds to the sixth stage of the consumer decision-making process namely post-consumption evaluation.

### **2.3.6 Post-consumption evaluation**

The sixth stage in the consumer decision-making process is post-consumption evaluation and can be defined as consumers' evaluation of a product's performance in light of their own expectations (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:116; Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:159 & Peter & Olson, 2005:153). Blackwell *et al.* (2006:210) offer a different view by defining post-consumption evaluation as where consumers will reinforce or modify their attitude towards a product based on their consumption experience.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:547) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:222), three possible outcomes are possible when comparing what is expected from a product to what is received, namely: confirmation; positive disconfirmation; and negative disconfirmation.



Confirmation takes place when the product's performance matches the consumer's expectations. Positive disconfirmation occurs when a product's performance exceeds the consumer's expectations, where negative disconfirmation occurs if performance is below expectations. According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:210) and Zikmund and d'Amico (2001:160), consumers experience a sense of either satisfaction or dissatisfaction during this stage, but can also experience what is called post-purchase dissonance. Each of these outcomes from the consumption of a product is briefly discussed below.

### **2.3.6.1 Consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction**

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:83) and Belch and Belch (2004:120) state that consumer satisfaction occurs when perceived performance matches or exceeds consumers' expectations. However, when experiences and performance fall short of expectations, dissatisfaction occurs. Hawkins *et al.* (2004:638) add that consumers can then experience non-satisfaction. Non-satisfaction occurs when a brand or store's performance confirms a low-performance expectation. In such a case, the consumer is not likely to feel disappointed or engage in complaint behaviour, but in future will rather seek better alternatives when a similar purchase occurs.

Van der Vyver (2008:27) and Bearden and Teel (1983:21) state that marketers should consider consumer satisfaction as very important seeing that how satisfied a consumer is with a product influences the consumer decision-making process and whether the brand, product or service will be purchased again. Hawkins *et al.* (2004:639) suggest that consumer satisfaction reduces the level of decision-making the next time a similar need is recognised. A satisfactory purchase thus encourages a consumer to repeat the same behaviour in the future. Furthermore, if a product's performance exceeds that of the consumers' expected performance, this will sometimes result in consumer commitment to a specific brand or store. When a consumer is enthusiastic about a certain brand, competitors will not easily sway them to another product. A committed consumer is therefore loyal to a brand and has an emotional attachment to the brand. Shiv and Huber (2000:202) furthermore suggest that customer satisfaction leads to repeat purchases and as a result shape positive word-of-mouth communication.

In contrast, consumer dissatisfaction can lead to negative word-of-mouth (Shiv & Huber, 2000:202). Blackwell *et al.* (2006:217) add that consumer dissatisfaction can also lead to consumer complaints and even lawsuits against organisations. However, not all consumers who experience dissatisfaction complain, often because they feel that it is not

worth the time and effort. Furthermore, if organisations are quick to respond to consumers' complaints, it has the potential to lead to even stronger intentions to repurchase.

### **2.3.6.2 Post-purchase dissonance**

Belch and Belch (2004:121) define post-purchase dissonance (cognitive dissonance) as a feeling of psychological tension or post-purchase doubt that a consumer experiences after making a difficult purchase choice. Hawkins *et al.* (2004:627) state that post-purchase dissonance occurs because making a commitment to a certain alternative requires one to give up attractive features of the un-chosen alternatives. Post-purchase dissonance usually occurs with high-involvement purchases when consumers attempt to avoid or reduce post-purchase dissonance because of its unpleasantness. These authors furthermore suggest that the probability and magnitude of post-purchase dissonance depend on the following:

- the degree of commitment or irrevocability of the decision: consumers are less likely to experience post-purchase dissonance if the decision can be changed easily;
- the importance of the decision to the consumer: if the decision is important to the consumer, post-purchase dissonance is more likely to occur;
- the difficulty of choosing among alternatives: the more difficult it is for the consumer to choose among alternatives, the more likely it is that post-purchase dissonance will be experienced; and
- the individual's tendency to experience anxiety: the higher the tendency of a consumer to experience anxiety, the more likely the individual will experience post-purchase dissonance.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:547) the reduction of any uncertainty or doubt that the consumer may have about a product or store selection is an important element of post-purchase evaluation. Consumers constantly try to reassure themselves that their choice was a sensible one. Thus, as part of the post-purchase analyses, consumers attempt to reduce post-purchase dissonance. Hawkins *et al.* (2004:628) suggest that consumers try to reduce post-purchase dissonance by utilising one or more of the following approaches:

- increase the desirability of the brand purchased;
- decrease the desirability of rejected alternatives;
- decrease the importance of the purchase decision; and

- reverse the purchase decision (return the product before use).

Fitchett and Smith (2002:357) explain that when post-purchase dissonance occurs, there is a large discrepancy between expected outcome and actual outcome. It is suggested that consumers deal with this difference in various ways, which include ignoring or distorting dissonant information as well as changing behaviour.

After a consumer uses a product or service, he/she has to decide on how to dispose of the product and thus moves onto the last stage of the consumer decision-making process, namely divestment.

### **2.3.7 Divestment**

Solomon *et al.* (2006:333) explain that divestment is the last stage in the consumer decision-making process which refers to when consumers decide on how to dispose of products. Consumers have to dispose of used products, often because they performed their functions or because they do not fit with consumers' views of themselves.

Arnould, Price and Zinkhan (2004:819) explain that if consumers decide to keep a product, they can either use it to serve the original purpose, convert it to serve a new purpose, or store the product for later consumption. According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:84), Solomon *et al.* (2006:334) and Hawkins *et al.* (2004:635), if consumers want to dispose of the product, they have a few options to choose from. The consumer can decide to permanently discard, or temporarily discard of the product. Often a consumer acquires a new product even if the old one still functions. The reason for this might be a desire for new features/functions, environmental changes, or a change in the person's self-image.

Arnould *et al.* (2004:816) state that if consumers decide to get rid of an item permanently, they can throw it away, give it away to someone, trade it, or even sell it. Consumers have the tendency to throw away rather than to reuse or recycle unwanted items. Solomon (1994:350) adds that giving unwanted items away in the form of a gift or a donation can also be a form of divestment. According to Arnould *et al.* (2004:818), attitudes toward the donation of products and services to others vary around the world. Donation refers to giving something tangible with no provision of any return. The rewards consumers derive from donating are usually intangible, such as feelings of joy or improved self-esteem.

Consumers can furthermore dispose of used products by selling them directly to other consumers without the use of a middleman. According to Hawkins *et al.* (2004:636), a consumer-to-consumer sale occurs when one consumer sells a product directly to another without the assistance of a commercial intermediary. Consumer-to-consumer selling is also growing rapidly through websites (such as eBay), which facilitates the selling process (Arnould *et al.*, 2004:817). Solomon and Rabolt (2004:457) add that if consumers decide to temporarily get rid of items, it can either be rented or loaned to someone.

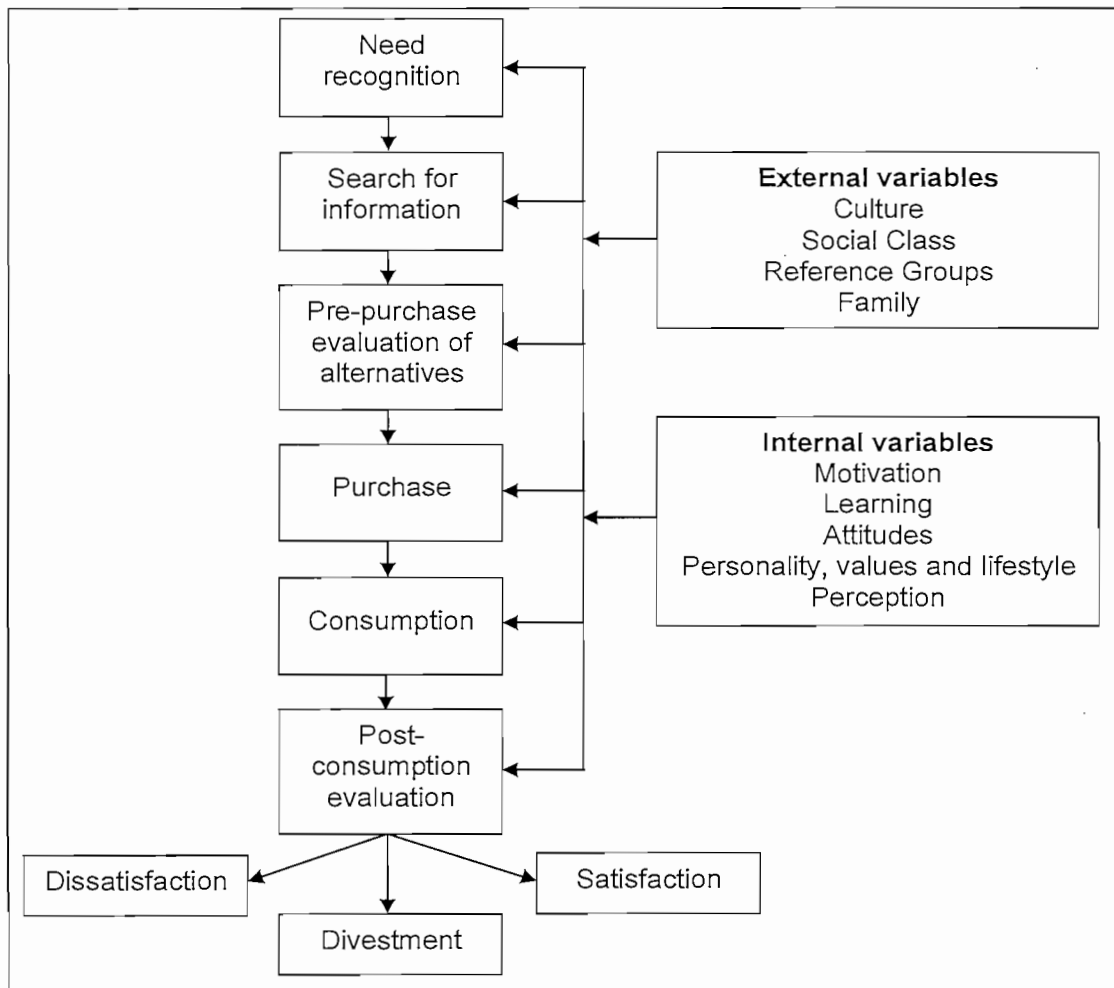
In conclusion to the divestment stage, it is important to note that recycling and environmental concerns also play a role in consumers' disposing methods. According to Solomon *et al.* (2006:334), the tendency of consumers to throw away everything creates problems for the environment, which also results in a great deal of waste. Organisations therefore develop products, packages and programmes that encourage proper disposal decisions.

After discussing the consumer decision-making process, the variables that influence consumer decision-making will now be considered.

## **2.4 VARIABLES INFLUENCING CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING**

Each stage of the consumer decision-making process is influenced by a number of external and internal variables (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:531; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:236; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:611). The influence of external and internal variables on the consumer decision-making process is illustrated in Figure 2.4 and will subsequently be discussed.

**Figure 2.4: External and internal variables influencing the consumer decision-making process**



Adapted from Blackwell *et al.* (2006:70) and Hawkins *et al.* (1998:497).

### 2.4.1 External variables

According to Peter and Olson (2005:247) and Bakewell and Mitchell (2003:95) the external variables (also known as environmental variables) refer to all the external social and physical characteristics of a consumer's world that affect the consumer decision-making process and include culture, social class, reference groups and the family.

#### 2.4.1.1 Culture

According to Solomon and Rabolt (2004:37), culture is a concept crucial for understanding consumer behaviour and can be thought of as a society's personality.

Culture includes both abstract ideas, such as values and ethics, and the material objects and services, such as clothing, food, art and sports that are produced or valued by a society. Culture is therefore defined as the accumulation of shared meanings, rituals, norms, and traditions among the members of society, which are transmitted from generation to generation (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:135; Berman and Evans, 2007:201; Evans, Jamal & Foxall, 2006:220).

Hawkins *et al.* (2007:40) state that marketing across cultural boundaries is a difficult and challenging task. Culture differs in demographics, languages, non-verbal communication and values. Hawkins *et al.* (2007:71) further add that culture operates primarily by setting boundaries for individual behaviour and by influencing the functioning of such institutions as the family and mass media. These boundaries, also referred to as norms, are derived from cultural values. Cultural values refer to the accumulated feelings and priorities that individuals have about the products that they possess. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:394) explain that both values and beliefs are mental images that affect a wide range of specific attitudes that in turn changes the way a person is likely to respond in a specific situation.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:420) state that culture has an immense influence on consumer decision-making. Individuals are brought up to follow beliefs, values and customs of their society and to avoid behaviour that is judged unacceptable. Culture can also be divided into subcultures where societies are divided into smaller groups that consist of people who are similar in terms of their ethnic origin, their customs and the way they behave. Subculture divisions are based on a variety of socio-cultural and demographic variables, such as nationality, religion, geographic locality, race, age and gender. According to Evans *et al.* (2006:221), marketers must respond to consumer differences with differentiation and segmentation strategies as well as adapt their marketing strategies to the cultural aspirations, needs and wants of the targeted consumer.

Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:397) explain that South Africa is a multicultural society where cultural values are a determinant variable in consumer decision-making. In South Africa, political transformation has led to changes in cultural values, consumption patterns, and lifestyles of various sub-cultural groups. It is therefore important to have adequate knowledge about consumers' cultures. Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:107) add that by acknowledging that there are differences between cultures, marketers are in a position to tailor messages that will address cultural issues and therefore not create offensive messages.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:449) and Solomon (2004:526), it is important for marketers to understand culture and sub-cultures, because in the end it changes the consumer's purchase decision. Products that provide benefits that are in line with consumers' cultured beliefs and values are much more likely to be successful in the marketplace.

In this study, there will be specifically looked at the black sub-culture and the store attributes they consider important when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from.

#### **2.4.1.2 Social class**

Kerin *et al.* (2009:135), Berman and Evans (2007:202) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:358) define social class as the classification of members of a society into a hierarchy of different status classes, so that members of each class have relatively the same status and members of all other classes have either more or less status. Hawkins *et al.* (2007:146) add that social class is thus measured in terms of social status. Social status is derived from demographics, including a consumer's income, education and occupation. Furthermore, social status often serves as a frame of reference for the development of consumer behaviour and attitudes. According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:87), differences in socio-economic status may lead to different patterns of consumer behaviour. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:388) state that research has shown that social class differs in preference of clothing brands, home decoration, leisure activities, as well as saving, spending and credit habits.

Peter and Olson (2005:317) add that a number of social class groups exist, namely upper, middle, working and lower class. Identification with each social class is strongly influenced by a consumer's level of education and work status. According to Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:106), the upper class is characterised as rich and appearance concerned, the middle class is concerned with reaching their goals and attaining prestige, the working class is dependant on community and family support, and lastly, the lower class is consumers living on or below the poverty line. Furthermore, social class is also affected by social skills, status aspirations, community participation, family history, cultural level, recreational habits, physical appearance as well as social acceptance by a particular class. Peter and Olson (2005:317) add that social class is therefore a combination of many personal and social attributes.

### 2.4.1.3 Reference groups

According to Kerin *et al.* (2009:132), Evans *et al.* (2006:172) and Peter and Olson (2005:328), reference groups involve one or more individuals that a consumer uses as basis for comparison or as point of reference when forming affective and cognitive responses as well as influences behaviour.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:311) mention that most individuals interact with other people on a daily basis who directly or indirectly influence their purchase decisions. Thus, determining the impact of groups on the individual is of great importance to marketers.

Consumer reference groups serve as a frame of reference for individuals in their purchase decisions and therefore reference groups exert a great deal of influence on consumers. According to Hawkins *et al.* (2004:224), a reference group is a group whose supposed perspectives and values are being used as the basis for current behaviour by an individual. Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:112) explain that the individual identifies to such a great extent with the group that he/she uses the group as a standard for self-evaluation and as a source for personal values and goals. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:312) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:87) further explain that from a marketing perspective, consumers often seek guidance on buying choices from these groups, and observe what these groups are doing for information when making their own consumption choices, and as a point of comparison.

### 2.4.1.4 Family

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:326) define a family as two or more persons related by blood, marriage, or adoption who reside together whereas a household can include individuals living together who are not related by blood, marriage or adoption. Within the context of consumer behaviour, families and households are treated as synonymous. According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:87), the family is regularly the main decision-making unit. This complex unit carries a variety of roles and functions, which often leads to cooperation and/or conflict during purchase situations. Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:102) explain that although the family has a great influence on consumer behaviour and consumer decision-making, because family members are continually in close contact with each other, the influence of the family falls outside the scope of this study, since individual decision-making will be considered in this study.



## 2.4.2 Internal variables

It is important for marketers to understand that consumer decision-making is influenced by numerous internal variables as could be seen in Figure 2.4. The internal variables influencing the consumer decision-making process include: motivation, learning, attitudes, personality, values and lifestyle as well as perception (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:70).

### 2.4.2.1 Motivation

According to Kerin *et al.* (2009:122) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:83), motivation is the force that drives consumers to take action. This force develops from tension, which is caused by an unfulfilled need. Individuals, both consciously and unconsciously, strive to lessen this tension through certain behaviour, which they believe will satisfy their needs and thus reduce the need-induced tension. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:289) thus explain that from a consumer's perspective, consumer motivation represents the drive to satisfy both physiological and psychological needs through product purchase and consumption.

According to Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:92), it is clear that needs are a consumer's reason to be motivated. A need can therefore be defined as a gap between a consumer's actual or desired state, and therefore the larger the gap between the desired and actual state, the more motivated the consumer will be to fulfil the need (see section 2.3.1.1 for a more detailed discussion on the actual and desired state).

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:311) explain that according to Maslow's Hierarchy of needs, needs are characterised and arranged in a hierarchy to reflect their importance. Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:93), Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:97), Blackwell *et al.* (2006:311) and Evans *et al.* (2006:7) state that the different levels of Maslow's Hierarchy are:

- psychological needs, such as food, water and sleep;
- safety needs, such as protection and security;
- social needs, such as companionship, love and friendship;
- esteem needs, such as accomplishment, self-respect and prestige; and
- self-actualisation, such as self-fulfilment and enriching experiences.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:97) state that consumers seek to satisfy lower-level needs before higher-level needs emerge. Therefore, the lowest level of an unsatisfied need that a consumer experiences, serves as motivation for consumer decision-making and thus

consumer behaviour. When this need is fulfilled, a new (higher) need develops that the consumer is motivated to fulfil, and so on. It is therefore important for marketers to understand the needs of consumers and what motivates them to fulfil these needs as this could influence the consumer decision-making process.

#### **2.4.2.2 Learning**

Kerin *et al.* (2009:126) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:198) define learning as the process by which consumers gain purchase and consumption knowledge as well as experience that they apply to related behaviour in future situations. The authors state that learning continually evolves as a result of newly-acquired knowledge or experience, which provides a basis for future behaviour. According to Solomon (2004:83), consumers learn even when they are not trying to, for example when consumers remember product jingles of brands they do not even consume. This unintentional acquisition of knowledge is referred to as incidental learning. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:198) add that marketers are interested in the learning processes of consumers as they want their communications to be noted, believed, remembered, and recalled by targeted consumers.

Furthermore, for learning to occur, four basic elements must be present, namely motivation, cues, response and reinforcement (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:152):

- motivation acts as encouragement to learn;
- cues provide direction to a consumer's motivation;
- response is the way a consumer will behave according to his/her motivation and cues; and
- reinforcement occurs when a consumer has a positive experience with a product or service and will thus associate the product with positive factors and probably purchase it again in the near future.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:198) and Perreault and McCarthy (2006:116) explain that by understanding how consumers learn, marketers can develop advertising and packaging strategies that could influence consumers when searching for information, evaluating between alternatives or when buying a product.

#### **2.4.2.3 Attitudes**

Kerin *et al.* (2009:127), Berman and Evans (2007:202), Arjun (2006:73) and Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:261) state that in a consumer behaviour context, an attitude is a

learned tendency to behave in a consistent positive or negative way towards a given object. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:238) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:423) mention that a consumer must experience an object, such as a product, evaluate it on the basis of available information, and then form a specific predisposition or attitude according to his/her own perception of it. It is also important that marketers understand that consumers' attitudes influence their behaviour by directly influencing consumer decision-making.

#### **2.4.2.4 Personality, values and lifestyle**

According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:271) and Assael (2004:295), personality can be defined, from a consumer behaviour perspective, as consumers' regular reactions to environmental stimuli. It is an individual's unique psychological makeup, which consistently changes how the person responds to his or her environment. Berman and Evans (2007:202) define personality as the sum total of an individual's traits, which make that individual unique. Evans *et al.* (2006:135) further explain that personality is thus a function of innate drives, learned motives and experiences. Hawkins *et al.* (2004:367) and Kim *et al.* (2002:481) add that consumers often use products to reinforce an area of their personality. It is therefore useful for marketers to understand personality and how consumers relate to products or brands (Hawkins *et al.*, 2004:370).

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:116) and Hawkins *et al.* (1998:388), there are two basic approaches to understand personality, namely individual theories and social learning theories. Individual theories have two assumptions, namely that all consumers have internal characteristics or qualities and that there are consistent differences between consumers on these characteristics and qualities. Social learning theories state that external variables are the important determinant factors for consumer behaviour.

Examining consumers' values and lifestyles is another way to understand why consumers differ in their individual decision-making. Berman and Evans (2007:201) and Kim *et al.* (2002:482) further explain that values represent consumer beliefs about life and acceptable behaviour and consumer lifestyle is based on social and psychological factors that are influenced by demographics. According to Allen (2001:102) values refer to normal behaviour for an individual or group and will determine how consumers' live and spend their time and money as a result of economic, cultural and social variables.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:545) explain that a consumer's decision to be committed to a particular lifestyle has an impact on his/her decision-making process. Kerin *et al.* (2009:128), Hawkins *et al.* (2004:28), Huddleston *et al.* (1990:73) and Ghosh (1989:100) add that lifestyle is how a consumer lives and this is shaped by values and experiences. This includes what a consumer buys, how a consumer consumes products, as well as a consumer's perceptions of the product. Lifestyle is the image a consumer has of him-/herself as a result of the culture he/she lives in and the situations that fill a consumer's daily life. The relevance of studying the influence of lifestyle on the consumer decision-making process is that consumers make purchase decisions that are consistent with their lifestyle, for example, a consumer with an active lifestyle purchases active wear clothing. Berman and Evans (2007:201) and Huddleston *et al.* (1990:73) mention that by understanding consumer preferences, marketers are able to identify market segments as well as to create product and promotional strategies that focus on their targeted consumers.

#### **2.4.2.5 Perception**

Even though perception is not included as an internal variable in all consumer decision-making models, for example in Blackwell *et al.* (2006:70), it is useful to add it as an internal variable, since it has an effect on consumer decision-making (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007:531). Kerin *et al.* (2009:124), Barat (2007:340) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:152) define perception as the process by which an individual observes, selects, organises and reacts to environmental stimuli in a meaningful way. According to Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:217), consumers react according to their perceptions, and not according to objective reality. Consumers' perceptions are much more important to marketers than consumers' knowledge of objective reality, because consumers' perceptions influence their purchase decisions. Evans *et al.* (2006:38) add that the retail environment provides marketers with many opportunities to play on consumers' senses in order to attract the consumer to the store. It is thus important for marketers to understand consumer perception in order to determine its influence on consumer decision-making.

### **2.5 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

What consumers buy and use is the result of a decision made. The consumer decision-making process therefore plays a significant role in understanding consumer purchasing and consumption. Different types of consumer decisions are characterised according to

the amount of effort that goes into a decision when it must be made. Consumer decision-making can thus be limited or nominal or extensive.

Seven stages are recognised in the consumer decision-making process, namely need recognition, search for information, pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives, purchase, consumption, post-consumption evaluation, and divestment. During the need recognition stage, the consumer is faced with a need when a perceived difference between the ideal and actual state is experienced. During the search for information stage, consumers seek relevant information about potential solutions to the recognised need. Consumers then evaluate competing alternatives in terms of important beliefs about relevant consequences and then combine this knowledge to make a choice. The chosen product or service is then purchased and consumed, after which it is evaluated in light of its performance. Divestment is the last stage where consumers choose between the disposal, recycling or remarketing of the product.

The primary objective of this study is to identify the store attributes that black consumers consider important when choosing a store selling casual wear. The following chapter will therefore focus on retailing as well as store attributes.

## CHAPTER 3

### RETAILING AND STORE ATTRIBUTES

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 provided an understanding of the theory concerning consumer behaviour that influences consumer decision-making and buying behaviour. This chapter aims to provide an overall understanding of retailing and its relation to consumer decision-making as to provide an understanding of what store attributes influence a consumer's choice of retail store to purchase casual wear from. Firstly, retailing will be discussed by describing the retail concept, the retail strategy, the types of retailers as well as the influence of retailers on consumers. This is followed by a discussion of the store attributes that influence consumers' decisions as to from which apparel retail store to purchase from.

#### 3.2 RETAILING

Ogden and Ogden (2005:6) and Newman and Cullen (2002:12) define retailing as the sale of products and services in small quantities to the consumer for personal, family or household use. Kerin *et al.* (2009:438), Hasty and Reardon (1997:10) and Beisel (1993:39) define retailing as all the organisational and marketing activities required to sell products or services to the consumer for consumption as well as to maintain these consumers through a programme of continuous quality improvement. Retailing takes many forms, such as store retail, telesales, door-to-door sales as well as vending machines. For the purpose of this study, retailing refers to the physical store outlet where goods can be purchased.

According to Van der Vyver (2008:1) and Cox and Brittain (1994:1), the retail industry is a vital part of the national economy. Kerin *et al.* (2009:438) add that not only do producers and consumers meet in a retailing outlet, but retailing provides multiple values to the consumer and the economy as a whole. To consumers, these values are in the form of products and services offered. Retailing's economic value is represented by the people employed in retailing, as well as by the total amount of money exchanged in retail sales. Cant *et al.* (2005:i) state that in 2008, retail trade sales were estimated at R41 billion and furthermore, 1 in 5 individuals employed are employed in the retail sector in South Africa.

Furthermore, Kerin *et al.* (2009:438) and Terblanché (1998:18) explain that the activities performed by retailers are very important to the consumer as well as to retailing, because the retailer is responsible for the formation and finalising of multiple consumer transactions. Therefore, retailers play a major role in creating and adding value to the consumer decision-making process, which ensures that the needs and wants of the consumer are satisfied. Terblanché (1998:22) adds that the retailer fulfils a number of marketing activities, such as being the link between the producer, the manufacturer and the consumer as well as helping to create an image that enhances the marketing of the product or service that in return stimulates consumer in-store purchasing.

In order to understand the retail industry as a whole, one must look at the retail concept and the retail strategy that all retailers should apply to attract the consumer to the store as well as to understand the consumer.

### **3.2.1 The retail concept**

Terblanché (1998:9) defines the retail concept as the reason for a retailer's existence on the basis that it strives to satisfy consumers' needs and wants, while simultaneously achieving the retailer's objectives. Berman and Evans (2007:15) and Terblanché (1998:7) identified four retail concept principles that need to be considered, namely consumer orientation, coordinated effort, value driven and goal orientated.

- consumer orientation is when the retailer determines the needs of the consumer and provides products and services to satisfy consumer needs;
- coordinated effort is when the retailer must coordinate all plans and activities to maximise efficiency and satisfy consumer wants and needs;
- value driven implies that the retailer must offer products to the consumer at appropriate prices for the level of products and services; and
- goal orientation implies that the retailer must apply the retail concept to reach the stated financial and non-financial goals.

Three additional issues relate to a retailer's performance in terms of the retailing concept, namely the total retail experience, customer service and relationship retailing that need to be taken into consideration.

- **The total retail experience**

Berman and Evans (2007:16) and Terblanché (1998:7) explain that the total retail experience includes all the attributes in a retail offering that encourage or restrain consumers during contact with a retailer aimed at meeting consumer expectations. If any part of the total retail experience is unsatisfactory, consumers may not make a purchase or even never shop at that particular store again. Terblanché (1998:8) emphasises the importance of the total retail experience by stating that the total retail experience is the best opportunity for many retailers to create a point of differentiation and succeed in today's competitive marketplace. Consumers visiting a store who receive above average experiences are more likely to purchase, be loyal towards the store and recommend the retailer to family and friends.

- **Customer service**

Kerin *et al.* (2009:423) and Berman and Evans (2007:18) explain that customer service refers to the identifiable and intangible activities undertaken by a retailer in conjunction with the products and services sold. Hasty and Reardon (1997:58) add that customer service has a strong impact on the total retail experience, which includes factors such as store hours, shopper friendly store-layout, credit acceptance, sales personnel, amenities, rest rooms, friendliness of sales personnel, delivery policies, efficient check-out points and post-purchase follow up. Berman and Evans (2007:18) add that customer service influences consumer satisfaction and is affected by expectations and past experiences. Therefore, it is important for retailers to offer customer services in order to create and sustain customer satisfaction that will ensure differentiation and success in the long term (Hasty & Reardon, 1997:121).

- **Relationship retailing**

Terblanché (1998:9) explains that relationship retailing refers to the strategy of activities that aim to attract, keep and increase the long-term association between a retailer and an individual consumer. Therefore, the emphasis in relationship retailing is on the creation of consumer loyalty towards the retailer. This implies that a retailer needs to focus on the total retail experience by monitoring consumer satisfaction as well as establishing on-going communication with the consumer (Berman & Evans, 2007:19). Berndt, du Plessis and Klopper (2009:228) and Bagdoniene and Jakstaite (2007:51) add that long-term relationships between a retailer and a consumer have a positive effect on attracting new



consumers and are one of the most important leverages for success. A strong relationship between a retailer and a consumer will ensure increased spending and loyalty toward the retail store.

### **3.2.2 Retail strategy**

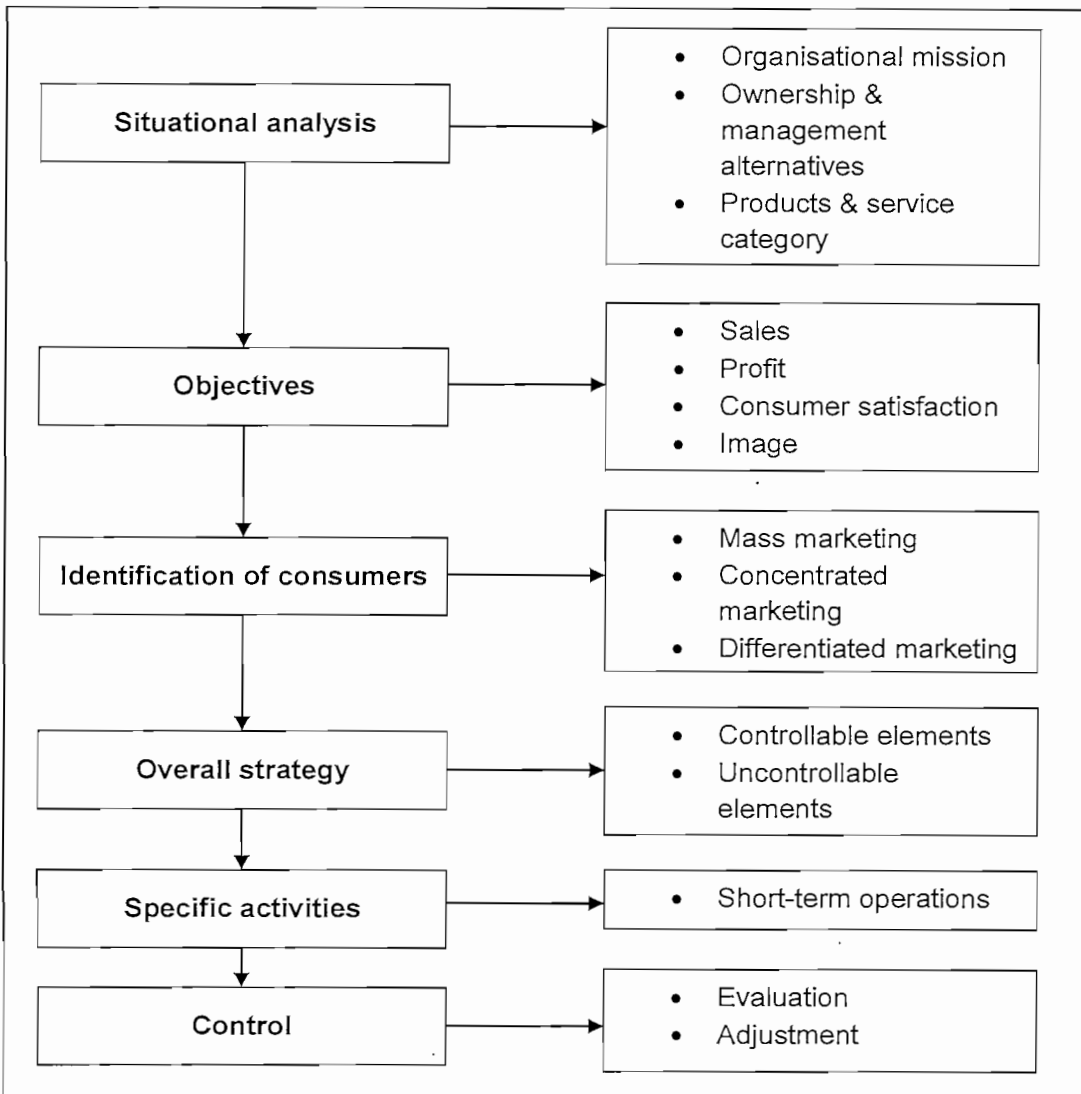
Ghosh (1990:126) explains that it is important for a retailer to apply a well-structured retail strategy in order to succeed in the competitive retail industry. According to Berman and Evans (2007:58) and Newman and Cullen (2002:98), a retail strategy is defined as the overall plan or framework that guides retailers' actions. A retail strategy outlines the retail mission, goals, consumer market, overall and specific activities and control mechanisms for a retail store.

Berman and Evans (2007:58) and Terblanché (1998:89) explain that a retail strategy has the following positive outcomes for a retailer:

- provides a thorough analysis of the requirements of doing business for different type of retailers;
- outlines the retailer goals;
- determines how to differentiate the retailer from competitors as well as develop products or services that appeal to targeted consumers;
- studies the legal, economic and competitive environment;
- coordinates a business's total efforts; and
- crises are anticipated and often avoided.

Berman and Evans (2007:58) further explain that applying a retail strategy is very important for retailers in order to cope with the consumer market and their changing needs. The retail strategy stages that a retailer needs to implement in order to be successful in the retail industry, as illustrated in Figure 3.1, will therefore be discussed in greater detail.

**Figure 3.1: Retail strategy stages**



Source: Berman and Evans (2007:59).

### 3.2.2.1 Situational analysis

Berman and Evans (2007:58) explain that a situational analysis is an evaluation of the opportunities and threats facing an existing retailer. Situational analysis implies being guided by an organisational mission, the type of ownership and management options and outlines the products and services sold at the store.

According to Berman and Evans (2007:59), Terblanché (1998:87), Hasty and Reardon (1997:66) and Ghosh (1990:128), an organisational mission is a retailer's commitment to a type of store and to a distinct role in the retail industry. Mostert and du Plessis

(2007:32) add that a retail store's organisational mission refers to the general purpose for existing in terms of the nature and scope of the store's current and future activities. Every store should be guided by an organisational mission that defines the reason for its existence and retailers must meet certain consumer needs in order to survive and grow in the retail industry. Therefore, each retailer fulfils these needs in a unique way that reflects the values of the store as stated in the stores' organisational mission.

Berman and Evans (2007:60) further explain that an essential part of situational analysis is assessing ownership and management alternatives so as to determine which ownership and management option is best suitable for the type of retail store. It is important to realise that there is no single best form of ownership; however, it is also important to determine which form of ownership and management will best serve the type of retail store. Berndt *et al.* (2009:198), McDaniel *et al.* (2008:403), Berman and Evans (2007:60) and Steyn (2006:30) mention that the ownership and management alternatives include: a sole proprietorship, partnership, a closed corporation, a private business or a public business or whether to start a new business, buy an existing business or to become a franchisee.

Terblanché (1998:89) explains that after determining which ownership and management alternative best suites the type of retail store, the retailer needs to decide on the final products and services the store is going to sell. Kerin *et al.* (2009:255) explain that a product is a service or idea consisting of tangible and intangible attributes that satisfy consumer needs and are received in exchange for money. Berman and Evans (2007:59) explain that the type of products or services a retailer chooses to sell depends on the objectives the retailer is trying to satisfy. Hasty and Reardon (1997:52) and Kinnear *et al.* (1995:290) add that in order to reach these objectives, the correct product mix should be implemented. A product mix is all the products available from the retailer and consists of a product mix breadth and depth. A retailer's breadth of product mix is determined by the number of product lines (e.g. Woolworths selling women's clothing, men's clothing, children's clothing and food). A retailer's depth of the product mix refers to the number of individual product items, sizes and colours available within each product line. It is therefore important for retailers to determine the correct product mix in order to attract the targeted consumer to the retail store.

Terblanché (1998:97) explains that after determining the store's organisational mission, the type of ownership or management form and after determining the type of products or

services that a store is going to sell that best suites the chosen type of store, a retailer must set objectives for the store that the retailer hopes to achieve.

### 3.2.2.2 Objectives

Berman and Evans (2007:67), Newman and Cullen (2002:104) and Terblanché (1998:97) explain that after conducting a situational analysis, a retailer sets goals and objectives, which include:

- sales objectives that are related to the volume of products and services a retailer sells;
- profit objectives where retailers seek a minimum profit level during a designated time period;
- to satisfy consumers' wants and needs; and
- to create a store image that will attract the targeted consumer.

In order to reach these objectives, it is important to identify the consumer that the retail store wishes to attract.

### 3.2.2.3 Identification of consumers

Kinnear *et al.* (1995:447) explain that it is important that retailers identify the consumers that the retail store aims to attract. Kerin *et al.* (2009:13) add that this is referred to as a retailers' target market. According to Berman and Evans (2007:72) and Kotler and Armstrong (2006:403), after identification, there are three marketing techniques retailers can apply to reach its target market. These techniques are: mass marketing, concentrated marketing and differentiated marketing.

- mass marketing is when a retailer sells products or services to a broad range of consumers, for example a clothing store in a small town that supplies clothes to everyone;
- concentrated marketing is when a retailer focuses on a specific group of consumers, for example a clothing store that sells high-priced clothing to wealthy consumers; and
- differentiated marketing is when a retailer aims at two or more distinct groups, each with a different retail approach, for example a retail store that sells clothing to babies and toddlers.

Once the retailer has identified the targeted consumer, the retailer needs to develop the overall strategy that the store needs to follow in order to be successful.

#### **3.2.2.4 Overall strategy**

Berman and Evans (2007:74) and Bearden, Ingram and LaForge (1998:358) explain that after identifying the targeted consumers, the retailer develops an in-depth overall strategy. Kinnear *et al.* (1995:447) explain that the overall strategy is the plan a store follows to reach the stated objectives. Berman and Evans (2007:74) add that this strategy includes controllable and uncontrollable elements. Controllable elements are those that a retailer can directly influence, namely the basic store location, managing of the store, product variety and pricing and communication with the targeted consumer. Uncontrollable elements are those that a retailer cannot control and that must be adapted to, including consumers, competition, technology, economic conditions, seasonality and legal restrictions. For retailers to be successful, they must effectively manipulate the controllable elements to manage the environment created by the ever-changing uncontrollable elements.

When the overall strategy for the retail store is in place, a retailer can then focus on specific activities that need to be implemented in order to carry out the overall strategy.

#### **3.2.2.5 Specific activities**

According to Berman and Evans (2007:79), short-term decisions are made for each controllable elements of the overall retail strategy and this is known as a retailer's daily or short-term tactics. Some tactics that a retailer can apply is to select the right store location that will attract the targeted consumer; to manage the business according to a structure and by maintaining the budget; decision-making regarding the products and variety; as well as the communication methods applied to attract the targeted consumer. Therefore, the essence of retailer excellence is making tactical decisions, building a sound strategy and continually improving it by means of controlling all the activities.

#### **3.2.2.6 Control**

Berman and Evans (2007:79) explain that by means of a control phase, the strategy and tactics of the retailer are evaluated and adjusted. Van der Vyver (2008:17), supported by Lusch, Dunne and Gebhardt (1990:354), states that it is important for retailers to

implement control and to look at positive and negative feedback so that they can determine the causes and then benefit from opportunities and resolve problems. According to Berman and Evans (2007:79), the strengths and weaknesses are revealed as performance is reviewed. Therefore, the aspects of a strategy that have gone well are continued and those that have been unsuccessful are adjusted. Hasty and Reardon (1997:310) explain that the aspects that have been unsuccessful are adjusted by means of expending additional resources or changing the activities in order to bring the performance back to a desirable level.

Having an appropriate retail strategy is vital for a retail store to be successful, but if a retailer does not understand the consumer that is attracted to the store, the retail strategy alone will not lead the retailer to success.

### **3.2.3 Retailers and understanding the consumer**

Berman and Evans (2007:198) explain that the success of a retailer depends on how well a retailer knows the consumer as well as forming a strategy that appeals to the targeted consumer. This implies that a retailer needs to identify consumer characteristics, needs and attitudes as well as recognise how consumers make decisions in order to attract the targeted consumers. Retailers need to be aware of how consumers make decisions (as discussed in the consumer decision-making process, section 2.3) and how the external and internal variables in the consumer decision-making process (discussed in section 2.4) affect their view of the retailer. Apart from the external and internal variables that affect consumer behaviour, other factors that retailers need to consider when appealing to consumers are: consumer demographics and lifestyles, perceived risk and shopping attitude.

#### **3.2.3.1 Consumer demographics and lifestyles**

Berman and Evans (2007:199) and Schiffmann and Kanuk (2007:545) explain that demographics are objective, quantifiable, easily identifiable and measurable population data. Newman and Cullen (2002:14) add that a successful retailer makes his/her selection of appropriate products and services to support his/her consumer demographics. According to Berman and Evans (2007:199), Terblanché (1998:28) and Lusch *et al.* (1993:78), consumers can be identified by demographics such as gender, age, population growth rate, life expectancy, literacy, language spoken, household size, marital and family status, income, mobility, place of residence, occupation, education and

ethnic background. Visser and du Preez (1996:12) add that consumer lifestyles should be understood in order to understand the consumer because a consumer's decision to be committed to a particular lifestyle influences consumer behaviour and consumer decision-making. Kerin *et al.* (2009:128) and Kinnear *et al.* (1995:153) explain that consumer lifestyles refer to the activities, interests, demographics, social class, family orientation, needs and motives, values, personality, attitude and opinions exhibited by consumers. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:282) mention that consumer lifestyles influences consumer needs and attitudes and thus affect a consumer's store choice.

### **3.2.3.2 Perceived risk**

Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:240) and Cox and Rich (1964:33) explain that consumers are faced with decisions regarding the store they purchase from as well as the products and services they buy nearly every day. Because consumers are often uncertain about the consequences of their store and purchase decisions, they perceive a certain degree of risk when making a retail store decision. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:123) define perceived risk as consumers' uncertainty about the potential positive and negative consequences that the store choice and purchase decision may have.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:187) and Cox and Rich (1964:33) explain that how much risk is perceived when choosing a retail store depends on the specific consumer. Higher perceived risk results in greater search and increased reliance on personal experiences and information. For example, a self-conscious individual who wants to impress other peers will perceive the risk of purchasing clothing at a discount store as risky. An individual who does not care about outward appearance would probably not perceive risk when purchasing clothing from a discount store. High-risk perceivers limit their choices to a few approved stores. Such consumers would exclude perfectly good alternatives in order to avoid a poor selection. Low-risk perceivers tend to make choices from a much greater range of store alternatives. Such consumers would much rather risk a poor store selection than limit the number of store alternatives to choose from.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:187), consumers perceive the purchase of services to be more risky than the purchase of products, because a service cannot be seen or touched. Furthermore, the shopping situation (online, direct-mail, catalogue, or door-to-door sales) also affects the degree of risk perceived by consumers. For example, buying online has a higher perceived risk because the consumer is not sure if the product will really look as advertised or even if the product will be delivered after payment.

As early as 1974, Kaplan, Szybillo and Jacoby (1974:288) identified five risk dimensions that could influence consumers when selecting a store as well as when purchasing products from a store.

- **Financial risk:** According to Berman and Evans (2007:202) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:18), financial risk is the risk that the product will not be worth its cost or be cheaper at another store. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:361) and Kaplan *et al.* (1974:288) add that this risk is usually associated with monetary value of products or services. Consumers with relatively little income and wealth are most vulnerable and high-price items at expensive stores are most subject to this form of risk. Hawkins *et al.* (2007:615) add that to minimise financial risk, stores can offer warranties and reasonable return policies to the consumer.
- **Functional risk:** Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:18) and Solomon *et al.* (2006:272) explain that functional risk is the risk that the product will not perform as expected. This risk involves alternate means of performing the function or meeting the need. Practical consumers are most sensitive and the products or services purchased and used require the buyer's commitment. Ward (2008:86) adds that functional risk can result from a poor product choice owing to the shopper's inability to accurately judge the quality of the product. Hawkins *et al.* (2007:615) state that stores can apply return policies in situations where the consumer is not happy with the product in order to reduce functional risk.
- **Physical risk:** Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:18) define physical risk as the risk that the store or product choice may cause injuries to the consumer self or to others. Furthermore, Solomon *et al.* (2006:272) add that this risk consists of physical strength, health and vitality. Consumers who are elderly, frail, or in ill health are most vulnerable to this type of risk so it is important for stores to take this into consideration with their store layout, placing of products and store accessibility.
- **Social risk:** Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:18), Solomon *et al.* (2006:272) and Peter and Olson (2005:76) explain that social risk is the risk that a poor store choice will result in social embarrassment. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:361) add that this risk refers to self-esteem and self-confidence and those consumers who are insecure and uncertain are most susceptible. Hawkins *et al.* (2007:615) mention that socially visible or symbolic goods such as clothes, jewellery, cars, homes, or sports equipment are most subject to social risk. Terblanché (1998:58) add that the image of a store will



also influence social risk for a consumer if the store is not acceptable by the consumers' peers.

- **Psychological risk:** Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:18), Solomon *et al.* (2006:272) and Peter and Olson (2005:76) state that psychological risk is the risk that a poor store or product choice will damage the consumer's self-image. This risk includes affiliations and status and consumers' lacking of self-respect or attractiveness to peers. Expensive personal luxuries that may cause guilt and durables and services that demand self-discipline when used are most sensitive to this type of risk.

### 3.2.3.3 Consumer attitude

Berman and Evans (2007:208) state that consumer attitude has a big impact on the way in which a consumer reacts in a retail environment as well as which store the consumer chooses to buy from. Therefore, retailers must strive to turn around the negative attitudes and perceptions that exist among consumers towards a retail store as well as make optimum use of positive attitudes and perception to encourage purchase behaviour and store loyalty.

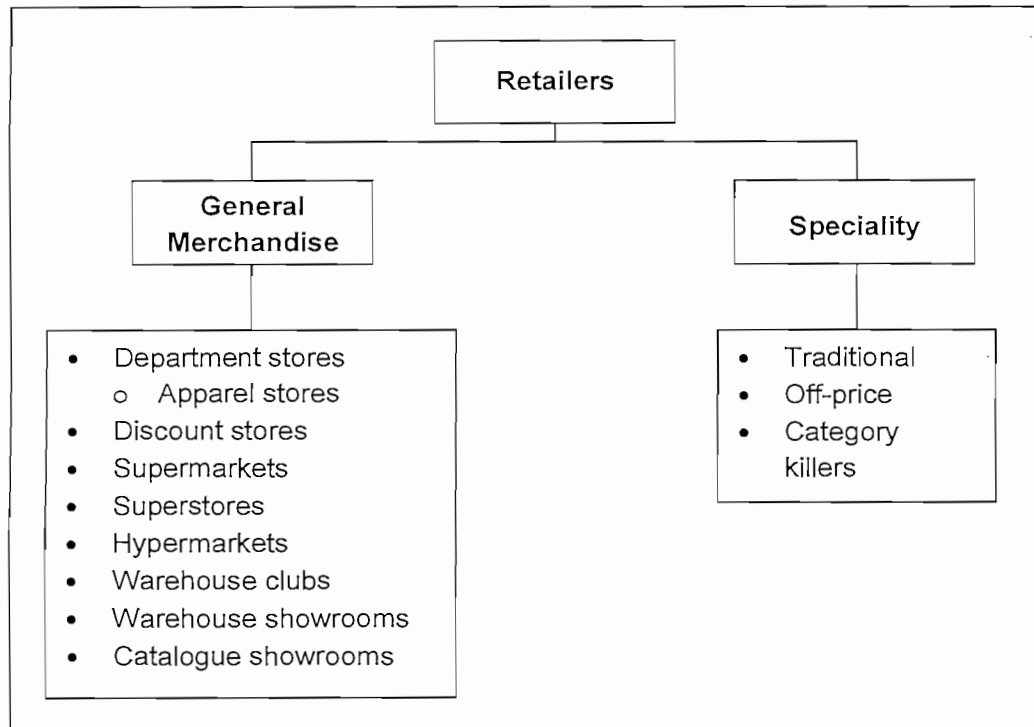
Chang and Tu (2005:198), supported by Allport (1967:8), explain that attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness that is organised through experience and has a direct influence on an individual's response to products and situations. Moye and Kincade (1999:58-59) add that consumers express preference or lack of preference for stores by reflecting a favourable or unfavourable attitude that is formed through the store attributes. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:157) and Rabolt and Miller (1997:31) state that this means that consumers with a favourable attitude towards a store will most likely buy from that store and consumers with an unfavourable attitude will not select the store and not purchase products from the store. Consumer attitude therefore plays an important role in determining the store attributes that a consumer uses to choose one store over another as well as the type of retailer that a consumer chooses to purchase from.

## 3.3 TYPES OF RETAILERS

Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:204), Kotler and Armstrong (2006:397) and Frings (1999:293) explain that although all retailers sell products to final consumers, different types of retailers provide different types of products and services to these consumers. Donnelan (1996:59) adds that there are many types of retailers to comply with the

different consumer wants and needs that exist. Ogden and Ogden (2005:97) add that the two main types of retailers are general merchandise retailers and speciality retailers. Within each of these two main groups are different types of retailers that can be distinguished, as seen in Figure 3.2.

**Figure 3.2: Types of retailers**



Source: Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:204).

### 3.3.1 General merchandise retailers

General merchandise retailers sell a broad range of general products and product lines. This means that there is a wide variety of products for the consumer to choose from. There are seven types of general merchandise retailers that can be distinguished (Mostert & Du Plessis, 2007:204; Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:396; Ogden & Ogden, 2005:97; Beisel, 1993:66; McCarthy & Perreault, 1991:246; Lusch & Lusch, 1987:361):

- department stores are large retailers that offer the final consumer a wide range of products under one roof. Department stores are organised into departments according to different types of products, namely clothing, appliances and home furnishers (e.g. Woolworths). Most apparel stores are department stores;
- discount stores are retailers that offer products at lower prices than most of the other retailers (e.g. Hi-Fi Corporation);

- supermarkets refer to self-service stores that specialise in selling food products. These stores generally sell groceries, meat and produce products (e.g. Spar);
- superstores are stores that are a combination of discount stores and supermarkets. Superstores offer more products than supermarkets to meet most of the consumer needs. Products range from food, hardware, small appliances, clothing and toys (e.g. Game);
- hypermarkets are retailers that combine a supermarket and a discount store and thus offer a wide range of products in one store (e.g. Pick 'n Pay Hypermarket);
- warehouse clubs require that the consumer must be a member in order to buy from a warehouse club. Warehouse clubs offer a variety of products ranging from groceries to appliances to apparel (e.g. Makro);
- warehouse showrooms are single-line, limited-service retailers that sell high-margin products such as furniture, carpeting or appliances (e.g. Wetherlys); and
- catalogue showrooms are relatively large physical facilities that are partitioned into a showroom and warehouse area. Catalogue showrooms are usually used by jewellery, photographic equipment, small appliances and house ware retailers (e.g. Hirsch's).

### 3.3.2 Speciality stores

Speciality stores concentrate on a few product lines, but have a wide assortment within the product line. There are three types of speciality stores that can be distinguished (Mostert & Du Plessis, 2007:207; Beisel, 1993:69; McCarthy & Perreault, 1991:247):

- traditional speciality stores are retail stores that have one or very little product mixes, but have a wide range of product lines aimed at a specific targeted consumer (e.g. Musica);
- off-price stores include retailers that purchase out-of-season products, returned or slightly damaged products and then re-sell to the consumer at a lower price or when a factory store sells unsold products from another store at lower prices (e.g. Levis factory shop); and
- category killers are large speciality stores that compete by offering lower prices, knowledgeable sales personnel and ensuring product availability (e.g. Mr Price Home).

As this study focuses specifically on apparel retailing as a type of retailer, this concept warrants further discussion.

### 3.3.3 Apparel retail

As mentioned, apparel stores fall under the category general merchandise and are mostly department stores. Frings (1996:313) adds that apparel retail is the connection between the apparel industry and the final consumer by means of a store selling apparel products (e.g. casual wear) to the final consumer. Doherty (2000:223) states that the apparel industry has evolved into one of the most productive, dynamic and successful retail types in the retail industry. Crewe and Daveport (1991:183) mention that the present apparel retail environment is also marked by intense competition. Newman and Patel (2004:770) and Newman and Foxall (2003:295) state that this dynamic and competitive character of the apparel retail environment leads to consumer expectations being in a continuous state of change with an increased demand for individual consumer needs and preferences that need to be met. Therefore, for apparel retailers to be successful, retailers need to determine what attracts consumers to purchase clothing at a chosen store.

Solomon and Rabolt (2004:4) explain that consumers visit apparel retail stores to buy clothes, but they also go there to try clothes on, to explore new looks and to build new versions of themselves. Tatzel (1982:90) adds that when consumers shop for apparel, it involves making decisions about their appearance and is part of an overall life pattern that reflects their attitudes towards a store, the clothing as well as complex values and interests such as aesthetics and materialism. Therefore, apparel is a driving force that shapes the way a consumers lives, because it influences what a consumer wears, hairstyles, jewellery and cosmetics. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:4) and Belk (1988:139) furthermore explain that apparel reflects a consumer's society and culture and has a symbolic innovation and therefore the clothing a consumer wears reflects a consumer's personality as well as how consumers see themselves.

North *et al.* (2003:42) mention that for retailers to be successful in the apparel industry, retailers need to cater for their target market to ensure that the store attracts the consumer. Lewis and Hawksley (1990:22) add that attracting consumers to a store can be done by establishing a positive store image and aligning all the store attributes with the needs of the consumer.

### 3.4 STORE IMAGE

In this study, store image is discussed as a basis for identifying the store attributes consumers consider important when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from. Ailawadi and Keller (2004:332) mention that store image serves as a basis for consumer decision-making and plays an important part in the retail store. In its simplest form, store image can be considered to be a stores' personality (Martineau, 1958:48). Erdem, Oumlil and Tunçalp (1999:139) provide a more elaborate definition by defining store image as the way in which a store is defined in the consumer's mind, partly by its functional qualities and partly by an aura of emotional attributes. Hawkins *et al.* (2007:608), Blackwell *et al.* (2006:157) and Solomon and Rabolt (2004:446) explain that selecting a specific retail store involves a comparison of the alternative retail stores in the consumer's evaluation criteria that is formed through consumer's perceptions and experiences and thus forms the stores' image in the eye of the consumer.

Yuqing (2002:16) mentions that store image is a complex but important factor for retail stores. No store can be all things for one consumer and therefore it is impossible to think that a store will project the same store image to different consumers. According to Erdem *et al.* (1999:139), store image can be seen as one of the most important attributes in store patronage. Assael (1992:630) adds that a positive store image leads to positive consumer attitudes towards the store and the greater the possibility that the consumer will shop at the store. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:446) and Baker *et al.* (2002:120) add that a consumer's perception of a store as well as what store attributes are associated with the store or its image is influenced by a consumer's shopping experience.

Yuqing (2002:17), Amirani and Gates (1993:30) and Martineau (1958:48) explain store image can be linked to store selection and store loyalty and is seen as a way to gain competitive advantage. Consumers have specific perceptions of all the attributes associated with store image and these perceptions influence consumer decision-making and thus their retail store choice. Therefore, if the consumer is satisfied with the store, he/she will revisit the store.

Porter and Claycomb (1997:384) explain that the success of a retail store strongly depends on how close the image of the store and the products meets the expectations of the consumer. Therefore, store image can be seen as a vital component for retailers to differentiate themselves in the market place and thus it is important for retailers to create a store image and identify store attributes that will affect consumer perceptions positively

and thus gain store patronage and loyalty (Janse van Noordwyk, 2008:ii). Osman (2001:141) and Grewel, Krishnan, Baker and Borin (1998:347) add that store image is of importance for apparel retailers because in today's highly competitive and dynamic apparel industry, retailers need to optimise all their resources to attract the consumer. Retailers differentiate themselves from their competitors by creating a unique and positive store image in the eyes of the consumer by means of store attributes. Yuqing (2002:17) adds that consumers base their decision to purchase at a store on their perception of the store's attributes.

From the discussion above, it can be noted that consumers' choice of a store is influenced by the store attributes that aid in the development of a store's image. Although many scholars have researched store image, no agreement has been reached on the store attributes that comprise store image (Janse van Noordwyk, 2008:60; Visser *et al.*, 2006:50; Peter & Olson, 2005:408; Koo, 2003:68; Terblanché, 1998:63; Huddleston *et al.*, 1990:76; Lindquist, 1975:31 & Martineau, 1958:48). Although certain attributes that form store image have been identified, limited research has been done on the store attributes consumers consider as important when selecting a store and therefore this study will focus on determining the store attributes consumers consider important when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from by applying store image literature due to the vast amount of literature available on this subject and limited literature available on general store attributes.

### **3.4.1 Store attributes**

Newman and Patel (2004:771) and Osman (1993:133) explain that the value a consumer places on different store attributes differs from consumer to consumer as well as from retailer to retailer. These values influence consumer perceptions and thus emphasise the importance of store attributes.

According to Hawkins *et al.* (2007:317), retail stores should be designed so that all store attributes work together to influence the consumer's perception of the store and thus will determine if the consumer will buy at the store or decide to go to another store. Morrison (2006:72) and Osman (2001:137) state that consumers today are no longer satisfied with only products and services, but consumers want an in-store experience that addresses their expectations and emotional needs by gaining consumer attention and by building excitement. Schlosser (1998:346) adds that because of an increasingly competitive retail market, improving the store attributes a store offers and the consumer shopping

experience have become a necessity rather than an option for retailers. Kleinans (2003:131) supports this by stating that since the retail industry is highly competitive with a wide range of stores and products, consumers today evaluate a store more often on its store attributes than in the past. Visser *et al.* (2006:51) highlight the fact that the need for a good fit between what the consumer needs and what the retailer offers is very important, because store attributes influences consumers' perception and attitude towards the store. According to Babin (1987:10), the key for retailers to be successful is thus the implementation of effective store attributes that turns shopping into an enjoyable and rewarding experience for the consumer.

Engel *et al.* (1995:844) state that the overall perception of a store is referred to as store image and is made up of all the store's attributes. Various scholars have identified various store attributes that determine store image (Janse van Noordwyk, 2008:60; Visser *et al.*, 2006:50; Peter & Olson, 2005:408; Koo, 2003:68; Terblanché, 1998:63; Huddleston *et al.*, 1990:76; Lindquist, 1975:31 & Martineau, 1958:48). It was therefore decided to combine the various views and to discuss the most important store attributes that consumers consider when purchasing from a store namely: merchandise, service, store atmosphere, post-transactional satisfaction, promotion, physical facilities and convenience. Each of these attributes are listed in Table 3.1 and each attribute will be discussed subsequently.

**Table 3.1: Attributes influencing store choice**

Attributes	Description of attributes
<b>Merchandise</b>	Variety, styling or fashion, pricing of merchandise, merchandise quality and merchandise availability.
<b>Service</b>	Salespeople, service in general (provide alterations and sells cell phones, accessories and airtime), lay-buy services, credit card facilities and availability of store cards.
<b>Store atmosphere</b>	Music and smell.
<b>Post-transaction satisfaction</b>	Returns and refunds.
<b>Promotion</b>	Sales promotions (discounts), displays (window and in-store) and in-store advertising.

**Table 3.1: Attributes influencing store choice**

<b>Physical facilities</b>	Store access, ease of movement (store layout and aisle placement), air-conditioning, waiting area, trolleys or baskets, dressing rooms, check-out points and neat and clean store.
<b>Convenience</b>	Store hours, location, access to public transportation, parking facilities and the ability to order products online.

Adapted from Janse van Noordwyk (2008:60), Visser *et al.* (2006:50), Peter and Olson (2005:408), Koo (2003:68), Terblanché (1998:63), Huddleston *et al.* (1990:76), Lindquist (1975:31) and Martineau (1958:48).

### 3.4.1.1 Merchandise

Lindquist (1975:31) defines merchandise as the products or service offered by a store. In this study, merchandise refers to casual wear. Morrison (2006:65), Newman and Patel (2004:773) and Newman and Foxall (2003:599) state that consumers are becoming increasingly persistent in their demands for merchandise that meet their individual needs and preferences. For retailers to gain competitive advantage, they need to align their retail strategy with consumer merchandise preferences. By succeeding in this, retailers are rewarded with consumer loyalty and thus profitability.

Morschett, Swoboda and Foscht (2005:443), Terblanché (1998:66), Peter and Olson (1990:409), Mazursky and Jacoby (1986:146) and Lindquist (1975:31) describe merchandise as product qualities and the width and depth of the product variety in the retail store. Lindquist (1975:37) adds that merchandise is a key attribute that influences consumers' decision as to where to buy from. Terblanché (1998:58-61) explains that consumer purchasing behaviour varies across different types of merchandise groups and depends on the frequency with which a product is purchased, the cost of the product, the time and effort involved in making the purchase, as well as the perceived risk associated with the product. Furthermore, Thang and Tan (2003:194) and Lindquist (1975:31) explain that the attributes of merchandise that are considered as important when consumers choose which retail store to buy from, include merchandise variety, styling or fashion, merchandise price and merchandise quality.

Morrison (2006:74-75) and Vahie and Paswan (2006:68) add that merchandise is an important attribute in attracting consumers to a store. However, it is important to take into consideration that consumers differ in their perception of the degree of importance. Therefore, retailers need to develop an integrated view of the consumer to understand



consumers' evolving needs and thus to be able to accommodate the consumers' expectations by providing flexible merchandise offerings, including variety, style and fashion.

Carpenter and Moore (2006:435) explain that the merchandise variety offered is an influential variable affecting whether a consumer will visit a store. Golledge, Rushton and Clark (1966:262) mention that stores with a wide variety of merchandise enhance a store's ability to fulfil consumers' needs and wants. Van Herpen and Pieters (2000:2) and Frings (1999:314) add that merchandise variety is the various styles, colours, brands, models and sizes that fall under one category.

As mentioned before, merchandise styling or fashion is seen as an important when consumers select a retail store (Thang & Tan, 2003:194). Frings (1999:310) explains that merchandise styling or fashion includes all the planning and activities necessary to supply clothing that is the fashion that the consumer wants. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:6) add that fashion refers to the clothing style that is accepted by a large group of consumers at a certain time. Therefore it is important for retailers to sell products that are the correct styles and fashion that the targeted consumers want.

Furthermore, McDaniel *et al.* (2008:423) explain that a retailer's ultimate goal is to sell products to the consumer and the right price is critical in ensuring sales. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:160) and Fox, Montgomery and Lodish (2004:526) state that the importance of price depends on the buyer, for example a consumer who prefers convenience will not be as critical on price as a consumer who wants to pay the minimum for a product. Therefore it is important for retailers to ensure that their products are sold at the price that the consumer is willing to pay.

Another important merchandise attribute that consumers consider when selecting a retail store, is the quality of the products sold at the store. Lusch and Lusch (1987:372) explain that the quality of the products that a store sells reflects the status of a store. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:451) add that apparel quality is referred to as structural integrity (such as even stitching and matching plaids), aesthetic presence (perfect finishing and overall appearance) and the power of appeal. Darley and Lim (1993:18) furthermore add that the quality of the products that a retail store sells is directly related to the type of consumers that purchase from the store. Therefore, in order to attract the targeted consumers, retailers need to offer appropriate quality products.

Lastly, Rajiv, Dutta and Dhar (2002:77) mention that it is important to take into consideration that the merchandise advertised must be available in the store. Westbrook (1987:258) adds that retail satisfaction depends on the availability of merchandise. Therefore, retailers should focus on having sufficient merchandise available in the store so as to ensure that consumers find what they are looking for and thus increasing store loyalty.

### **3.4.1.2 Service**

Carpenter, Moore and Fairhurst (2005:44) state that although more emphasis is placed on enhancing the consumer experience to create differentiation, consumers still expect retailers to provide good service. Consumers have different expectations for the service they want from a retailer and thus determining the factors that influence consumers' service perception is of importance to the retailer (Lee & Johnson, 1997:29). Rath, Peterson, Greensley and Gill (1994:42) add that consumers shop in stores that provide service that is in line with their expectancies.

According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:165), Lusch *et al.* (1993:96) and Lindquist (1975:31), the attributes associated with service are service received from salespeople, service in general (i.e. offer free alterations and sells cell phones and airtime), lay-buy services, the credit card facilities of the store and availability of store cards.

Firstly, Solomon and Rabolt (2004:449) and Mazursky and Jacoby (1985:147) state that one of the most important store attributes is the salespeople that attempt to influence the buying behaviour of the consumer. Hu and Jasper (2006:26) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:545) add that consumers prefer to shop at a store with sufficient, friendly, knowledgeable and helpful salespeople. Calder and Malthouse (2005:358) and Madhavaram, Badrinayaran and McDonald (2005:77) explain that salespeople are a valuable resource for retailers because they aid in the building of strong and favourable brand relations with consumers. According to Wong and Sohal (2003:505) and Harris, Harris and Baron (2001:361), by developing and training salespeople to ensure that they are flexible, responsive and creative in their interactions with consumers, they enhance consumers' experience and harness consumer loyalty.

Furthermore, Blackwell *et al.* (2006:164) and Solomon and Rabolt (2004:449) explain that sales success is determined by the relationship with the consumer during the purchase process and the persuasion strategies used by the salespeople. Furthermore,

salespeople's ability to gain a consumer's confidence and to successfully convince a consumer to make a purchase is affected by their knowledge, friendliness and helpfulness.

According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:164) and Terblanché (1998:68), a salesperson's ability to apply persuasive influence is affected by his/her knowledge. When consumers see salespeople as knowledgeable, consumers are more likely to buy a product based on trust and confidence in the salesperson. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:449) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:164) explain that salespeople who are familiar with the consumers' needs and tastes are most likely to persuade the consumer to make a purchase. Darian, Tucci and Wiman (2001:212) add that it is important for salespeople to be continually informed of new products, technical developments, prizes and other changes in store offerings in order to assist the consumer in making the right purchasing decision.

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:164) state that a consumer's perception of a salesperson's friendliness and helpfulness affects the entire consumer decision-making and purchasing process. When friendliness and helpfulness is high, the consumer will more easily engage in purchasing a product. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:449) add that a consumer feels reassured when the salesperson is a likable, friendly person and is seen as someone who can be trusted. This, in turn, leads to a positive perception of the store.

Thang and Tan (2003:195) mention that if a consumer has a positive perception of service in a store, it has a positive effect on consumer store preference. Due to time-constraints, consumers are looking for a store that offers as much services as possible so as to minimise the time spent on shopping. Therefore, providing services such as free clothing alteration and selling cell phones and airtime at one store will result in consumers not having to walk from store to store and thus minimising time spent on shopping. Janse van Noordwyk (2008:86) and Huddleston *et al.* (1990) furthermore add that the credit and store card facilities at stores play an important role in consumer purchasing behaviour. Consumers differ with regard to the importance they place on the availability of credit and store card facilities and thus retailers need to offer consumers the option of credit and store card payment, but not exclude the other methods of payment in order to attract all consumers to the store.

Lastly, Grace and O' Çass (2005:230) explain that by improving store service offerings, retailers are able to increase consumer satisfaction, gain more favourable consumer attitude, as well as increase positive word-of-mouth. Therefore, increased store

satisfaction influences consumer attitudes, recommendations and re-purchases, where re-purchase positively influences consumer store loyalty and thus store patronage.

### 3.4.1.3 Store atmosphere

According to Ailawadi and Keller (2004:333), Schlosser (1998:345) and Terblanché (1998:68), a consumer's first impression of a store is based on what he/she sees and hears from outside the store. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:431) explain that by taking all of this into consideration, consumers make a number of inferences about the store that in turn determine their store patronage behaviour. Baker *et al.* (2002:121) add that a store's atmosphere has an impact on the information processing that takes place when a consumer visits a store and thus subsequently influences the consumer's judgement of the quality of the store as well as the store's image.

Kotler (1973:51) mentions that, in the past, retailers ignored the importance of the aesthetic shopping experience. Baker *et al.* (2002:122) note that in today's increasingly competitive retail market, relying on just promotional techniques is not enough; retailers need to focus on creating a pleasant shopping experience in order to attract consumers to shop at their store.

According to Berman and Evans (2007:544), Solomon (2007:622) and Terblanché (1998:68), a store's atmosphere influences the consumer's mood and willingness to visit and browse inside a store. Janse van Noordwyk (2008:51), Ailawadi and Keller (2004:333), Newman and Patel (2003:771) and Terblanché (1998:107) therefore state that store atmosphere is vital for a positive retail experience and can thus increase shopping frequency as well as purchase behaviour. Retailers need to align their store atmosphere with consumer expectations as this will lead to the building of strong store relationships and thus consumer patronage to the store.

Terblanché (1998:107) states that improving store atmosphere has become a necessity rather than an option for retailers today in order to attract the targeted consumer. Cooper (1981:220) states that it is assumed that by creating an aesthetic, pleasing store atmosphere, it would improve perceptions of the store and essentially increase consumer purchase behaviour. This implies that retailers need to make use of pleasant smells and music in efforts to create an enjoyable retail environment for the consumer. Brengman and Willems (2009:348), McDaniel *et al.* (2008:424) and Kotler (1973:51) mention that the music that a store plays can be pleasant or unpleasant for the consumer. The

appropriate type of music creates an ambiance in the store, controls the pace of the store traffic as well as attracts or directs the consumers' attention.

In line with the above mentioned, Martineau (1958:53) mentions that a store's atmosphere can be considered as a social identity appeal for consumers' patronage to a store. Classical music and Top-40 music convey a social image of the store rather than a practical purpose (for example displaying merchandise). Furthermore, it can be said that stores have personalities or social images and that such social identity information about a store can be communicated to consumers through the store's atmosphere (Greenberg, Sherman & Shiffman, 1983:159 & Kotler, 1973:51).

Brengman and Willems (2009:348), McDaniel *et al.* (2008:424), Orth and Bourrain (2005:140) and Kotler (1973:51) further explain that the smell in a store can either stimulate or detract sales. According to Sway (2007:1), the smell in a store can make a consumer feel comfortable in a store and thus influences purchasing decisions. Consumers evaluate products more positively, spend more time shopping and are generally in a better mood when an agreeable odour is present in a store.

Turley and Chebat (2002:125) explain that by creating a store atmosphere that is aligned with consumer expectations, a retailer is able to encourage the desired sales effects; influences consumer decision-making; creates a positive overall store image; and differentiates the store from other retailers. Ailawadi and Keller (2004:333) add that by creating a positive store atmosphere for the consumer, consumer purchasing behaviour can be stimulated.

#### **3.4.1.4 Post-transactional satisfaction**

Chang and Huang (2000:98) explain that post-transactional satisfaction is determined through the product support services, namely returns and refunds. Osman (2001:139) states that this attribute refers to the consumer's state of acquired knowledge about a particular store through past purchases and direct encounters with the store that in return influences store patronage. Lindquist (1975:31) adds that the ease of returns and refunds contributes to post-transactional satisfaction or dissatisfaction. If the process of returning products and receiving refunds is satisfactory for the consumer, the consumer is most likely to return to the store and purchase products again. However, if the process is dissatisfying, the consumer is most likely to not return to the store and to rather purchase products from another store.

According to Thang and Tan (2003:196) and Lindquist (1975:32), post-purchase satisfaction builds credibility and assists the consumer in forming a perception of the retail store. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:451) add to this by stating that consumer post-transactional satisfaction or dissatisfaction is determined by the overall feelings or attitude a consumer has about a store after purchase and consumption. Therefore, post-transactional satisfaction is often determined by the degree to which a store's performance is consistent with the consumer's prior expectations (Solomon & Rabolt, 2004:459). Terblanché and Boshoff (2006:32) add that the post-transactional satisfaction has an impact on consumer loyalty towards a store. In other words, post-transactional satisfaction will determine consumers' attitudes towards the retailer, which in turn will influence store patronage and thus the amount of money consumers spend at the retail store. Sirohi, McLaughlan and Wittink (1998:150) add to the discussion by stating that the intense competition in the retail industry requires a refocus of retailers' attention to the need to retain existing consumers, because more retailers realise that acquiring a new consumers is much more expensive than keeping existing ones. It is therefore vital that retailers improve relevant post-transactional services so as to provide the consumer with added value and a more satisfying total retail experience. This will ensure differentiation in the marketplace and overall consumer satisfaction, which will then lead to repeat purchases and store loyalty (Wong & Sohal, 2003:43 & Sivadas & Baker-Prewitt, 2000:78).

#### **3.4.1.5 Promotion**

Blackwell *et al.* (2006:163) and Calder and Malthouse (2005:358) state that promotional activities act as a marketing tool that communicates the retail brand. Donnelan (1996:124) states that an effective promotional strategy positions a store in the consumers' mind and thus defines the image that a consumer has about a store. Retailers need to ensure that promotional activities are managed in an integrated way so as to deliver a consistent message that will attract the consumer. Therefore, determining what promotional dimensions and sub-dimensions are important for the consumer will help retailers to attract the consumer and increase loyalty when implemented.

McDaniel *et al.* (2008:440) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006:163) explain that promotion is an important tool for informing and influencing consumer perceptions about the store and overall image in order to gain a response. Promotional activities that retail stores can implement for creating an image, include sales promotions, displays and in-store advertising (McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:440; Berman & Evans, 2007:594; Lindquist, 1975:31).

McDaniel *et al.* (2008:440), Berman and Evans (2007:594) and Kotler and Armstrong (2006:443) explain that sales promotions consist of all the marketing activities that motivate consumer purchasing. Sales promotions include offering discounts and are used to increase the effectiveness of the promotional mix.

As mentioned earlier, another important promotional activity for retailers is to implement displays. Terblanché (1998:232) mentions that displays are important in a store so as to attract consumers. Window and in-store displays are a form of exhibiting the merchandise on offer in such a way that both space and visibility to consumers are maximised. Sen, Block and Chandran (2002:273) add that window displays relay information before a consumer enters a store and contribute to store entry. Lindquist (1974:31) adds that in-store merchandise displays are also important and involve the application of techniques to improve the attractiveness of the merchandise shown to increase consumer purchasing.

In-store advertising is also considered as an important promotional activity. Kotler and Armstrong (2006:442), McDaniel *et al.* (2008:440) and Berman and Evans (2007:594) mention that in-store advertising is any form of paid communication in which the store is advertised. Martineau (1958:51) adds that visible in-store advertising (such as posters) contributes to store choice. It is therefore important for a retail store to implement appropriate in-store advertising that reflects the image that the store wishes to convey to the consumer in order to attract the consumer to the store and thus encourage purchasing.

Lastly, Calder and Malthouse (2005:358) state that promotion is an important attribute for retailers to attract and retain consumers. Therefore, retailers need to ensure that these promotional activities are managed as to deliver a consistent message to the consumer that will allow retailers to achieve consumer store loyalty.

#### **3.4.1.6 Physical facilities**

Janse van Noordwyk (2008:65) explains that an attractive physical appearance induces a positive service quality rating and thus increases a store's desirability for shopping. This, in turn, motivates consumers to enter a store, purchase products, return for future purchases as well as recommend the store to others. Blackwell *et al.* (2006:164) and Lindquist (1975:31) explain that the physical facilities of a store can shape both the direction and duration of consumers' attention. The physical facilities of a store also

convey the store character and image to the consumer. Therefore, physical facilities influence the consumer perceptions of a store and can thus lead to the purchasing of products and store loyalty. Physical facilities that retailers need to focus on that affect a consumer's store choice, include the store access, ease of movement in the store (store layout and aisle placement), air-conditioning, waiting area, trolleys or baskets, dressing rooms, check-out points and a neat and clean store.

Thang and Tan (2003) mention that consumers choose a store that is easy accessible and requires minimum effort to get to the store. Furthermore, Baldwin (1998:154) explains that a good store layout eases in-store movement and enhances the image of a store that in return influences the perception of the store in the consumer's mind. Janse Van Noordwyk (2008:41) states that previous studies done (Kent, 2003:138; Kerfoot, Davies & Ward, 2003:146; Newman & Foxall, 2003:598) explain that aisle width should be maximised and store layout should be less complex and more ordered so as to ease movement between products in the store.

Janse van Noordwyk (2008:65) mentions that other physical facilities that are seen as important are the availability of trolleys or baskets to carry products in as well as convenient, fast and well-located check-out points. By implementing these facilities, consumers are most likely to return to the store. Furthermore, according to Kent (2003:138), Kerfoot *et al.* (2003:146) and Newman and Foxall (2003:598), good store lighting and practical dressing rooms also lead to the store being perceived more positively. It is thus important that dressing rooms need to be private, have good lighting and full-length mirrors in order to make consumers feel good about the clothes they are fitting and thus increasing purchasing. Furthermore, a store that is neat and clean inside and outside increases a store's desirability for shopping. All these attributes are important for attracting consumers and tempting them to enter the store and purchase products. If a consumer is dissatisfied with the physical facilities of the store, the consumer will consider selecting another store.

Lastly, Kent (2003:132) and Newman and Foxall (2003:591) state that the physical facilities associated with a store should appeal to the target market to lead to increased levels of consumer experience and enjoyment. Janse van Noordwyk (2008:65) adds that physical store facilities need to be adjusted and consistently re-evaluated and changed to comply with these consumers' expectations.



### 3.4.1.7 Convenience

The importance of convenience within the retail strategy cannot be underestimated, especially in an era of increased Internet retailing and time shortage for shopping. Anderson (1971:179) explains that convenience is when a consumer need is satisfied as soon as possible and time or energy is spared that can then be used for alternative uses. Janse van Noordwyk (2008:61) and Newman and Patel (2004:772) add that the convenience of a store is reflected through the overall convenience that a store offers that eases a consumer's store experience. Therefore the appropriate implementation of convenience attributes will minimise consumer irritation and time pressure. Lindquist (1975:31) explains that the convenience of a store is reflected through the store hours, location of the store, access to public transportation, parking facilities as well as the ability to order products online.

Cottet, Lichtlé and Plichon (2006:219) note that consumers have less time for shopping and thus consumers are looking for a shopping experience that does not take up much time, offers convenient shopping hours, is easily located or offers the option of ordering products on-line. Janse van Noordwyk (2008:61) adds that stores should implement longer store hours so as to accommodate consumers who are challenged by time pressure during the day due to full-time employment.

According to Solomon (2007:613) and Kim and Jin (2001:235), location plays an important role in consumer store choice. If all other attributes are equally important, the consumer will choose the closest store (i.e. closest to school, home or work). Blackwell *et al.* (2006:160) add that location is perceived in terms of the time and hassle it takes to get to the store as well as the actual distance to the store. The distance that a consumer needs to travel to get to the store as well as the availability of other stores close by, will affect whether a consumer chooses to make the effort to travel to a particular store or to rather choose a store with a lesser travel distance that offers the same products. Stanley and Sewall (1976:49) add that a positive perception of a store will lessen the negativity associated with travel distances to a store. Janse van Noordwyk (2008:61) adds that the availability of public transportation near the store is also important, as well as the safety, frequency, distance and comfort relating to the modes of transport, e.g. taxis or busses.

Another important physical facility that retailers need to take into consideration is parking facilities. Stoltman, Morgan and Anglin (1999:146) mention that parking facilities at a store contributes to store patronage. If there is no parking available, consumers will

choose to rather go to another store where there is parking available. It is therefore important for a store to make sure that sufficient parking facilities are available as to ensure that consumers will visit the store.

Lastly, Janse van Noordwyk (2008:55) explains that in an era of increased Internet retailing and time poverty, retailers must strive to meet consumer expectations regarding convenience so as to maintain and increase retail store patronage. A way for retailers to improve convenience offered is by offering consumers the option of ordering products online.

By considering all, Newman and Patel (2004:772) state that the convenience of a store is therefore an element that should not be underestimated, as it is an important factor that influences the consumer's choice as to where to shop.

### **3.5 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

In this chapter retailing was discussed by means of the retail experience, the retail concept, the overall retail strategy, the types of retailers and the influence of retailers on the consumer. In today's highly competitive and evolving apparel retail market, retailers need to make use of all marketing efforts available in order to differentiate the store from the rest and to attract consumers to the store. In other words, consumers must be given a good reason as to why to shop at a specific retail store. This reason is created by the store attributes that affect a consumer's decision as to where to purchase from and thus it is important for retailers to acquire information regarding the store attributes that influence a consumers' store choice decision.

Seven determining store attributes (merchandise, service, physical facilities, convenience, promotion, store atmosphere and post-transaction satisfaction) that could influence a consumers' selection of a store were identified. These store attributes play a vital role in the consumer decision-making process, since consumers evaluate and compare competitive retailers based on the store attributes. The retailer uses store attributes to differentiate between his/her product and that of the competitor and therefore needs to develop a differentiating and marketing strategy based on these store attributes.

The next chapter discusses the research methodology used for this study to determine which store attributes black consumers consider when deciding from which store to purchase casual wear.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

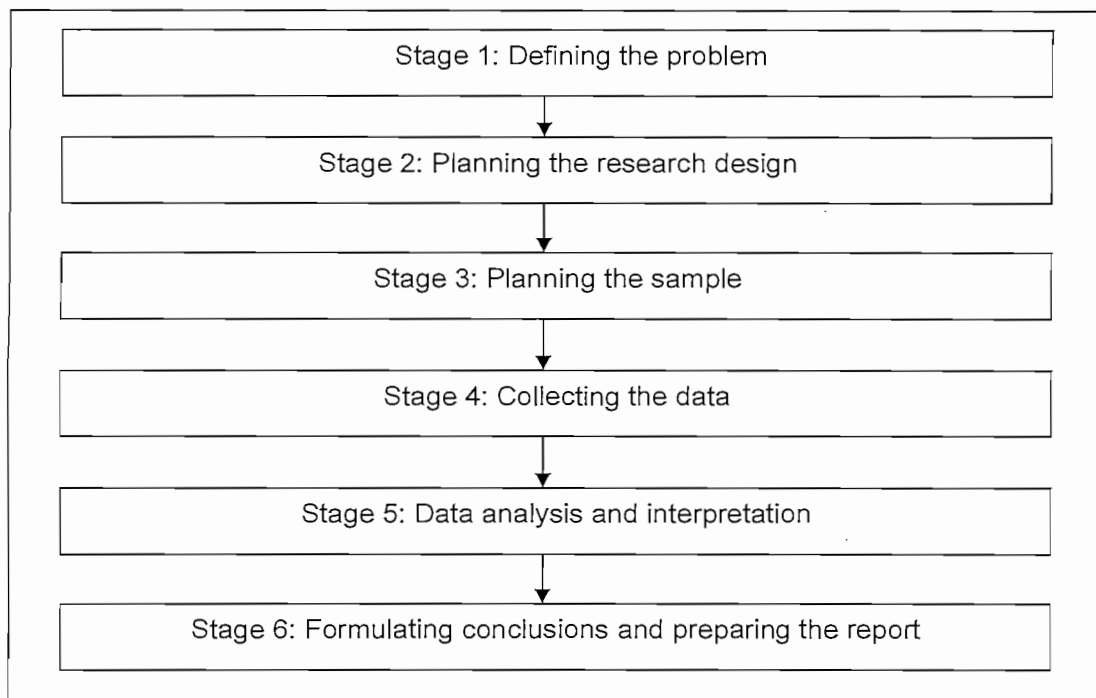
This chapter provides an overview of the research methodology used in this study. Cooper and Schindler (2006:25) explain that using the appropriate methodology is important, because methodology forms the basis from which scientifically valid findings and conclusions can be made to guide marketing decisions. In order to address the research problem for this study, it was necessary to use an appropriate research methodology. This chapter will therefore elaborate on the marketing research process followed in this study.

#### 4.2 MARKETING RESEARCH PROCESS

Cooper and Schindler (2006:78) define the marketing research process as the various decision stages involved in a research project and the relationship between those stages. McDaniel and Gates (2005:5) and Tustin *et al.* (2005:6) add that marketing research is the function that links the consumer and the public to the marketer by means of information used to identify and define marketing opportunities and problems; to generate, refine and evaluate marketing actions; to monitor marketing performance; as well as to improve understanding of marketing as a process. Therefore, marketing research is the systematic and objective collection, analysis and interpretation of information for decision-making on marketing problems by means of recognised, scientific methods (Zikmund, 2003:4).

According to various marketing research scholars, different stages in the marketing research process can be identified. For the purpose of this study, the marketing research process as suggested by Cooper and Schindler (2006:82), Zikmund (2003:71), Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:56) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:62) will be used as basis for the discussion. Each of the stages of the marketing research process is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

**Figure 4.1: The marketing research process**



Adapted from Cooper and Schindler (2006:82), Zikmund (2003:50), Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:56) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:62).

Each stage of the marketing research process (as illustrated in Figure 4.1) and how it was applied to this study will be discussed.

#### **4.2.1 Stage 1: Defining the problem**

Tustin *et al.* (2005:77) state that the first stage of the marketing research process involves the identification of a marketing problem or opportunity that arises from the continual changing and uncertain business environment. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:81) add that it is vital that careful attention is given to this stage, since the problem definition allows the researcher to set the research problem and research objectives.

Cooper and Schindler (2006:80) explain that a useful way to approach the research process is to state the basic problem that initiates the research. The research problem for this study relates to determining which store attributes black consumers consider important when choosing which store to purchase casual wear from.

In order to determine the best research design, it is necessary to determine the objectives for the study. Zikmund (1999:5) mentions that objectives refer to the researcher's description of the problem that needs to be solved.

From the research problem stated, the primary objective for the study is to determine the importance of store attributes to black consumers when selecting a store selling casual wear.

To reach the primary objective, the following secondary objectives were set:

1. To identify the attributes consumers in general could consider when selecting a store by conducting a literature review.
2. To determine which store attributes black consumers consider when selecting a store selling casual wear.
3. To determine whether certain store attributes are considered more important than others to black consumers when selecting a store selling casual wear.
4. To determine the influence of demographic variables on the importance that black consumers place on store attributes they consider when selecting a store selling casual wear.

After the research problem has been defined, the researcher needs to plan the research design.

#### **4.2.2 Stage 2: Planning the research design**

Wild and Diggines (2009:54), Cooper and Schindler (2006:86) and Hair *et al.* (2006:63) explain that the research design is the framework or blueprint followed when conducting the marketing research project. Tustin *et al.* (2005:83) add that the research design represents the master plan that specifies the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the required information. Kinnear and Taylor (1991:135) add that a good design will make sure that the information gathered is consistent with the study objectives and that the data is collected by accurate and economical procedures.

The following section describes the research approaches, types of research and the measuring instrument that a researcher can apply when planning the research design.

#### 4.2.2.1 Research approaches

Wiid and Diggines (2009:107), Malhotra and Peterson (2006:150) and Tustin *et al.* (2005:89) explain that two primary research approaches can be followed when planning the research design, namely quantitative or qualitative research.

Tustin *et al.* (2005:89) explain that *quantitative research* is the gathering of primary data from large numbers of individuals with the intention of projecting the results to a wider population. The aim is to generalise about a specific population based on the results of a representative sample of that population. The research findings will then be subjected to mathematical or statistical manipulation to produce broadly representative data of the total population and to forecast future events under different conditions. Trochim and Donnelly (2006:11) state that *qualitative research* is the obtaining of data of variables that are in text or sound format and cannot be measured in numerical form. After taking the above into consideration, it was decided to use quantitative research for this study.

After a researcher has decided on the research approach, the researcher must decide what type of research design to implement that best meets the needs of the problem stated. Zikmund and Babin (2007:42-44) and Tustin *et al.* (2005:84) state that within quantitative and qualitative research there are research design types that can be used, namely exploratory research, causal research and descriptive research. Each of the three research design types will be discussed:

- **Exploratory research**

Zikmund and Babin (2007:85), Tustin *et al.* (2005:84-86) and Zikmund (2003:56-58) explain that exploratory research is a useful research design to use when researchers have limited experience and knowledge about the research problem. Wild and Diggines (2009:55) and Churchill and Brown (2007:79) add that exploratory research enables the researcher to obtain insight into the problem and aids the researcher in developing more accurate and specific research objectives. Methods of exploratory research are literature reviews, focus groups, panels or observation.

- **Causal research**

Zikmund and Babin (2007:44), Tustin *et al.* (2005:87) and McDaniel and Gates (2005:62) mention that causal research explains how one effect brings about another effect.

Churchill and Brown (2007:80), Kent (2007:18) and Aaker, Kumar and Day (2003:77) add that causal research determines whether one variable can influence another variable. According to Zikmund (2003:51), this implies that causal research determines the cause-and-effect relationship between variables.

- **Descriptive research**

Wild and Diggins (2009:54) explain that descriptive research is necessary when the researcher's knowledge about the problem is vague. Churchill and Brown (2007:105) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:42) add that descriptive research describes characteristics of certain groups and determines the proportion of individuals who behave in a certain way. Descriptive research is based on researchers having prior knowledge about the research problem. Shao (2002:43) adds that this type of research helps the researcher to describe consumer attitude, perception, characteristics, activities and situations.

*In this study*, a quantitative research approach was used because it is relevant for gathering data from a large sample. In addition, Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:22) explain that quantitative research is descriptive in nature and thus enables the researcher to predict consumer behaviour. Furthermore, a descriptive research design was implemented to gain a comprehensive view of the characteristics and attitudes of the respondents.

#### **4.2.2.2 Types of research**

After the research design (exploratory, descriptive or causal) has been identified, researchers need to select the research type that will be used. Tustin *et al.* (2005:83) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:53) explain that there are different research types that can be distinguished for descriptive research, namely experimentation, observation and surveys. As this study used a descriptive research design, only research types pertaining to this design will be discussed.

- **Experimentation**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:302) explain that experimentation is a study concerning the manipulation of one or more variables to determine the effect on the respondents. Kent (1999:106) adds that there are two main types of experimentation that can be identified, namely field experiments and laboratory experiments. Cooper and Schindler (2006:328)

explain that field experiments are a controlled experimental procedure conducted in a realistic research environment to test a product or service. Kinnear and Taylor (1991:282) state that a laboratory experiment is where the researcher conducts the research in an artificial environment constructed solely for the purpose of the experiment. Cooper and Schindler (2006:328) add that field experiments are used to introduce new products or services; to add products to an existing line; to identify potential concepts or to re-launch an improved version of a well-known product.

- **Observation**

McDaniel and Gates (2005:63) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:327) explain that observation involves the recording of the respondents behaviour without making direct contact with the respondent. Cooper and Schindler (2006:266) add that observation is one of the few techniques available for studying records, mechanical processes, small children and complex interactive processes. Furthermore observation takes place by making use of cameras and recording of the respondents' behaviour (Roe, 2004:101).

- **Surveys**

Zikmund (2003:59) and Wiid and Diggins (2009:108) state that observation does not allow interaction between the respondent and researcher, whereas the survey technique relies on some form of interaction either through personal contact or through questionnaires in order to extract the required information. Kent (2007:182) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:273) explain that a survey is a measurement process where structured questions are used. There are different types of survey methods that can be distinguished namely: personal interviews, telephone interviews, mall-intercept surveys and self-administrated surveys.

*In this study*, data was collected by means of a mall-intercept survey. Bradley (2007:288), Churchill and Brown (2007:208), Kent (2007:186) and Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:286) explain that a mall-intercept survey is when interviewers are placed at a shopping mall and intercept consumers visiting the mall and ask whether they would be willing to participate in a research study. *In this study* a mall-intercept method was used by intercepting individuals at a mall in Soweto. A mall intercept survey was chosen due to the efficiency and ease of using this method for obtaining access to a representative group of respondents.



According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:384), a survey requires a measuring instrument. The next section of the research design focuses on the development of the measuring instrument that was used to collect the data.

#### **4.2.2.3 The measuring instrument**

*In this study*, the data was collected by means of a questionnaire (see Appendix A, p. 158) as measuring instrument. Tustin *et al.* (2002:98) explain that a questionnaire is designed to collect information from the sample population and involves the construction of questions and response formats that are based on the research objectives.

##### **A. Questionnaire layout**

An initial screening question was asked to only include respondents between 16 and 35 years old. *In this study*, the questionnaire consisted of two sections.

Section A of the questionnaire was devoted to the seven store attribute categories identified through the literature review that can influence a consumer's decision as to where to purchase casual wear from, namely merchandise, service, store atmosphere, post-transactional satisfaction, promotion, physical facilities and convenience.

Section B of the questionnaire determined the demographic information of the respondents, namely age, gender, marital status, transportation method used to reach a clothing store, spending on casual wear, educational level, payment method used when buying casual wear, frequency of purchasing casual wear and whether respondents prefer variety offered by a store or the price and store or brands when selecting a store to buy casual wear from.

The questionnaire used *in this study* was pre-tested amongst the study population by means of a pilot study. Kent (2007:154) explains that pre-testing a questionnaire is important if the researcher wants to be certain that the questionnaire fulfils its objectives. Cooper and Schindler (2006:418) add that pre-testing is necessary for discovering errors as well as useful for training the research team.

*In this study*, a pilot study was undertaken before the main study was launched. This involved 30 individuals being randomly selected at a mall over a weekend who where

asked to complete the questionnaire. The results indicated that respondents found the term apparel wear confusing and therefore it was decided to change apparel wear to casual wear.

The store attributes tested in the questionnaire in this study were measured by means of a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 = not important and 5 = very important. Tustin *et al.* (2005:408) explain that a Likert-type scale represents a systematic and refined means for constructing indexes from questionnaire data. Bradley (2007:209), Churchill and Brown (2007:283) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:214) explain that with Likert-type scales, respondents are asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each constructed statement. Researchers assign scores in numerical values to each possible response. Webb (2002:169) adds that this numerical value reflects the strength of the respondent's attitude towards each of the constructed statements. Cooper and Schindler (2006:448) state that Likert-type scales are easy and quick to construct, they offer a greater volume of data and are more reliable than many of the other scales.

After developing the questionnaire layout, it is important to consider in which form the respondent should respond to the question as to best suite the type of question.

## **B. Response formats**

Zikmund and Babin (2007:231) explain that two main types of response formats can be distinguished, namely open-ended and closed-ended questions.

- **Open-ended questions**

Zikmund and Babin (2007:231) and Proctor (2005:1200) explain that an open-ended question is when a respondent can answer the question in his/her own words because there is no pre-formulated answer to choose from. Bradley (2007:206), Zikmund and Babin (2007:231) and Tustin *et al.* (2005:396-397) add that open-ended questions are valuable for researchers to obtain data about respondents' opinions, attitudes or behaviours. A disadvantage of open-ended questions is that the costs of administrating open-ended questions are higher, because the editing, coding and analysis of the data are extensive. For this reason, researchers must use open-ended questions in

moderation as well as determine whether the question cannot rather be asked in a different way by making use of a closed-ended response format.

- **Closed-ended questions**

Churchill and Brown (2007:310) and Proctor (2005:200) explain that closed-ended questions are response formats where the researcher sets pre-determined answers for respondents to choose from. Bradley (2007:207) adds that closed-ended questions that are pre-coded facilitate analysis. Three forms of closed-ended questions can be identified, namely dichotomous questions, multiple-choice questions and scaled responses.

Trochim and Donnelly (2006:101) explain that **dichotomous questions** are closed-ended responses in its simplest form. Churchill and Brown (2007:310) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:233) add that this form of response provides respondents with two options to choose from, namely: yes or no, true or false, or agree or disagree. It is important for the researcher to ensure that there are enough response choices so as to try to include all possible answers.

Churchill and Brown (2007:310), Tustin *et al.* (2005:397-401) and Malhotra (2007:309) describe that with **multiple-choice questions**, more than two fixed-alternative choices are provided and respondents are asked to indicate which alternative best expresses their opinion.

Bradley (2007:209) explains that **scaled responses** involve creating a continuum upon which measured items are located. Tustin *et al.* (2005:397-401) add that scaled responses are formulated in a scale ranging from, for example, 1 to 5. This type of response format enables researchers to measure the intensity of responses, which cannot be measured in multiple-choice questions. Churchill and Brown (2007:260) and Chisnall (1992:167) add that different scales can be used in scale response questionnaires, namely nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. These scales will now be briefly discussed:

- **Nominal:** Wiid and Diggines (2009:160), Churchill and Brown (2007:261) and Malhotra (2007:254) explain that nominal scales are for measurement in which numbers are assigned to items only for the purpose of identification. Chisnall (1992:167) explains that nominal scales are least sophisticated because they are only

the simple classification by certain attributes that are then quantified, for example population characteristics. An example of a nominal scale is where the number 1 represents female respondents and 2 represents male respondents.

- **Ordinal:** Malhotra (2007:254) and Chisnall (1992:167) state that ordinal scales rank the items that are being researched according to certain characteristics. Wiid and Diggines (2009:160), Churchill and Brown (2007:262) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:344) add that the use of a ratio scale implies a statement of 'greater than' or 'less than' without stating the difference between the rankings. An example of an ordinal scale is where the number 1 is assigned to first-year students, number 2 is assigned to second-year students, number 3 is assigned to third-years students and number 4 is assigned to post-graduate students.
- **Interval:** Wiid and Diggines (2009:160), Churchill and Brown (2007:262) and Cooper and Schindler (2005:345) explain that an interval scale incorporates the concept of equality of interval where the differences between rankings are the same. Cooper and Schindler (2006:346) add that ratio data represents the actual amounts of the variable. An example of an interval scale is where respondents rate their attitude towards three stores using a seven-point scale where 1 = extremely unfavourable and 7 = extremely favourable.
- **Ratio:** Wiid and Diggines (2009:160), Churchill and Brown (2007:264) and Chisnall (1992:167) explain that ratio scales have fixed origin or zero points, which allow the comparison of absolute magnitudes of the numbers. Malhotra (2007:256) and Cooper and Schindler (2005:356) add that ratio scales possess classification, order, distance and a unique origin. An example of a ratio scale is measuring height or weight.

*In this study, only closed-ended questions were used.*

Table 4.1 provides all the store attributes, listed in the questionnaire, that were tested using a Likert-type scale. The purpose of this section was to determine which attributes respondents consider when selecting a store selling casual wear. Table 4.1 presents each question tested in the questionnaire with the corresponding response format and scale.

**Table 4.1: Questions and question objectives of Section A**

Question		Response format	Scale
<b>Merchandise</b>			
1	Variety of styles of casual wear sold	Scaled	Likert scale
2	Variety of sizes of casual wear sold		
3	Variety of brand names sold		
4	Fashionable styles		
5	Price of casual wear		
6	Quality of casual wear		
24	Availability of casual wear advertised by store		
<b>Service</b>			
27	Enough salespeople to provide assistance	Scaled	Likert scale
28	Helpful salespeople		
29	Friendly salespeople		
30	Salespeople have knowledge about casual wear in store		
31	Free clothing alterations provided by store		
32	Lay-buy services		
34	Sells cell phones and accessories		
35	Sells airtime		
38	Availability of credit card facilities		
39	Availability of a store card		
<b>Store atmosphere</b>			
40	Type of music playing in the store	Scaled	Likert scale
41	Loudness of music playing in store		
42	Store smell		
<b>Post-transactional satisfaction</b>			
36	Easy return policy of store (taking clothes back)	Scaled	Likert scale
37	Refunds (getting your money back) provided by store		
<b>Promotion</b>			
20	Availability of discounts offered by a store	Scaled	Likert scale
46	Window display of casual wear in store		
47	Clearly visible in-store advertisements		
48	In-store display of casual wear		
<b>Physical facilities</b>			
7	Easy access to store entrance	Scaled	Likert scale
8	Ease of movement between products in the store		
9	Air-conditioning		
10	Availability of seats if you want to rest		
11	Availability of trolley or baskets to carry clothing		
12	Enough dressing rooms		
13	Full length mirrors in dressing rooms		
14	Privacy in dressing rooms		
15	Enough light in dressing rooms		
16	Easy access to store exit		
25	Enough check-out points		
26	Fast check-out points		
43	Enough light in store		
44	Neat store appearance		
45	Clean store		

**Table 4.1: Questions and question objectives of Section A**

Question		Response format	Scale
<b>Convenience</b>		Scaled	Likert scale
17	Availability of parking near entrance of store		
18	Access to public transportation near to store		
19	Convenient store hours		
21	Clothing store close to home		
22	Clothing store close to work or school		
23	Availability of other clothing stores near this store		
33	Ability to order / buy clothing on-line (internet)		

Section B of the questionnaire is provided in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: Question and scale of Section B (Demographics)**

Demographic variables		Response format	Scale
Age	16-18	Multiple choice	Ordinal scale
	19-21		
	22-24		
	25-27		
	28-31		
	32-35		
Gender	Female	Multiple choice	Nominal scale
	Male		
Marital status	Single	Multiple choice	Nominal scale
	Living with someone		
	Married		
	Divorced/separated		
	Widow/ widower		
Transportation mode used most to reach a store selling casual wear	Walk	Multiple choice	Nominal scale
	Bus		
	Taxi		
	Lift with others		
	Own car		
	Other		
Spending on casual wear	Less than R100	Multiple choice	Ordinal scale
	R100 - R250		
	R251 - R500		
	More than R500		
Education level	Primary school	Multiple choice	Ordinal scale
	High school		
	Diploma		
	Degree		
	Post graduate degree		

**Table 4.2: Question and scale of Section B (Demographics)**

Demographic variables		Response format	Scale
Payment method used most often when purchasing casual wear	Cash	Multiple choice	Nominal scale
	Cheque		
	Credit card		
	Debit card		
	Store card		
	Other		
Frequency of purchasing casual wear	Only when needed	Multiple choice	Ordinal scale
	Weekly		
	Monthly		
	Three times a year		
	Once a year		
	Other		
Variety offered vs. Price	Variety offered	Multiple choice	Nominal scale
	Price		
Store vs. Brands	Store	Multiple choice	Nominal scale
	Brands		

Table 4.3 illustrates how the objectives of this study are linked with the questionnaire that was used for this study.

**Table 4.3: Linking objectives set for the study with the questionnaire**

Objectives	Question
1. To identify the attributes consumers could consider when selecting a store by conducting a literature review.	Used to compile section A of the questionnaire
2. To determine which store attributes black consumers consider when selecting a store selling casual wear.	Section A Questions 1-48
3. To determine whether certain store attributes are considered more important than others to black consumers when selecting a store selling casual wear.	Section A Questions 1-48
4. To determine the influence of demographic variables on the importance that black consumers place on store attributes they consider when selecting a store selling casual wear.	Section B

After the research design has been planned and the questionnaire has been designed, it is necessary to plan the sample.

### **4.2.3 Stage 3: Planning the sample**

Wiid and Diggines (2009:160), Zikmund and Babin (2007:266) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:434) define sampling as the process of selecting some elements from a population to represent the whole population. There are a few phases that a researcher can follow when selecting a sample, namely defining the target population, obtaining a sample frame, choosing the sampling method and determining the sample size (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:438; Proctor, 2005:108; Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:449).

#### **4.2.3.1 Define target population**

Malhotra (2007:336) states that the first phase in the selection of a sample is defining the target population. Wiid and Diggines (2009:160) and Tustin *et al.* (2002:97) define the target population as the group from which the sample will be drawn. The target population should include all people or businesses whose opinions, behaviour, preferences and attitudes will supply information for answering the research question.

The target population relevant to this study includes all black consumers aged 16 to 35 who buy casual wear from a mall in Soweto. This age group was chosen for a number of reasons. Firstly, consumers aged 16 to 35 are either entering or are already in the early stages of adulthood with spending priorities related to personal appearance and fun (Ryan, 2002 & Paul, 2001:43) and see clothing shopping as a high priority when spending their money (Der Hovanesian, 1999 & Setlow, 2001:16). Secondly, this group of consumers, comprising approximately 15 million people (Statistics SA, 2009:9), are either entering the labour force or are already part-time or full-time employed, implying that they either already have, or soon will have, access to money to spend (TNS Research Surveys, 2007 & Gardyn, 2002:18). Thirdly, this group was specifically chosen due to the greater disposable income they have for spending on clothing, as consumers who are older than 35 tend to start focusing on family needs, resulting in changing purchasing decisions that tend to focus more on food, housing and transportation (Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2000).

#### **4.2.3.2 Obtaining a sampling frame**

The next phase requires obtaining a sample frame. Wiid and Diggines (2009:160), Malhotra (2007:337), Zikmund and Babin (2007:267) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:443) define a sample frame as the list of elements from which the sample is drawn.



A sampling frame could not be obtained as this study made use of a non-probability sampling method (see discussion below).

#### **4.2.3.3 Choosing the sampling method**

Chisnall (1992:65) explains that sampling is concerned with studying the relationship between a population and the sample that is drawn by means of different sampling methods. Malhotra (2007:337) adds that in the choosing of the sampling method phase, the researcher needs to decide between a probability and non-probability sampling method. These methods and the different techniques associated with each will now be discussed.

##### **A. Probability sampling method**

Churchill and Brown (2007:356), Zikmund and Babin (2007:273), Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:490), Tustin *et al.* (2002:344) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:397) explain that probability sampling is when each element of the population has a known chance of being selected for the sample. This sampling method is done by mathematical decision rules that leave no discretion to the researcher or fieldworker. Wiid and Diggins (2009:199) add that with probability sampling, the sample error of a given sample size, can be estimated statistically if the sample design meets certain requirements. One can distinguish between the following probability sampling techniques, namely simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling.

- **Simple random sampling**

Churchill and Brown (2007:361), Bradley (2007:172), Cooper and Schindler (2006:446), Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:459) and Tustin *et al.* (2002:350) explain that simple random sampling is a probability sampling technique where each element has a known and equal chance of selection. The drawing of a simple random sample is usually facilitated by the use of tables with random numbers. Kinnear and Taylor (1991:409) explain that every population unit must be numbered. Digits are then selected from the random numbers table in any systematic way (horizontal, vertical, diagonal, etc.), and those units whose numbers correspond with the random digits are included in the sample population. Chisnall (1992:67) adds that the purpose of the random selection of elements is to avoid subjective bias that can occur due to personal choice.

- **Systematic sampling**

Zikmund and Babin (2007:276) and Tustin *et al.* (2002:352) explain that with systematic sampling every  $k$ th element in the population is sampled (members are chosen at regular intervals), beginning with a random start of an element in the range of 1 to  $k$ . The  $k$ th element, also known as the skip interval, is determined by dividing the sample size into the population size to obtain the skip pattern applied to the sampling frame. The major advantage of this method is its simplicity and flexibility.

- **Stratified sampling**

Zikmund and Babin (2007:277), Cooper and Schindler (2006:446) and Tustin *et al.* (2002:353) state that stratified sampling is a probability sampling technique that includes elements from each of the mutually exclusive strata within a population. Bradley (2007:175) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:277) explain that the population is divided into the appropriate strata and then a simple random sample can be taken within each stratum. The results are then weighted according to the proportion of the strata to the population and then combined into appropriate population estimates. There are three reasons why researchers choose stratified sampling, namely: 1) to increase a sample's statistical efficiency; 2) to provide adequate data for analysing the various subgroups and 3) to enable different research methods and procedures to be used in different strata.

- **Cluster sampling**

Bradley (2007:175), Zikmund and Babin (2007:277), Cooper and Schindler (2006:451) and Tustin *et al.* (2002:356) explain that cluster sampling divides the population into subgroups, each of which represents the entire population, and then draws a sample from each subgroup. There are two reasons as to why researchers use cluster sampling namely the need for more economic efficiency than can be provided by simple random sampling and the frequent unavailability of a practical sampling frame for individual elements.

## **B. Non-probability sampling method**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:455) and Churchill and Brown (2007:357) explain that with non-probability sampling the probability of selecting population elements is unknown. Bradley (2007:175) and Churchill and Brown (2007:356) add that with non-probability

sampling, the sample relies on the personal judgement in the item selection process. There are a number of techniques on how to choose the persons to be included in the sample. The different non-probability sampling techniques, convenience sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling, will now be discussed.

- **Convenience sampling**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:455), Tustin *et al.* (2002:346) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:398) explain that convenience samples are non-probability samples that are unrestricted. In other words, selection is based on ease of accessibility and the fieldworkers have the freedom to choose whomever they find. Cameron and Price (2009:228), Wiid and Diggines (2009:200) and Churchill and Brown (2007:357) add that individuals are selected for the sample because they were at the right place at the right time. Malhotra (2007:341) and Zikmund and Babin (2007:273) add that researchers use convenience sampling to obtain a large number of completed questionnaires quickly and inexpensively.

- **Purposive sampling**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:456), Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:455) and Tustin *et al.* (2002:347) state that purposive sampling is a non-probability technique that conforms to certain criteria. There are two major types that can be distinguished, namely judgemental sampling and quota sampling. Wiid and Diggines (2009:200), Churchill and Brown (2007:359) and Steyn, Smit, du Toit and Strasheim (1999:39) explain that judgemental sampling is when a researcher selects sample units based on their own judgement and knowledge of the sample units. Wiid and Diggines (2009:201) and Malhotra (2007:336-337) explain that quota sampling is purposive sampling in which relevant characteristics, such as age or gender, are used to stratify the sample. Churchill and Brown (2007:359) add that quota sampling is used to build a sample that mirrors the population on one or more important aspects.

- **Snowball sampling**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:457), Zikmund (2003:428) and Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:456) and Tustin *et al.* (2002:347) explain that snowball sampling is when initial individuals are selected with the desired characteristics. This group is then used to refer

the researcher to others who possess similar characteristics and who then in turn identify others.

*In this study*, a non-probability, convenience sampling method was used because the respondents were chosen by means of availability. This method was chosen because a sample frame was not available as well as due to time and money constraints.

#### **4.2.3.4 Determining the sample size**

According to Tustin *et al.* (2002:97), at this stage, the researcher specifies the number of sample elements to be included in the final sample. Bradley (2007:189) explains that the sample size for any study depends on the purpose of the study in terms of the required accuracy and the size and nature of the population. Cooper and Schindler (2006:445) and Cant *et al.* (2005:177) add that to guarantee that valid and dependable conclusions are made about the population, the researcher must ensure that the sample size is big enough. Hair *et al.* (2006:320) continue by explaining that at least 384 sampling units need to be included in most studies to have a 95% percent confidence level and a sampling error of  $\pm 5\%$ . For this reason, a sample size of more than 500 respondents was set for this study.

After the researcher has determined the sampling method to use as well as the sample size, the next stage in the research process is to collect the data.

#### **4.2.4 Stage 4: Collecting the data**

This stage, according to Malhotra (2007:405), includes selecting, training and supervising the fieldworkers who collect the data. *In this study*, the data was collected by means of fieldworkers. According to Malhotra (2007:405) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:486), the task of the fieldworkers is to select the correct respondents, motivate them to participate in the study, gain the correct answers from the respondents, accurately record the answers and convey those answers for analyses.

*In this study*, fieldworkers were selected and trained to ensure valid collection of information. Training was given prior to collecting the data to ensure that fieldworkers understood the objective of the study and the reason for asking a screening question. Training was also received to enable them to identify prospective respondents, explain

the terms used in the questionnaire correctly and to assist the respondent with any problem that the respondent might experience with the questionnaire.

A mall-intercept survey method was used to gather information by giving respondents questionnaires to fill out with an interviewer present. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:29) and McDaniel and Gates (2001:188) state that this method is particularly appropriate for a quantitative approach because the response rate and response quality is high. Table 4.4 presents a summary of the advantages and disadvantages of the mall-intercept survey research method.

**Table 4.4: Advantages and disadvantages of a mall-intercept survey research method**

Criteria	Advantage	Disadvantage
Cost	Relatively low	
Speed		Longer period needed in the field to collect data
Response rate	High response rate from respondents	
Quality of data	Excellent	
Interviewer bias		Problematic

Adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:29) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:281)

*In this study*, four fieldworkers asked consumers shopping in a mall at Soweto to complete the questionnaire. All the fieldworkers were black so that they could translate the questions, since English is not all the respondents' first language. The fieldworkers asked the consumers a screening question to determine how old they were. Only respondents between 16 and 35 years old were asked to complete the questionnaire.

Once the researcher has collected the data, the next stage in the research process is to analyse and interpret the data.

#### **4.2.5 Stage 5: Data analysis and interpretation**

This stage in the marketing research process refers to the analysing of the data obtained from the data collection stage. *In this study*, a pre-coded questionnaire was used and the data was captured in SPSS.

The first stage in the analysis was to examine the reliability and validity of the questionnaire.

#### **4.2.5.1 Reliability and validity**

Churchill and Brown (2007:271), Kent (2007:141) and Anastasi and Urbina (1997:84) explain that the reliability of a test refers to the consistency of scores obtained by the same person when they are re-examined with the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items, or under other variable examining conditions. Cooper and Schindler (2006:352) add that a measure is reliable to the degree that it supplies consistent, accurate and precise results.

Researchers also need to consider the validity of a test. According to Churchill and Brown (2007:271), Tustin *et al.* (2002:296) and Anastasi and Urbina (1997:113), the validity of a test concerns what the test measures and how well it does so. Kinnear and Taylor (1991:323) offer a different definition and state that validity of a test refers to the extent to which the measurement process is free from both systematic and random error.

*In this study*, reliability was determined by the Cronbach Alpha and validity was determined by pre-testing the questionnaire during the pilot study. Respondents who participated in pilot study were also asked to comment on the questionnaire with regard to whether the scale used adequately covered the question or not.

As part of the data analysis and interpretation stage, it is necessary to explain the statistical analysis used in the study.

#### **4.2.5.2 Statistical analysis**

Tustin *et al.* (2002:546) explain that the purpose of statistical analysis is to provide summary measures of the data contained in all the items and to transform the raw data into a form that will make it easier to be understood.

A brief description of the statistical techniques that were used *in this study* follows:

- **Frequency distribution**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:466-525) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:546) explain that frequency distribution is the ordered array of all values for a variable. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:230) add that frequency distributions allow the researcher to determine whether the distribution is even, or whether the distribution clusters around certain intervals.

- **Percentage**

According to Cooper and Schindler (2006:506), percentages can serve two purposes in data analysis. Firstly, they simplify the data by reducing all numbers between zero and 100 and they translate the data into a standard form, with a base of 100 that allows comparisons between data to be made.

- **Mean**

Kent (2007:310) defines the mean as a measure of central tendency that is obtained by adding all the values in a distribution and dividing it by the number of values in the distribution. Cooper and Schindler (2006:469) add that the mean is the average response of the data distribution.

- **Standard deviation**

Zikmund and Babin (2007:297) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:470) explain that standard deviation summarises how far away the data lies away from the average data. Standard deviation is an important concept for descriptive statistics because it reveals the amount of variability within the data set. Standard deviation is calculated by taking the square root of the variance.

- **Cross-tabulation**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:526) state that valuable insight can be gained by examining data with cross-tabulation. Malhotra (2007:468), Zikmund and Babin (2007:322), Cooper and Schindler (2006:526) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:577) add that cross-tabulation is a technique for comparing data from two or more categorical variables. Churchill and

Brown (2007:475) add that cross-tabulation is the first step for identifying relationships between variables.

- **T-test**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:764) define a t-test as a parametric test to determine the statistical significance between a sample distribution mean and a population parameter. Churchill and Brown (2007:486), Kent (2007:386) and Trochim (2006:1) add that the t-test assesses whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other.

- **ANOVA**

Churchill and Brown (2007:490) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:640) explain that an ANOVA is a method of analysis that is applied when the researcher is dealing with one interval-scaled dependant variable and one or more nominal-scaled independent variables. Kent (2007:386) and Malhotra (2007:505) add that an ANOVA is the analysis of variance in which there is only one basis for categorising the groups of the independent variable. Kinnear and Taylor (1991:662) mention that an ANOVA is simply the calculation of different variances and whether more than two groups are statistically different from each other.

Apart from the statistical techniques discussed above, the statistical and practical significance is also included as part of the statistical analysis in the study.

### **A. Statistical significance**

Cooper and Schindler (2006:537) define statistical significance as an index of how meaningful the results of a statistical comparison are.

*In this study*, statistical significance was calculated for cross-tabulations, t-tests and ANOVAs. For this study, a p-value of  $p \leq 0.05$  will be considered to be statistically significant for t-tests and ANOVAs (Cameron & Price, 2007:468). According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:596), the lower the p-value, the stronger the evidence against it. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:620), supported by Reid (1987:113), explain that a Chi-square statistic with an exceedance probability of  $\leq 0.05$  is indicative of statistical significance in cross-tabulations.



## B. Practical significance

Bagozzi (1994:248) explains that an effect may be statistically significant, yet be of little practical importance. For the purpose of this study, since a non-probability sampling technique is used, practical significance should also be tested. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:810) explain that practical significance means that the factor must account for a certain percentage of the variation in the item. *In this study*, the effect size between means (*d*-value) and the effect size for associations (*w*-value) was calculated to determine the practical significance between items.

### i) The effect size for associations in cross-tabulations

Cameron and Price (2009:468) define practical significance as whether the result is useful in the real world. In many cases it is important to know whether a relationship that exists between two items is practically significant. Steyn (1999:8) explains that the phi-coefficient is used in a 2 x 2 cross-tabulation with the Cramer's V statistic for larger cross-tabulations. The effect size for associations in cross-tabulations is indicated by the *w*-value. Steyn (1999:9) provides the following guidelines for its interpretation:

- $w = 0.1$ : small effect which is practically insignificant;
- $w = 0.3$ : moderate effect, and
- $w = 0.5$ : large effect, which is practically significant, indicating that an association between variables can be observed.

### ii) Effect size for difference between means

Bagozzi (1994:248) mentions that often researchers want to determine the size of an effect's significance. Coe (2000:1) explains that an effect size is a measure of the strength of the relationship between two variables in a statistical population and therefore aids researchers in determining whether the effect is practically significant. Ellis and Steyn (2003:51) add to this by stating that by using the effect size between means, researchers can observe whether the effect is practically significant.

The *d*-values (effect size for the difference between means) for the *t*-tests and ANOVAs were calculated by using the following formula (Cohen, 1998:20-27):

$$d = \frac{|\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2|}{s_{\max}}$$

where:

- $d$  = effect size;
- $\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2$  is the difference between means of two compared groups; and
- $S_{\max}$  is the maximum standard deviation of the two compared groups.

Cohen (1998:20-27) provides the following guidelines to interpret the effect size between means (d-value):

- $d = 0.2$  indicating a small effect with no practical significance;
- $d = 0.5$  indicating a moderate effect; and
- $d = 0.8$  indicating a large effect which is practically significant

Performing a factor analysis is also included as part of the statistical analysis in the study.

#### 4.2.5.3 Factor analysis

According to Cooper and Schindler (2006:633) and Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:796) factor analysis is a general term for several computational techniques. Kent (2007:420) and Tustin *et al.* (2005:668) explain that when the data contains many variables, factor analysis is used to reduce the number of items by grouping items with similar characteristics.

Kent (2007:420) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:633) explain that factor analysis starts with the calculation of a new set of variables based on the relationships in the correlation mix. This is usually done by means of the principal components analysis method. The correlation matrix then creates factors that correlate closely with each other. The first factor describes the largest amount of overall variance, while the second factor describes the second greatest variance that is not described by the first factor. The number of factors that are obtained depends on the variances not described by the previous factor.

Bradley (2007:336), Malhotra (2007:610) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:634) further explain that the correlation coefficients between the factor and the variables are called factor loadings. Bradley (2007:336) and Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998:645) state that a factor loading is assigned to each of the items in each factor and that this

shows how well the item correlates with the factor. A very high factor loading is  $> 0.7$ , a high factor loading is  $> 0.5$ , while a low factor loading of  $< 0.3$  should not be used. *In this study* only factor loadings higher than 0.3 were considered.

Cooper and Schindler (2006:634) state that eigenvalues also need to be understood. Kent (2007:420) and Kinnear and Taylor (1991:614) explain that eigenvalues are the sum of the variances of the factor values. When divided by the number of items, an eigenvalue yields an estimate of the amount of total variance explained by the factor.

After the researcher has analysed and interpreted the data, the researcher needs to formulate conclusions and prepare a report.

#### **4.2.6 Stage 6: Formulating conclusions and preparing the report**

The last step in the marketing research process refers to the reporting of the results obtained in the study (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:635). Chapter 5 will discuss the results obtained and the Chapter 6 will discuss the conclusions obtained from the study.

### **4.3 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

This chapter discussed the methodology used to accomplish the objectives of this study. Specifically the marketing research process and how it was applied in the study was discussed. The research problem, the research design, the research method as well as the procedure that has to be followed when selecting a sample and collecting data, performing data analysis and reporting the results of the study were discussed.

The results obtained from the study are presented in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 presented the methodology that was used in order to collect the data and gave an overview of the statistical procedures used in this study. Chapter 5 provides the results, interpretation and discussion of the data analysis. This chapter will therefore focus on the results of the data analysis, including reliability, validity and the appropriate statistical tests. Firstly, the sample profile will be provided, followed by a factor analysis to determine which attributes respondents consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear. This is followed by an analysis of various demographic variables. The main findings from the results are reported throughout the discussion.

#### 5.2 SAMPLE PROFILE

It is necessary to profile the respondents who participated in the study in order to understand the results obtained from the questionnaire. The sample profile of the respondents assists in providing this information. In this study a sample of 513 respondents were used.

The sample profile of the respondents was determined in terms of age, gender, marital status, the transportation mode mostly used to reach a store selling casual wear, the amount spent on casual wear, educational level, the payment method used most often when purchasing casual wear and the frequency of purchasing casual wear. The frequencies and percentages relating to each of these variables are presented in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Sample profile of respondents**

Demographic variables		Frequency	%
<b>Age</b>	16-18	86	16.8
	19-21	98	19.1
	22-24	77	15.0
	25-27	81	15.8
	28-31	79	15.4
	32-35	92	17.9
<b>Gender</b>	Female	361	70.5
	Male	151	29.5

**Table 5.1: Sample profile of respondents**

Demographic variables		Frequency	%
<b>Marital status</b>	Single	293	57.2
	Living with someone	94	18.4
	Married	99	19.3
	Divorced/Separated	21	4.1
	Widow/ Widower	5	1.0
<b>Transportation mode used most to reach a store selling casual wear</b>	Walk	17	3.3
	Bus	34	6.6
	Taxi	288	56.2
	Lift with others	40	7.8
	Own car	132	25.8
	Other	1	0.2
<b>Spending on casual wear</b>	Less than R100	38	7.4
	R100 - R250	192	37.4
	R251 - R500	170	33.1
	More than R500	113	22.0
<b>Educational level</b>	Primary school	23	4.5
	High school	312	61.1
	Diploma	100	19.6
	Degree	45	8.8
	Post graduate degree	31	6.1
<b>Payment method used most often when purchasing casual wear</b>	Cash	260	50.8
	Cheque	3	0.6
	Credit card	50	9.8
	Debit card	58	11.3
	Store card	134	26.2
	Other	7	1.4
<b>Frequency of purchasing casual wear</b>	Only when needed	226	44.1
	Weekly	11	2.1
	Monthly	141	27.5
	Three times a year	109	21.2
	Once a year	18	3.5
	Other	8	1.6

From Table 5.1 it can be derived that respondents who participated in the study were relatively evenly distributed across different age categories. It can be discerned that more females (70.5%) participated in the survey than males (29.5%) and that most of the respondents were single (57.2%). The table also indicates that most respondents make use of a taxi as transportation method when going to a store selling casual wear (56.2%), followed by respondents using their own cars (25.8%). Most of the respondents spend between R100 and R250 on casual wear (37.4%), followed by spending between R251 and R500 on casual wear (33.1%). The majority of the respondents' highest level of

education completed is high school (61.1%). It can furthermore be observed that most of the respondents prefer to pay cash when purchasing casual wear (50.8%), followed by paying by store card (26.2%) or debit card (11.3%). It can lastly be seen that most of the respondents only buy casual wear when they need it (44.1%), monthly (27.5%) or three times a year (21.2%).

Respondents were also asked to indicate whether they claim variety offered or price as more important when selecting a store selling casual wear. The frequencies and percentages relating to each of these variables are presented in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2: Store selection: Variety vs. Price**

Store selection	Frequency	Percentage
Variety offered	314	61.3
Price	198	38.7

From Table 5.2 it can be derived that most of the respondents see variety offered (61.3%) as more important than price (38.7%) when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from.

Furthermore, respondents were asked to indicate whether the store name or brand name was more important when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from. The frequencies and percentages relating to each of these variables are presented in Table 5.3

**Table 5.3: Store selection: Store name vs. Brand Name**

Store selection	Frequency	Percentage
Store name	324	63.5
Brand name	186	36.5

From the table it is seen that most of the respondents see the store name (63.5%) as more important than brand names (36.5%) when selecting a store selling casual wear.

### 5.2.1 Association between demographic variables

The demographic data was furthermore analysed by means of cross-tabulations and Chi-square tests to determine whether any association exists between variables. From this analysis, the following noteworthy deductions could be made:

Table 5.4 shows the results of a cross-tabulation between respondents' gender and their spending on casual wear (see Appendix C, p. 164 for a detailed exposition of statistical values).

**Table 5.4: A cross-tabulation between respondents' gender and their spending on casual wear**

		Spending				Total
		Less than R100	R100-R250	R251-R500	More than R 500	
Gender	Female	29 8.0%	141 39.1%	115 31.9%	76 21.1%	361 100.0%
	Male	9 6.0%	51 33.8%	54 35.8%	37 24.5%	151 100.0%
Total		38 7.4%	192 37.5%	169 33.0%	113 22.1%	512 100.0%

From the cross-tabulation it can be determined that most female respondents, when buying casual wear, spend between R100 and R250 (39.17%) or between R251 and R500 (31.9%). In contrast, most men spend between R251 and R500 (35.85%) or between R100 and R250 (33.8%). A chi-square test was performed to determine whether a statistically significant association exists between respondents' gender and their spending on casual wear. The test realised an exceedance probability of  $p < 0.480$ , indicating that there is not a statistically significant difference between the variables.

Further analyses of respondents' demographic variables yielded the following associations (only results that were statistically significant are reported below):

- Gender and store name versus brand names offered: it was observed that the majority of female respondents (70.3%) consider the store from where they buy to be more important than brand names offered, while the majority of males (52.3%) consider brand names to be more important. A Chi-square test realised an exceedance probability of  $p \leq 0.000$ , indicating a statistically significant association between the variables. The effect size observed ( $w = 0.214$ ) indicates that a small association exists between respondents' gender and whether they consider the store name or brand name as more important when buying casual wear;
- Mode of transport and spending on casual wear: it was observed that the majority of respondents who walk to a store to purchase casual wear spend  $> R500$  (41.2%); respondents who make use of a bus spend R100 - R250 (58.8%); respondents using a taxi mostly spend R200 - R250 (42%); respondents making use of a lift mostly

spend R100 - R250 (50%) and respondents using their own car to travel to a store selling casual wear mostly spend > R500 (40.2%). Cramer's  $V$  statistic realised an exceedance probability of  $p \leq 0.000$ , indicating a statistically significant association between the variables. The effect size ( $w = 0.210$ ) observed indicates that a small association exists between mode of transport and spending on casual wear;

- Mode of transport and how often casual wear is purchased: it was observed that the majority of respondents purchase casual wear when needed included those who walk to a store selling casual wear (82.4%); make use of a bus (55.9%); make use of a taxi (53.1%); make use of a lift (42.5%) and respondents making use of their own car purchase casual wear monthly or three times a year (37.9%). A Chi-square statistic realised an exceedance probability of  $p \leq 0.000$ , indicating a statistically significant association between the variables. The effect size ( $w = 0.181$ ) observed indicates that a small association exists between mode of transport and how often casual wear is purchased;
- Spending on casual wear and how often casual wear is purchased: it was observed that the respondents who only purchase casual wear when needed spend < R100 (81.6%); R100 - R250 (47.9%); R250 - R500 (38.8%), while respondents spending > R500 purchase casual wear monthly. Cramer's  $V$  statistic realised an exceedance probability of  $p \leq 0.000$ , indicating a statistically significant association between the variables. The effect size ( $w = 0.200$ ) observed indicates that a small association exists between mode of transport and how often casual wear is purchased;
- Variety versus price and spending on casual wear: it was observed that the respondents who prefer the variety offered as important spend R251 - R500 (33.1%) and respondents who prefer price as important spend R100 - R250 (43%). Cramer's  $V$  statistic realised an exceedance probability of  $p \leq 0.000$ , indicating a statistically significant association between the variables. The effect size ( $w = 0.361$ ) observed indicates that a medium association exists between variety vs. price and spending on casual wear;
- Variety versus price and how often casual wear is purchased: it was observed that the respondents who prefer variety offered as important (37.6%) as well as respondents who deemed price as important (54%) only purchase casual wear when needed. Cramer's  $V$  statistic realised an exceedance probability of  $p \leq 0.000$ , indicating a statistically significant association between the variables. The effect size ( $w = 0.188$ ) observed indicates that a small association exists between variety vs. price and spending on casual wear.



**Main finding 1:** No practically significant associations were found between the various demographic variables.

### 5.3 IMPORTANCE OF STORE ATTRIBUTES

As the objective of this study was to determine the importance of store attributes when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from, respondents were asked to rate each of the 48 store attributes identified from literature (see section 3.4.1) on the importance thereof when they select a store selling casual wear on a scale ranging from 1 = not important to 5 = very important.

Table 5.5 shows the mean and standard deviation for each of the 48 store attributes. The mean refers to the average response for the question by respondents, whereas the standard deviation indicates the degree of distribution in response to the mean. The lower the standard deviation, the less discrepancy exists in response to the mean (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:538 & 550-552; Kinnear & Taylor, 1991:435-437).

**Table 5.5: Importance of store attributes to respondents**

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Variety of styles of casual wear sold	4.64	0.78
2. Variety of sizes of casual wear sold	4.54	0.82
3. Variety of brand names sold	3.63	1.60
4. Fashionable styles	4.53	0.94
5. Price of casual wear	4.63	0.84
6. Quality of casual wear	4.67	0.84
7. Easy access to store entrance	4.36	0.93
8. Ease of movement between products in the store	4.42	0.91
9. Air-conditioning	4.54	0.92
10. Availability of seats if you want to rest	3.87	1.38
11. Availability of trolley or baskets to carry clothing	3.74	1.46
12. Enough dressing rooms	4.52	0.96
13. Full length mirrors in dressing rooms	4.62	0.84
14. Privacy in dressing rooms	4.73	0.73
15. Enough light in dressing rooms	4.58	0.98
16. Easy access to store exit	4.33	1.03
17. Availability of parking near entrance of the store	4.26	1.12
18. Access to public transportation near to store	4.32	1.13
19. Convenient store hours	4.58	0.95
20. Availability of discounts offered by store	4.61	0.93
21. Clothing store close to home	4.36	1.16
22. Clothing store close to work or school	4.29	1.16
23. Availability of other clothing stores near this store	4.33	1.00
24. Availability of casual wear advertised by store	4.54	0.82

**Table 5.5: Importance of store attributes to respondents**

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
25. Enough check-out points	4.56	0.99
26. Fast check-out points	4.57	0.99
27. Enough salespeople to provide assistance	4.67	0.88
28. Helpful salespeople	4.74	0.72
29. Friendly salespeople	4.73	0.79
30. Salespeople have knowledge about casual wear in store	4.61	0.93
31. Free clothing alterations provided by store	3.55	1.66
32. Lay-buy services	3.66	1.59
33. Ability to order/ buy clothing on-line (internet)	3.36	1.63
34. Sells cell phones and accessories	4.44	1.16
35. Sells airtime	4.42	1.21
36. Easy return policy of store	4.67	0.89
37. Refunds	4.59	0.99
38. Availability of credit card facilities	3.95	1.51
39. Availability of a store card	4.18	1.37
40. Type of music playing in store	4.30	1.15
41. Loudness of music playing in store	4.48	1.05
42. Store smell	4.68	0.82
43. Enough light in store	4.70	0.79
44. Neat store appearance	4.76	0.72
45. Clean store	4.78	0.72
46. Window display of casual wear in store	4.42	0.99
47. Clearly visible in-store advertisements	4.43	0.95
48. In-store display of casual wear	4.41	0.96

A first observation from Table 5.5 is that respondents viewed the listed attributes as important to them when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from, with the lowest mean recorded as 3.36. Furthermore, shown in Table 5.3, the individual attributes that the respondents most agreed with as being important are a clean store (mean = 4.78), neat store appearance (mean = 4.76), helpful salespeople (mean = 4.74), privacy in dressing rooms (mean = 4.73) and friendly salespeople (mean = 4.73). The attributes that were seen as least important, with the lowest mean scores, are the ability to order/buy clothing on-line (mean = 3.36), free clothing alterations provided by the store (mean = 3.55) and the variety of brand names sold (mean = 3.63).

It is also seen in Table 5.5 that the three attributes with the largest standard deviation, indicating a large dispersion from the mean, are free clothing alterations provided by store (std. dev. = 1.66), the ability to order/ buy clothing on-line (via Internet) (std. dev. = 1.63) and variety of brand names sold (std. dev. = 1.60). The three attributes with the lowest standard deviation are helpful salespeople (std. dev. = 0.72), a neat store appearance (std. dev. = 0.72) and clean store (std. dev. = 0.72).

**Main finding 2:** Although all the attributes were important to respondents, the five most important individual attributes to respondents when selecting a store selling casual wear are a clean store, neat store appearance, helpful salespeople, privacy in dressing rooms and friendly salespeople.

**Main finding 3:** The least important individual attributes to respondents when selecting a store selling casual wear are free clothing alterations provided by the store, the ability to order/buy clothing on-line and the variety of brand names sold.

### 5.3.1 Factor analysis concerning importance of store attributes

A factor analysis was performed on the importance of 48 store attributes identified from literature (see section 3.4) to respondents when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from. Kent (2007:420), Malhotra (2007:309) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:634) further explain that when performing a factor analysis, each of the items in each factor is assigned a factor loading that shows the correlation coefficients between the item and factor. Tucker and Maccallum (1997:14) add that these factor loadings are used as the basis for interpreting the factors. Raubenheimer (2004:59) explains that high loadings indicate factors that are strongly influenced by the item, whereas low loadings indicate factors that are not strongly influenced by the item. Kline (1994:6) adds to this by explaining that factor loadings of  $\geq 0.6$  can be seen as high. According to Field (2005:622), only factor loadings  $> 0.3$  should be reported, because items with factor loadings  $< 0.3$  do not correlate significantly with the factor.

It is important to identify the total eigenvalue of the factors. Kent (2007:420) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:634) explain that eigenvalues are the variance in a set of variables explained by a factor. In other words, an eigenvalue is the sum of squared values of the factor loadings. Garson (2008) adds that low eigenvalues contribute little to the total variance explained.

Cooper and Schindler (2006:634), Kinnear and Taylor (1991:610) and Garson (1998) explain that rotation is a technique used to provide a more simple and interpretable picture of the relationship between factors and items. The rotation method used in this study was Oblimin ( $\tau = 0$ ). The Measurement System Analysis (MSA) is also reported, because it indicates the appropriateness of the factor matrix. Furthermore, an MSA value of  $\geq 0.8$  is meritorious,  $\geq 0.7$  is middling and  $\geq 0.5$  mediocre, while values  $< 0.5$  are considered as despondent (Hair *et al.*, 1998:99).

Table 5.6 presents the results from the factor analysis by listing the identified factors, items comprising each factor, factor loadings for each factor, eigenvalues and MSA for each factor. As suggested by Kline (1994:6), factor loadings less than 0.3 were omitted.

**Table 5.6: Rotated factor matrix for important store attributes**

No	Item	Factor loadings									
		F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10
28	Helpful salespeople	.94									
29	Friendly salespeople	.92									
27	Enough salespeople to provide assistance	.92									
30	Salespeople have knowledge about casual wear in store	.87									
25	Enough check-out points		.87								
26	Fast check-out points		.84								
19	Convenient store hours		.84								
21	Clothing store close to home		.83								
15	Enough light in dressing room		.83								
12	Enough dressing rooms		.82								
16	Easy access to store exit		.76								
22	Close to work or school		.75								
17	Availability of parking near entrance of store		.73								
23	Availability of other clothing stores near this store		.73								
48	In-store display of casual wear			.98							
47	Clearly visible in-store advertisements			.98							
46	Window display of casual wear in store			.97							
45	Clean store				.91						
44	Neat store appearance				.91						
14	Privacy in dressing rooms				.86						
1	Variety of styles of casual wear sold				.86						
43	Enough light in the store				.84						
6	Quality of casual wear				.84						
2	Variety of sizes of casual wear sold				.76						

**Table 5.6: Rotated factor matrix for important store attributes**

10	Availability of seats if you want to rest					.93					
11	Availability of trolleys or baskets to carry clothing					.93					
34	Sells cell phones and accessories						.91				
35	Sells airtime						.91				
40	Type of music playing in the store							.89			
41	Loudness of music playing in the store							.89			
5	Price of casual wear								*		
3	Variety of brand names sold									.82	
38	Availability of credit card facilities									.82	
31	Free clothing alterations provided by store										.85
32	Lay-buy services										.85
<b>Eigenvalues</b>		3.35	6.39	2.86	5.18	1.72	1.64	1.57	*	1.35	1.43
<b>MSA</b>		.85	.91	.78	.89	.50	.50	.50	*	.50	.50

\* These values could not be calculated for factor 8 as only one item loaded on this factor.

From Table 5.6 it can be seen that 10 factors were identified that respondents consider important when choosing a store selling casual wear. Of the 48 attributes included in the questionnaire, 35 items loaded on the 10 factors. Those attributes that did not load on any factors were removed from the factor analysis to improve the construct validity of the research instrument. The remainder of this section will be devoted to the labelling of the 10 identified factors.

### 5.3.1.1 Factor labelling

This section deals with the labelling of the 10 extracted factors. The discussion will also include reference to the store attribute categories identified in the literature review (see section 3.4) so as to facilitate the labelling process.

#### A. Factor 1

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that Factor 1 comprised of four items, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
28	Helpful salespeople	Service	0.94
29	Friendly salespeople	Service	0.92
27	Enough salespeople to provide assistance	Service	0.92
30	Salespeople have knowledge about casual wear in store	Service	0.87

From the table it is seen that four items loaded onto Factor 1. It can furthermore be seen that all the items are derived from the 'service' store attribute category. Factor 1 thus comprises of the items: helpful salespeople, friendly salespeople, enough salespeople to provide assistance and knowledgeable salespeople. From the items it can be derived that salespeople are general to all the items. By considering the four items together with the store attribute category they originate from, this factor can be labelled as **Service provided by salespeople**.

**Main finding 4:** Factor 1 can be labelled as Service provided by salespeople.

## B. Factor 2

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that Factor 2 consisted of the following items:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
25	Enough check-out points	Physical facilities	0.87
26	Fast check-out points	Physical facilities	0.84
19	Convenient store hours	Convenience	0.84
21	Clothing store close to home	Convenience	0.83
15	Enough light in dressing room	Physical facilities	0.83
12	Enough dressing rooms	Physical facilities	0.82
16	Easy access to store exit	Physical facilities	0.76
22	Clothing store close to work or school	Convenience	0.75
17	Availability of parking near entrance of store	Convenience	0.73
23	Availability of other clothing stores near this store	Convenience	0.73

From the table it can be derived that 10 items loaded onto Factor 2. It can also be seen that the 10 items are derived from two store attribute categories, namely: 'physical facilities' and 'convenience'. This factor therefore comprises of the following physical facility items, namely: enough check-out points, fast check-out points, enough light in the dressing rooms, enough dressing rooms and easy access to the store exit. From these items it appears that check-out points and dressing rooms are central to these items.

The items included in the convenience category consists of the following items, namely: convenient store hours, clothing store close to home, clothing store close to work or school, availability of parking near the entrance of the store and the availability of other clothing store near this store. A common theme that emerges from these items seems to be convenient store hours as well as the proximity of the store to respondents' home, work or school or other clothing stores.

By considering the 10 items comprising Factor 2, together with the store attribute categories, this factor can be labelled as **Check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store.**

**Main finding 5:** Factor 2 can be labelled as Check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store.

### C. Factor 3

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that Factor 3 contains three items, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
48	In-store display of casual wear	Promotion	0.98
47	Clearly visible in-store advertisements	Promotion	0.98
46	Window display of casual wear in store	Promotion	0.97

From the table it is seen that three items loaded onto Factor 3. It can furthermore be seen that two of the items relate to displays and that all the items are derived from the 'promotion' store attribute category. Factor 3 thus consists of the items: display and advertising of merchandise, in-store displays, clearly visible in-store advertisements and window displays of casual wear in the store. By considering the three items, this factor can therefore be labelled as **Display of casual wear and in-store advertising..**

**Main finding 6:** Factor 3 can be labelled as Display of casual wear and in-store advertising.

### D. Factor 4

From Table 5.6 it can be seen that Factor 4 contains the following items, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
45	Clean store	Physical facilities	0.91
44	Neat store appearance	Physical facilities	0.91
14	Privacy in dressing rooms	Physical facilities	0.86
1	Variety of styles of casual wear sold	Merchandise	0.86
43	Enough light in the store	Physical facilities	0.84
6	Quality of casual wear	Merchandise	0.84
2	Variety of sizes of casual wear sold	Merchandise	0.76

From the table it can be derived that seven items loaded onto Factor 4. It can also be seen that the seven items are derived from two store attribute categories, namely: 'physical facilities' and 'merchandise'. This factor therefore consists of the following physical facility items, namely: a neat and clean store, enough light in the store and privacy in the dressing rooms. Central to these items appears to be the stores' appearance.

The items included in the merchandise category consist of the following items, namely: variety of styles and sizes as well as the quality of the casual wear sold. A common theme that emerges from these items seems to be that all the items reflect aspects relating to the casual wear itself.

By considering the seven items comprising Factor 4, together with the store attribute categories as well as the discussion provided, this factor can be labelled as **Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear**.

**Main finding 7:** Factor 4 can be labelled as Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear.

#### E. Factor 5

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that Factor 5 consists of the following two items, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
10	Availability of seats if you want to rest	Physical facilities	0.93
11	Availability of trolleys or baskets to carry clothing	Physical facilities	0.93

As illustrated in the table, both the items of this factor reflect the store attribute category 'physical facilities'. These two items that loaded onto Factor 5 were: the availability of



seats if you want to rest and the availability of trolleys or baskets in the store. By considering these items, Factor 5 will be labelled as **Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience**.

**Main finding 8:** Factor 5 can be labelled as Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience.

#### F. Factor 6

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that Factor 6 consists of the following items, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
34	Sells cell phones and accessories	Service	0.91
35	Sells airtime	Service	0.91

From the table it can be derived that two items loaded onto Factor 6. Both of the items of this factor reflect the 'service' store attribute category. These two items that loaded onto factor 6 were: sells cell phones and accessories as well as selling airtime. By considering these items, Factor 6 will be labelled as **Offering of cell phones and accessories**.

**Main finding 9:** Factor 6 can be labelled as Offering of cell phones and accessories.

#### G. Factor 7

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that Factor 7 consists of two items, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
40	Type of music playing in the store	Store atmosphere	0.89
41	Loudness of music playing in the store	Store atmosphere	0.89

The table illustrates that two items loaded onto Factor 7 and reflect the 'store atmosphere' store attribute category. The items that loaded onto Factor 7 were: type of music playing and the loudness of the music playing in the store. By considering these items, Factor 7 will be labelled as **Music played**.

**Main finding 10:** Factor 7 can be labelled as Music played.

## H. Factor 8

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that Factor 8 consists of one item, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
5	Price of casual wear	Merchandise	*

\* This value could not be calculated for factor 8 as only one item loaded on this factor.

As seen in the table, this factor only consists of one item that is derived from the 'merchandise' store attribute category, namely: price of casual wear. Since only one item loaded onto this factor, no loading could be calculated. Price can be seen as an important element in store selection, explaining its inclusion as a factor on its own and is subsequently labelled as **Price of casual wear**.

**Main finding 11:** Factor 8 can be labelled as Price of casual wear

## I. Factor 9

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that Factor 9 contains two items, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
3	Variety of brand names sold	Merchandise	0.82
38	Availability of credit card facilities	Service	0.82

The table illustrates that only two items loaded onto Factor 9. Furthermore, one of the items reflects the 'merchandise' attribute category, while the other reflected the 'service' store attribute category. Merchandise consists of the item: variety of brand names sold. The service attribute included one item, namely: availability of credit card facilities. This factor can therefore be labelled as **Variety of brand names and credit card facilities**.

**Main finding 12:** Factor 9 can be labelled as Variety of brand names and credit card facilities.

## J. Factor 10

From Table 5.6 it could be seen that the final factor consists of the following two items, namely:

No	Item	Store attribute category	Loading
31	Free clothing alterations provided by store	Service	0.85
32	Lay-buy services	Service	0.85

As illustrated in the table, both the items of this factor reflect the 'service' store attribute category. The two items that loaded onto Factor 10 were: free clothing alterations and lay-buy services. By considering these items, Factor 10 will be labelled as **Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services**.

**Main finding 13:** Factor 10 can be labelled as Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services.

### 5.3.1.2 Reliability of factors

Gliem and Gliem (2003:84) explain that the Cronbach's Alpha values are calculated to determine the correlation between items in a scale and are used to measure the internal reliability. Bagozzi (1994:18) adds that the Cronbach's Alpha ranges between 0 and 1. A Cronbach Alpha value of  $\geq 0.6$  is acceptable, but it is preferred to have a  $\geq 0.7$  value, because it indicates a higher level of reliability. Table 5.7 indicates the Cronbach's Alpha values obtained for the factors during the factor analysis.

**Table 5.7: Cronbach Alpha values associated with the factor analysis in terms of the importance of store attributes to respondents**

Factor	Factor Label	Cronbach Alpha
1	Service provided by salespeople	0.93
2	Check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store	0.94
3	Display of casual wear and in-store advertising	0.98
4	Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear	0.94
5	Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience	0.84
6	Offering of cell phones and accessories	0.78
7	Music played	0.73
8	Price of casual wear	*
9	Variety of brand names and credit card facilities	0.52
10	Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services	0.59

\*The Cronbach Alpha's value could not be calculated for Factor 8 as only one item loaded on this factor

Sapsford and Jupp (2006:111&121) explain that the Cronbach's Alpha values for the factors need to be calculated to determine the degree to which all the tested items measure the same construct. The Cronbach's Alpha values range from 0.52 (factor 9) to 0.98 (factor 3). The Cronbach's Alpha values for Factor 1-7 are larger than the recommended 0.7 (Bagozzi, 1994:18), indicating a relatively high level of reliability. Although Factors 9 and 10 have Cronbach's Alpha values below 0.7, these factors can be regarded as acceptable as each only comprises two items. This deduction can be made since, as Field (2005:668) explains, the Cronbach's Alpha values depend on the number of items on the scale. The lower Cronbach's Alpha values of 0.52 and 0.59 for Factors 9 and 10 respectively can therefore be attributed to only two items loading onto the scale and not because the scale is unreliable.

### 5.3.1.3 Statistical analysis on store attribute importance factors

Further statistical analyses were performed to determine whether differences exist between different respondent groups and the identified importance factors. Only results that are statistically significant will be reported.

#### A. Gender and store attribute importance factors

T-tests were performed to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between gender and the 10 identified factors. The results obtained from the t-tests showed that statistically significant differences exist for a number of factors, namely: Factor 5 (Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience), Factor 6 (Offering of cell phones and accessories); Factor 8 (Price of casual wear) and Factor 9 (Variety of brand names and credit card facilities). Therefore, it was decided to determine the practical significance for these factors. Table 5.8 shows the mean, standard deviation, p-value and effect size for each factor in terms of respondents' gender.

**Table 5.8: Store attribute importance factors and gender**

Factors	Gender	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	p-values	Effect size
Factor 5: Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience	Female	360	3.69	1.36	0.00	0.30
	Male	150	4.09	1.17		
Factor 6: Offering of cell phones and accessories	Female	359	4.60	0.89	0.00	0.42
	Male	149	4.03	1.34		

**Table 5.8: Store attribute importance factors and gender**

Factor 8: Price of casual wear	Female	360	4.72	0.70	0.01	0.25
	Male	149	4.45	1.07		
Factor 9: Variety of brand names and credit card facilities	Female	360	3.84	1.21	0.01	0.22
	Male	150	4.10	1.07		

Table 5.8 illustrates that small and medium-sized d-values were found when comparing the means of the factors for female and male respondents. By considering this, it can be concluded that no practically significant differences exist and thus female and male respondents do not differ in their view of the factors relating to store attributes that are important to them when deciding where to purchase casual wear from.

**Main finding 14:** There is not a practically significant difference between respondents' gender and the importance factors when selecting a store selling casual wear.

#### B. Variety versus price and store attribute importance factors

T-tests were performed to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between respondents preferring variety offered versus price and the 10 identified factors. The results obtained from the T-tests showed that statistically significant differences exist for a number of factors, namely: Factor 2 (Check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store); Factor 5 (Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience); Factor 7 (Music played); Factor 9 (Variety of brand names and credit card facilities) and Factor 10 (Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services). Therefore, it was decided to determine the practical significance for these factors. Table 5.9 shows the mean, standard deviation, p-value and effect size for each factor in terms of respondents' gender.

**Table 5.9: Store attribute importance factors and variety and price**

Factors	Item	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	P-values	Effect size
Factor 2: Check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store	Variety	312	4.54	0.72	0.00	0.26
	Price	190	4.29	0.95		
Factor 5: Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience	Variety	312	4.04	1.14	0.00	0.39
	Price	190	3.46	1.50		

**Table 5.9: Store attribute importance factors and variety and price**

Factor 7: Music played	Variety	312	4.53	0.80	0.00	0.30
	Price	189	4.17	1.18		
Factor 9: Variety of brand names and credit card facilities	Variety	312	4.29	0.92	0.00	0.72
	Price	190	3.39	1.24		
Factor 10: Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services	Variety	312	3.78	1.36	0.00	0.31
	Price	190	3.35	1.37		

The realised effect sizes for the factors are small and medium and therefore not of practical significance. By considering this, it is concluded that regardless of whether respondents prefer variety offered or price as more important when purchasing casual wear, they do not differ in their view of the importance of the store attribute factors.

**Main finding 15:** There is not a practically significant difference between the view of respondents that choose the variety offered and respondents that choose price regarding the store attributes that are important when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from.

### C. Spending and store attribute importance factors

One-way ANOVAs were performed to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between the spending categories and the 10 importance factors. Initial analyses found that statistically significant differences occurred for a number of factors, namely: for Factor 1 (Service by salespeople) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 2 and 4; for Factor 2 (Check out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 4 and 3, 4 and 1, 4 and 2; for Factor 3 (Display of casual wear and in-store advertising) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 4 and 2, 4 and 1, 3 and 1, 2 and 1; for Factor 4 (Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 4 and 2; for Factor 5 (Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 4 and 2, 4 and 1, 3 and 1, 2 and 1; for Factor 7 (Music played) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 4 and 3, 4 and 2; for Factor 9 (Variety of brand names and credit card facilities) statistically significant

differences occurred between categories 4 and 3, 4 and 2, 4 and 1, 3 and 1, 2 and 1; for Factor 10 (Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 4 and 3, 4 and 2, 4 and 1. It was therefore decided to determine the practical significance for these factors. Table 5.10 shows the mean, standard deviation and d-value for each factor in terms of respondents' spending.

**Table 5.10: Store importance factors and respondents' spending**

Factor	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	Comparisons significant at 0.05 level*	Spending amount	d- value			
						<R100 (1)	R100-R250 (2)	R251-R500 (3)	>R500 (4)
Factor 1: Service by sales-people	4.61	0.66	38	2-4	(1)<R100	-	0.03	0.11	0.39
	4.58	0.83	192		(2)R100-R250	0.03	-	0.14	0.34
	4.70	0.81	169		(3)R251-R500	0.11	0.14	-	0.20
	4.87	0.53	112		(4)>R500	0.39	0.34	0.20	-
Factor 2: Check out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store	4.33	0.72	38	4-3 4-1 4-2	(1)<R100	-	0.06	0.07	0.67
	4.28	0.89	192		(2)R100-R250	0.06	-	0.13	0.60
	4.40	0.89	169		(3)R251-R500	0.07	0.13	-	0.47
	4.81	0.44	112		(4)>R500	0.67	0.60	0.47	-
Factor 3: Display of casual wear and in-store advertising	3.75	1.21	38	4-2 4-1 3-1 2-1	(1)<R100	-	0.45	0.62	0.84
	4.29	0.98	192		(2)R100-R250	0.45	-	0.21	0.49
	4.50	0.87	169		(3)R251-R500	0.62	0.21	-	0.31
	4.77	0.69	111		(4)>R500	0.84	0.49	0.31	-
Factor 4: Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear	4.58	0.67	38	4-2	(1)<R100	-	0.07	0.12	0.43
	4.62	0.68	192		(2)R100-R250	0.07	-	0.06	0.35
	4.67	0.76	169		(3)R251-R500	0.12	0.06	-	0.26
	4.86	0.38	112		(4)>R500	0.43	0.35	0.26	-

**Table 5.10: Store importance factors and respondents' spending**

Factor	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	Comparisons significant at 0.05 level*	Spending amount	d- value			
						<R100 (1)	R100-R250 (2)	R251-R500 (3)	>R500 (4)
Factor 5: Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience	2.82	1.38	38	4-2 4-1 3-1 2-1	(1)<R100	-	0.57	0.81	1.06
	3.60	1.28	192		(2)R100-R250	0.57	-	0.26	0.53
	3.39	1.28	169		(3)R251-R500	0.81	0.26	-	0.27
	4.28	1.18	112		(4)>R500	1.06	0.53	0.27	-
Factor 7: Music played	4.26	0.96	38	4-3 4-2	(1)<R100	-	0.01	0.07	0.47
	4.25	1.07	192		(2)R100-R250	0.01	-	0.08	0.43
	4.34	1.02	169		(3)R251-R500	0.07	0.08	-	0.37
	4.72	0.65	111		(4)>R500	0.47	0.43	0.37	-
Factor 9: Variety of brand names and credit card facilities	3.11	1.35	38	4-3 4-2 4-1 3-1 2-1	(1)<R100	-	0.41	0.60	1.10
	3.66	1.21	192		(2)R100-R250	0.41	-	0.21	0.80
	3.92	1.09	169		(3)R251-R500	0.60	0.21	-	0.63
	4.61	0.75	112		(4)>R500	1.10	0.80	0.63	-
Factor 10: Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services	3.09	1.21	38	4-3 4-2 4-1	(1)<R100	-	0.17	0.38	0.91
	3.32	1.33	192		(2)R100-R250	0.17	-	0.21	0.70
	3.61	1.38	169		(3)R251-R500	0.38	0.21	-	0.47
	4.25	1.27	112		(4)>R500	0.91	0.70	0.47	-

\*Tukey's comparison significant at the 0.05 level

Table 5.10 illustrates that a few large effect sizes can be observed between respondents' spending different amounts on casual wear and the identified factors.

A large effect size, indicating a practically significant difference, between category 4 and 1 exists for Factor 3 (Display of casual wear and in-store advertising) when comparing respondents spending < R100 and those spending more than R500 ( $d = 0.84$ ). The mean scores indicate that respondents spending > R500 experience display of casual wear and in-store advertising as more important than those spending < R100.



A large effect size, indicating large practically significant difference, between category 3 and 1 and category 4 and 1, exists for Factor 5 (Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience) when comparing respondents spending < R100 and those spending R251 - R500 ( $d = 0.81$ ) and those spending > R500 ( $d = 1.06$ ). The mean scores indicate that respondents spending < R100 regard Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience as less important than those spending R251 - R500 and those spending > R500.

A large effect size, indicating a large practically significant difference, between category 4 and 2 and category 4 and 1, exists for Factor 9 (variety of brand names and credit card facilities) when comparing respondents spending > R500 and those spending R251 - R500 ( $d = 0.80$ ), as well as respondents spending > R500 and those spending < R100 ( $d = 1.10$ ). The mean scores show that respondents who spend > R500 regard the variety of brand names and credit card facilities as more important than those spending < R500.

A large effect size, indicating a large practically significant difference, exists between category 1 and 4 and for Factor 10 (Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services) when comparing respondents spending < R100 and those spending > R500 ( $d = 0.91$ ). The mean scores indicate that respondents who spend > R500 regard alterations of clothing and lay-buy services as more important than respondents spending < R100.

The realised effect sizes for the rest of the factors are small and medium with regard to spending, and therefore not of practical significance.

**Main finding 16:** Practically significant differences between respondents who spend >R500 and respondents spending < R100 exist for Display of casual wear and in-store advertising, Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience, Variety of brand names and credit card facilities and Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services. Practically significant differences also exist between respondents spending > R500 and respondents spending R100 - R250 for Variety of brand names and credit card facilities. Respondents spending R250 - R500 also practically significantly differ from respondents spending < R100 for Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience.

#### **D. Mode of transport and store attribute importance factors**

One-way ANOVAs were performed to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between the factors relating to store attribute importance and

respondents' mode of transport to the store selling casual wear. Initial analyses found that statistically significant differences occurred for a number of factors, namely: for Factor 3 (Display of casual wear and in-store advertising) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 1 and 2; for Factor 4 (Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 3 and 4; for Factor 5 (Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 1 and 5, 1 and 4, 2 and 4; for Factor 9 (Variety of brand names and credit card facilities) statistically significant differences occurred between categories 5 and 4. It was therefore decided to determine the practical significance for these factors. Table 5.11 shows the mean, standard deviation and d-value for each factor in terms of the mode of transport used to an apparel store.

**Table 5.11: Effect sizes for differences in store attribute importance and the mode of transport**

Factor	Mean	Std Dev	n	Comparisons significant at 0.05 level	Transport mode	d- value				
						Walk (1)	Bus (2)	Taxi (3)	Lift (4)	Own car (5)
Factor 3: Display of casual wear and in-store advertising	4.88	0.34	16	1-2	(1)Walk	-	0.64	0.39	0.60	0.60
	4.11	1.21	34		(2)Bus	0.64	-	0.36	0.14	0.16
	4.55	0.85	281		(3)Taxi	0.39	0.36	-	0.27	0.26
	4.28	0.99	39		(4)Lift with others	0.60	0.14	0.27	-	0.02
	4.30	0.97	131		(5)Own car	0.60	0.16	0.26	0.02	-
Factor 4: Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear	4.72	0.49	17	3-4	(1)Walk	-	0.21	0.09	0.29	0.10
	4.56	0.76	34		(2)Bus	0.21	-	0.27	0.14	0.11
	4.77	0.51	281		(3)Taxi	0.09	0.27	-	0.34	0.16
	4.41	1.04	39		(4)Lift with others	0.29	0.14	0.34	-	0.22
	4.64	0.77	131		(5)Own car	0.10	0.11	0.16	0.22	-
Factor 5: Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience	4.62	1.02	17	1-5 1-4 2-4	(1)Walk	-	0.38	0.56	<b>0.87</b>	<b>0.80</b>
	4.18	1.16	34		(2)Bus	0.38	-	0.23	0.58	0.45
	3.88	1.33	281		(3)Taxi	0.56	0.23	-	0.38	0.19
	3.31	1.51	39		(4)Lift with others	<b>0.87</b>	0.58	0.38	-	0.21
	3.62	1.25	131		(5)Own car	<b>0.80</b>	0.45	0.19	0.21	-

**Table 5.11: Effect sizes for differences in store attribute importance and the mode of transport**

Factor	Mean	Std Dev	n	Comparisons significant at 0.05 level	Transport mode	d- value				
						Walk (1)	Bus (2)	Taxi (3)	Lift (4)	Own car (5)
Factor 9: Variety of brand names and credit card facilities	4.47	0.83	17	5-4	(1)Walk	-	0.34	0.54	0.69	0.30
	4.06	1.20	34		(2)Bus	0.34	-	0.18	0.38	0.07
	3.85	1.14	281		(3)Taxi	0.54	0.18	-	0.22	0.26
	3.57	1.30	39		(4)Lift with others	0.69	0.38	0.22	-	0.44
	4.15	1.08	131		(5)Own car	0.30	0.07	0.26	0.44	-

\*Tukey's comparison significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5.11 illustrates that large effect sizes between category 1 and 4 and category 1 and 5 exist for Factor 5 (Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience) when comparing respondents who walk to respondents who use their own car ( $d = 0.80$ ) as well as those respondents who get a lift from others ( $d = 0.87$ ) when visiting a store selling casual wear. The mean scores indicate that respondents walking to a store selling casual wear see physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience as more important than respondents who get a lift from others or those who use their own car when visiting a store selling casual wear.

The realised effect sizes for the rest of the factors are small and medium with regard to spending and therefore not of practical significance.

**Main finding 17:** Respondents who walk when visiting a store selling casual wear differ practically significantly from those who get a lift from others as well as those who own their own cars with regard to Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience.

#### 5.4 SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

This section is devoted to the main findings that were observed and discussed throughout this chapter.

The first section of the chapter aimed to determine whether association between demographic variables could be observed. The following main findings were observed:

**Main finding 1:** No practically significant associations were found between the various demographic variables.

Section A of the questionnaire aimed to determine which attributes are important when consumers select a store to purchase casual wear from. The following main findings were observed:

**Main finding 2:** The most important individual attributes to respondents when selecting a store selling casual wear are a clean store, neat store appearance, helpful salespeople, privacy in dressing rooms and friendly salespeople;

**Main finding 3:** The least important individual attributes to respondents when selecting a store selling casual wear are the ability to order/buy clothing on-line, free clothing alterations provided by the store and the variety of brand names sold;

In order to determine which attributes were important, a factor analysis was conducted. The following main findings were observed:

**Main finding 4:** Factor 1 can be labelled as Service provided by salespeople;

**Main finding 5:** Factor 2 can be labelled as Check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store;

**Main finding 6:** Factor 3 can be labelled as Display of casual wear and in-store advertising;

**Main finding 7:** Factor 4 can be labelled as Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear;

**Main finding 8:** Factor 5 can be labelled as Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience;

**Main finding 9:** Factor 6 can be labelled as Offering of cell phones and accessories;

**Main finding 10:** Factor 7 can be labelled as Music played;

**Main finding 11:** Factor 8 can be labelled as Price of casual wear;

**Main finding 12:** Factor 9 can be labelled as Variety of brand names and credit card facilities;

**Main finding 13:** Factor 10 can be labelled as Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services;

The study also aimed to determine whether demographic variables influence the importance factors. The following main findings were observed:

**Main finding 14:** There is not a practically significant difference between respondents' gender and the importance factors when selecting a store selling casual wear.

**Main finding 15:** There is not a practically significant difference between the view of respondents who choose the variety offered and respondents who choose price regarding the store attributes that are important when selecting a store to purchase casual wear from.

**Main finding 16:** Practically significant differences between respondents who spend > R500 and respondents spending < R100 exist for Display of casual wear and in-store advertising, Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience, Variety of brand names and credit card facilities and Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services. Practically significant differences also exist between respondents spending > R500 and respondents spending R100 - R250 for Variety of brand names and credit card facilities. Respondents spending R250 - R500 also practically significantly differ from respondents spending <R100 for Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience.

**Main finding 17:** Respondents who walk when visiting a store selling casual wear differ practically significantly from those who get a lift from others as well as those who own their own cars with regard to Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience.

## 5.5 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the sample profile of the respondents was described as well as the results regarding the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The data was analysed by means of cross-tabulations and effect sizes. A factor analysis was performed to determine which factors respondents see as important when choosing a store to

purchase casual wear from, from which 10 factors were identified. The chapter was concluded by listing all the main findings that were reported throughout the chapter.

## CHAPTER 6

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 concludes the study by first providing a brief overview of the study. This is followed by drawing conclusions based on the main findings from the study together with recommendations for stores selling casual wear. Next the links between the secondary objectives and the main findings observed are provided. The chapter concludes by listing the study's limitations and by providing recommendations for future research.

#### 6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The primary objective of this study was to determine the store attributes that black consumers consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear. In order to reach this objective, it was necessary to research consumer decision-making, consumer purchasing behaviour, retailing and the store attributes that consumers could consider when selecting a store to purchase from.

In order to succeed in the retail industry, especially in today's evolving apparel market, retailers need to understand how consumers make decisions. What consumers buy and use is the result of a decision made and therefore the consumer decision-making process plays a significant role in understanding consumer purchasing behaviour. It is therefore important for retailers to understand what store attributes influence the consumer decision-making process when consumers select a store to purchase from (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:4).

The retail industry is a vital part of the national economy. To consumers, this value is presented in the form of products and services, whereas retailing's economic value is represented by the number of people employed therein, as well as by the total amount of money exchanged in retail sales (Kerin *et al.*, 2009:438; Cox & Brittain, 1994:1).

Bakewell and Mitchell (2003:96) and Terblanché (1998:18) explain that the retail industry is marked by intense competitive activity where consumer expectations are in a continuous state of change. This emphasises the importance for retailers to continually adjust their store offerings in order to comply with the changing consumer needs and

wants (Newman & Patel, 2004:773; Newman & Foxall, 2003:599; Terblanché, 1998:26). Therefore, retailers play a major role in creating and adding value to the consumer decision-making process, which ensures that the needs and wants of the consumer are satisfied (Terblanché, 1998:18). Through this, retailers will gain a better understanding of how consumers select a retail store to purchase from (Yavas, 2001:97).

According to Berman and Evans (2007:198), if retailers have an understanding of those consumers they target, it enables them to develop an accurate retail strategy and the possibility to create a positive store image in the mind of the consumer. Therefore, an overall understanding of retailing and its relation to consumer decision-making will provide an understanding of the store attributes consumers consider when selecting a store to purchase from.

Ko and Kincade (1997:92), Mowen (1995:439) and Osman (1993:133) explain that consumers select a store to purchase from based on the stores' attributes. Therefore, retailers need to focus on implementing the correct store attributes to improve their store offerings and thus attract the consumer to the store. Properly-implemented store attributes will be beneficial to retailers by creating store patronage, store loyalty and thus store profit. This emphasises the need for retailers to determine which store attributes consumers consider as important when selecting a store to purchase from (Janse van Noordwyk, 2008:ii; Osman, 2001:141; Grewel *et al.*, 1998:347).

Due to the vast amount of literature available on store image literature, the store attributes tested in this study were discussed on the basis of store image literature. A number of store attribute categories have been identified from store image literature, namely: merchandise, service, store atmosphere, post-transactional satisfaction, promotion, physical facilities and convenience (Janse van Noordwyk, 2008:60; Visser *et al.*, 2006:50; Peter & Olson, 2005:408; Koo, 2003:68; Terblanché, 1998:63; Huddleston *et al.*, 1990:76; Lindquist, 1975:31; Martineau, 1958:48). By implementing the store attributes identified in a store's offerings, retailers will attract consumers to their store and therefore the consumers will not seek fulfilment from other stores (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:531; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:71).

Since many black consumers in South Africa have risen from poverty to the middle class that resulted in stronger black consumer purchasing power, the black market is an important and growing market for retailers to focus on in South Africa (McGregor, 2006 ; Van Eck *et al.*, 2004:1). This study focussed on black consumers aged 16 to 35. This



age group was chosen because this age group has high purchasing power that can be contributed to either entering the labour force or already being part-time or full-time employed (TNS Research Surveys, 2007; Gardyn, 2002:18). Furthermore, this age group's purchasing priorities are related to personal appearance and fun (Ryan, 2002; Paul, 2001:43). These consumers are therefore focused on their appearance and make apparel purchases (such as casual wear).

This study therefore aimed to determine the store attributes black consumers consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear. Taking the attribute categories identified from the literature review into consideration, an interviewer-administered questionnaire was designed and distributed through a mall intercept survey in Soweto by means of a convenience sampling method. In total, 513 respondents participated in the study. A factor analysis was conducted to identify whether underlying store attributes could be identified that respondents consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear.

The following section presents the conclusions that can be drawn from the main findings identified in Chapter 5 and furthermore presents recommendations for stores selling casual wear.

### **6.3 CONCLUSIONS**

The primary objective of this study was to determine the store attributes black consumers consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear. By considering the literature review, the objectives set, and the results obtained for this study, the conclusions that can be drawn are discussed in this section together with the recommendations for retailers selling casual wear.

#### **6.3.1 Conclusion from objective 1**

The first objective of this study was to identify the store attributes consumers in general consider when selecting a store selling casual wear by conducting a literature review. The literature review revealed seven main categories of attributes that consumers consider when selecting a store, each with their own sub-dimensions. The attribute categories together with sub-dimensions identified from literature are listed in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1: Attributes influencing store choice**

Attribute category	Sub-dimensions
<b>Merchandise</b>	Variety, styling or fashion, pricing of merchandise, merchandise quality and merchandise availability.
<b>Service</b>	Salespeople, service in general (provide alterations and sells cell phones, accessories and airtime), lay-buy services, credit card facilities and availability of store cards.
<b>Store atmosphere</b>	Music and smell.
<b>Post-transaction satisfaction</b>	Returns and refunds.
<b>Promotion</b>	Sales promotions (discounts), displays (window and in-store) and advertising.
<b>Physical facilities</b>	Store access, ease of movement (store layout and aisle placement), air-conditioning, waiting area, trolleys or baskets, dressing rooms, check-out points and neat and clean store.
<b>Convenience</b>	Store hours, location, access to public transportation, parking facilities and the ability to order products online.

The attributes identified through the literature review, as presented in Table 6.1, were used to compile the questionnaire for this study in order to determine the store attributes black consumers consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear. The questionnaire consisted of 48 individual store attributes identified from the literature review that could influence a consumer's store choice.

### 6.3.2 Conclusion from objective 2

The second objective of this study was to determine which store attributes black consumers consider when selecting a store selling casual wear. The 48 store attributes tested in the questionnaire were subjected to a factor analysis to identify whether there are underlying store attributes respondents consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear.

From the factor analysis, ten factors were identified that black consumers consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear, namely: Service by salespeople (**main finding 4, p. 112**); Check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store (**main finding 5, p. 113**); Display of casual wear and in-store advertising (**main finding 6 p. 113**); Store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear (**main**

**finding 7, p. 114**); Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience (**main finding 8, p. 115**); Offering of cell phones and accessories (**main finding 9, p. 115**); Music played (**main finding 10, p. 115**); Price of casual wear (**main finding 11, p. 116**); Variety of brand names and credit card facilities (**main finding 12, p. 116**) and Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services (**main finding 13, p. 117**).

It can therefore **be concluded** that black consumers consider ten factors as important when selecting a store selling casual wear, namely: service by salespeople, check-out points, dressing rooms, store hours and proximity to store, display of casual wear and in-store advertising, store appearance, styles, sizes and quality of casual wear, physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience, offering of cell phones and accessories, music played, price of casual wear, variety of brand names and credit card facilities, and alterations of clothing and lay-buy services.

It can therefore **be recommended** that stores selling casual wear should make sure that the ten factors identified are included in the marketing strategy in order to attract black consumers to the store. In order to do this, stores selling casual wear can make sure that their salespeople are trained, helpful and friendly and assist consumers in making the right purchase decisions. Stores need to make check-out points fast and orderly so that it minimises the time and effort for the consumer. A store can implement flexible and convenient store hours so that consumers have more options regarding the time they shop. A store needs to implement appealing and creative store displays and advertising so that consumers are attracted to the store. It is important that a store is clean and neat so that consumers feel comfortable in the store. A store needs to offer a wide variety of styles, sizes and brand names as well as good quality products so that consumers with varying body shapes and casual wear needs can find what they are looking for. By offering additional facilities in the store, such as rest areas for people who are tired, more consumers can be attracted to the store. Stores can also offer other services and products in a store, such as the selling of cell phones and accessories, so as to increase convenience so that the consumer only needs to visit one store. A store needs to play the type of music that their target market likes and thus motivate them to stay longer in the store. A store can also offer consumers various payment options, such as credit card or store card facilities in order to increase purchasing. A store can offer consumers alteration services that could motivate consumers to purchase more clothes because those that do not fit right can be altered. Lastly, a store can offer lay-buy services to attract more consumers because they can buy now and pay later.

### 6.3.3 Conclusion from objective 3

The third objective of this study was to determine whether certain individual store attributes are considered more important than others to black consumers when selecting a store selling casual wear. The results from this study identified that, from the 48 individual store attributes, the most important individual store attributes to respondents when selecting a store selling casual wear are a clean store, neat store appearance, helpful salespeople, privacy in dressing rooms and friendly salespeople (**main finding 2, p. 109**). It was also determined that the least important individual attributes to consumers when selecting a store to purchase from are the ability to order/buy clothing online, free clothing alterations provided by the store and the variety of brand names offered in store (**main finding 3, p. 109**).

It can therefore **be concluded** that the individual attributes identified by respondents that are most important when selecting a store selling casual wear are a clean store, neat store appearance, helpful salespeople, privacy in dressing rooms and friendly salespeople.

It can therefore **be recommended** that stores selling casual wear should focus on the cleanliness and neatness of the store. Furthermore, stores selling casual wear should ensure that the salespeople are helpful and friendly and that patrons are guaranteed privacy in dressing rooms. Stores can also train their salespeople on the products the store sells, on how to give good service to consumers visiting the store, on how to be helpful to consumers and lastly, how to help consumers make the right product choice. Another important issue for retailers is to ensure that consumers have privacy in dressing rooms by offering separate dressing rooms for men and women and by rather using *doors* and not curtains in dressing cubicles to promote privacy.

### 6.3.4 Conclusion from objective 4

The fourth objective of this study was to determine the influence of demographic variables on the importance that black consumers place on store attributes they consider when selecting a store selling casual wear. The results from the study showed that no practically significant difference between respondents' gender and the importance factors could be observed (**main finding 14, p. 119**). Furthermore, no practically significant difference was found between respondents who deem variety offered as more important

and those respondents who deem price as more important when selecting a store selling casual wear (**main finding 15, p. 120**).

Further results from the study showed that practically significant differences exist between respondents who spend > R500 and respondents spending < R100 for four identified factors, namely: Display of casual wear and in-store advertising, Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience, Variety of brand names and credit card facilities and Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services. Furthermore, practically significant differences were found between respondents spending > R500 and those spending between R100 - R250 for one identified factor, namely: Variety of brand names and credit card facilities, as well as between respondents spending > R500 and those spending R250 - R500 for one identified factor, namely: Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience (**main finding 16, p. 123**). From the results observed in Chapter 5, it can be noted that respondents spending > R500 see display of casual wear and in-store advertising as more important than those spending < R100; respondents spending > R500 regard Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience as more important than those spending < R100, respondents who spend > R500 regard the variety of brand names and credit card facilities as more important than those spending < R500 and lastly, respondents who spend > R500 regard alterations of clothing and lay-buy services as more important than respondents spending < R100. From the results it was thus observed that in all cases, respondents spending > R500 deem these identified factors as more important than those spending < R500. Furthermore, it was found that respondents who walk to a store selling casual wear differ practically significantly from those who get a lift or own their own car for one identified factor, namely: Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience (**main finding 17, p. 125**). The results indicated that respondents walking to a store selling casual wear see physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience as more important than respondents who get a lift from others or those who use their own car when visiting a store selling casual wear.

It can therefore **be concluded** that respondents who spend > R500 see Display of casual wear and in-store advertising, Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience, Variety of brand names and credit card facilities and Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services as more important than respondents spending < R100. Respondents spending between R100 - R250 see Variety of brand names and credit card facilities as important, while respondents spending R250 - R500 see Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience as more important than consumers spending < R100. It is also seen that respondents who walk to a store selling casual wear see Physical facilities to enhance

shopping convenience as more important than respondents who get a lift from others or drive their own car to the store.

It can therefore **be recommended** that stores selling casual wear should focus on the store attributes, namely: Display of casual wear and in-store advertising, Physical facilities to enhance shopping convenience, Variety of brand names and credit card facilities and Alterations of clothing and lay-buy services, in order to attract the consumers who spend more than R500. This will ensure that the store attracts the consumers with high purchasing power. Furthermore, stores need to ensure that they have physical facilities that can enhance shopping convenience in place that will enhance the shopping experience for those who walk to the retail store.

#### 6.4 LINKING OBJECTIVES TO MAIN FINDINGS

After taking the conclusions that can be drawn from the main findings into consideration, it needs to be determined how those main findings presented in Chapter 5 are linked to the secondary objectives (see section 1.3.2) set for the study. These links are presented in Table 6.2.

**Table 6.2: Link between secondary objectives and main findings**

Secondary objectives	Main findings in Chapter 5
1. To identify the attributes consumers consider when selecting a store by conducting a literature review.	Used to compile questionnaire
2. To determine which store attributes black consumers in general consider when selecting a store selling casual wear.	4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13
3. To determine whether certain store attributes are considered more important than others to black consumers when selecting a store selling casual wear.	2 and 3
4. To determine the influence of demographic variables on the importance that black consumers place on store attributes they consider when selecting a store selling casual wear.	14, 15, 16 and 17

From Table 6.2 it is clear that the secondary objectives set for this study have been met. By means of the realised secondary objectives, the primary objective, namely to

determine the store attributes black consumers consider important when selecting a store selling casual wear, has been achieved.

## **6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

All research studies have limitations that influence the study. The following limitations were identified for this study:

- There was a lack of available literature on the store attributes consumers consider when selecting a store. Most research focused on store image and not necessarily on the store attributes that consumers consider. Furthermore, most studies on attributes were done in countries other than South Africa.
- Limited literature was available on black consumers from a South African perspective. Most of the available literature is based on African Americans. This made it difficult to gather information on South African black consumers, their purchasing decisions and what attributes they consider as important when selecting a store.
- Since a non-probability sampling method was used for this study, the results of this study cannot be generalised to the whole population, but were only representative of respondents who participated in the study.
- This study was restricted to only stores selling casual wear, indicating that the results are only applicable to this type of store.
- The study was only conducted in one area in South Africa (namely Soweto). This indicates that results are therefore limited to stores selling casual wear in this area and cannot be generalised to other geographic regions.

## **6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

From the conclusions and limitations of this study, the following recommendations can be made for future research:

- Future research could be conducted in other South African provinces to determine whether similarities exist between respondents from different geographic regions.

- Research could also be conducted with other population and age groups to determine whether differences or similarities can be observed between population and age groups in terms of the importance of store attributes when selecting a store.
- Future research may expand the scope of this study and include other retail types. This would enable similarities and differences to be identified in the retail industry in terms of the store attributes consumers consider when selecting a store.

## **6.7 CONCLUSION**

This chapter concludes the study, by firstly providing a brief overview of the study. It also presented the conclusions for this study regarding the store attributes that black consumers consider when selecting a store selling casual wear. The recommendations according to the objectives set for this study were also discussed as well as the link between the secondary objectives and the main findings of the study. Finally, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research were stated



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**APPENDIX A**  
**QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE STUDY**

Screening question: Ask the respondents their age:

Younger than 16	Thank the respondent and terminate interview
16 – 18	1
19 – 21	2
22 – 24	3
25 – 27	4
28 – 31	5
32 – 35	6
Older than 35	Thank the respondent and terminate interview

## Section A

Thinking of stores selling casual wear, please indicate how **important** each of the following attributes are to you when selecting a store selling casual wear, where 1 = not important and 5 = very important.

1.	Variety of styles of casual wear sold	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Variety of sizes of casual wear sold	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Variety of brand names sold	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Fashionable styles	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Price of casual wear	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Quality of casual wear	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Easy access to store entrance	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Ease of movement between products in the store	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Air-conditioning	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Availability of seats if you want to rest	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Availability of trolley or baskets to carry clothing	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Enough dressing rooms	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Full length mirrors in dressing rooms	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Privacy in dressing rooms	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Enough light in dressing rooms	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Easy access to store exit	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Availability of parking near entrance of store	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Access to public transportation near to store	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Convenient store hours	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Availability of discounts offered by store	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Clothing store close to home	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Clothing store close to work or school	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Availability of other clothing stores near this store	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Availability of casual wear advertised by store	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Enough check-out points	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Fast check-out points	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Enough salespeople to provide assistance	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Helpful salespeople	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Friendly sales people	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Salespeople have knowledge about the casual wear in store	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Free clothing alterations provided by store	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Lay-buy services	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Ability to order / buy clothing on-line (Internet)	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Sells cell phones and accessories	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Sells airtime	1	2	3	4	5

36.	Easy return policy of store (taking clothes back)	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Refunds (getting your money back) provided by store	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Availability of credit card facilities	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Availability of a store card	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Type of music playing in store	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Loudness of music playing in store	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Store smell	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Enough light in store	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Neat store appearance	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Clean store	1	2	3	4	5
46.	Window display of casual wear in store	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Clearly visible in-store advertisements	1	2	3	4	5
48.	In-store display of casual wear	1	2	3	4	5

## Section B: Demographic information

Select only one answer for each question

### 1. Gender

Female	1
Male	2

### 2. Population group

African	1
Asian	2
Coloured	3
White	4
Other (Specify):	5

### 3. Marital status

Single	1
Living with someone	2
Married	3
Divorced/separated	4
Widow/widower	5

### 4. Which mode of transportation to you most often use to reach clothing stores?

Walk	1
Bus	2
Taxi	3
Lift with others	4
Own car	5
Other (Specify):	6

### 5. How much, on average, do you spend on casual wear per month?

Less than R100	1
R100 – R250	2
R251 – R500	3
More than R500	4

**6. Highest level of education**

Primary school	1
High school	2
Diploma	3
Degree	4
Post graduate degree	5

**7. Which payment method do you use most often when purchasing casual wear?**

Cash	1
Cheque	2
Credit card	3
Debit card	4
Store card	5
Other (Specify):	6

**8. How often do you purchase casual wear?**

Only when needed	1
Weekly	2
Monthly	3
Three times a year	4
Twice a year	5
Once a year	6
Other (Specify):	7

**9. Which of the following is most important to you when buying casual wear?**

Variety offered	1
Price	2

**10. Which of the following is most important to you when buying casual wear?**

The store at which you buy casual wear	1
Brand names of casual wear	2

**APPENDIX B:  
ASSISTANCE IN STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**





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Statistical Consultation Service

Tel: (018) 299 2018

Fax: (018) 299 2557

14 April 2010

To whom it may concern

Re: Dissertation B Cooper, student number: 12793256

We hereby confirm that the Statistical Consultation Service of the North-West University has analysed the data and assisted with the interpretation of the results.

Kind regards

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'J W Breytenbach', written over a horizontal line.

Mrs J W Breytenbach (MSc)

**APPENDIX C**  
**DETAILED EXPOSITION OF STATISTICAL VALUES**

Table 5.4: A cross-tabulation between respondents' gender and their spending on casual wear

		Spending				Total
		Less than R100	R100-R250	R251 – R500	More than R 500	
Gender	Female	29 8.0%	141 39.1%	115 31.9%	76 21.1%	361 100.0%
	Male	9 6.0%	51 33.8%	54 35.8%	37 24.5%	151 100.0%
Total		38 7.4%	192 37.5%	169 33.0%	113 22.1%	512 100.0%

Table 5.4 a: A cross-tabulation between respondents' gender and their spending on casual wear

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.475 <sup>a</sup>	3	.480
Likelihood Ratio	2.500	3	.475
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.201	1	.138
N of Valid Cases	512		

a. 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.21.

Table 5.4 b: A cross-tabulation between respondents' gender and their spending on casual wear

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by	Phi	.070	.480
Nominal	Cramer's V	.070	.480
N of Valid Cases		512	