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# The Convenience Orientation of Services Consumers: An Empirical Examination

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THE CONVENIENCE ORIENTATION OF SERVICES  
CONSUMERS: AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION

by

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## ABSTRACT

### THE CONVENIENCE ORIENTATION OF SERVICES CONSUMERS: AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION.

Patricia Kramer Voli  
Old Dominion University, 1998  
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The growth of the convenience industry suggests that time-scarce consumers represent an important potential target market for firms that offer time and/or effort saving attributes in their product offerings. The research contained herein addresses a gap in the marketing literature by examining a proposed series of relationships involving household expenditures for "convenient services." These proposed relationships were captured in a "Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption" which synthesized the various existing theoretical conceptualizations relating to convenience consumption and the number of factors said to influence consumers' convenience orientation. Specifically, this study sought to profile the convenience oriented services consumer by examining the relationship between nine demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff variables and the consumers' convenient service orientation, or "CSO," as it is reflected by the dollar amount paid for convenient services (from an inventory of convenient services) over a six month period. For the purposes of this research, convenient services are those services which possess time-saving and/or effort-reducing attributes that represent an alternative to the consumers' own

time and effort.

Data were gathered via a mail questionnaire distributed to a consumer panel. Reliability of the scales used in this research was assessed by calculating Coefficient Alphas. Confirmatory factor analysis and hypothesis tests were used to assess validity of these scales. The data collected were then examined for assumption violations. Hypotheses were investigated using regression analyses.

The profile of the convenience oriented services consumer which emerged in this study is that married, home-owning households with higher expenditures on convenient services (higher levels of LOGCSO) had older husbands; a greater leisure activity level of the household head; a lower value-consciousness score of the household head; and a greater total household pre-tax 1995 income. Expenditures on convenient services were not significantly associated with the number of hours worked per year by the wife; the number of hours worked per year by the husband; the number of persons in the household aged six years and over; the number of persons in the household aged five and younger; the role overload score of the household head; or the individual statements of credit behavior and credit attitude.

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## DISSERTATION

### THE CONVENIENCE ORIENTATION OF SERVICES CONSUMERS: AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION

#### CHAPTER ONE

#### INTRODUCTION

##### Problem Statement

The growth of the convenience industry suggests that goods and services which possess convenience attributes are in demand by time-scarce consumers (Benway et al. 1987; Berry 1979; Etgar 1978; Fram and DuBrin 1988). As this segment of customers continues to grow, it represents an important potential target market to firms which offer time and/or effort saving attributes in their product offerings. In as much as the focus of a market orientation is on the creation of superior value for the customer and consequently superior performance for the firm, there is a strategic imperative to understand the needs and wants of target markets (Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Levitt 1980; Narver and Slater 1990). Indeed, it is only through understanding the needs and wants of the customers that a firm is able to provide value to them through increasing benefits, decreasing costs or through continuously providing them with an appropriately augmented product. Consequently, there is an important strategic marketing imperative to understand the segment of convenience-oriented consumers.

The proposed research is based upon the premise that the convenience construct incorporates at least two dimensions: a time-saving dimension and an effort-saving dimension. As such, products which possess convenience attributes provide value to their customers through their inherent abilities to decrease the time and/or effort costs of consumers. In this examination of convenient services, services which exhibit the highest level of time and effort reducing attributes are proposed here to be services that represent an alternative to the consumer's own time and effort (Anderson and Shugan 1991; Brown 1990; Lovelock 1984). Consequently, "convenient services" represent substitutes for the average consumer's ability to "do it themselves," and thereby provide customer value by decreasing both the consumer's time and effort costs.

It is believed that this research will make a contribution toward understanding the consumer's preference for, or disposition toward, convenient services, i.e., the consumer's "convenience orientation." The stated purpose of this research, therefore, is to examine the variables associated with household expenditures for "convenient services." Understanding the characteristics of convenience-oriented consumers will enable marketers to more precisely segment markets and develop specialized market offerings which are tailored to better satisfy the needs of this growing services segment.

### Convenience Defined

It is often helpful to begin a discussion of a concept with a definition of its common or popular usage. The American Heritage Dictionary (1992) has variously defined convenience (noun) as "the quality of being suitable to one's comfort, purposes, or needs" and as "something that increases comfort or saves work." Convenient (adj.) has been defined as "easy to reach; accessible" and "suited or favorable to one's comfort, purpose, or needs".

In as much as marketers continually strive to satisfy the needs, purposes and comfort of their target markets, it seems that marketers should, by definition, continually strive to make their goods and services "convenient" and enhance the "convenience" perceptions consumers have for their goods and services. It becomes important, therefore, that the concept of convenience be more fully explored and understood by marketing theorists and marketing practitioners.

### Problem Background and the Convenience Construct

A great deal of confusion within the marketing literature revolves around the multiple uses and operationalizations of this term "convenience." Early marketing definitions of the term often focused on the "easy to reach" or "accessible" dimensions referred to in the dictionary. Such a distribution dimension of convenience was

proposed by Copeland (1923) who referred to the amount of time and effort expended in acquiring a product. Specifically, Copeland (1923) categorized retail merchandise into three groups based upon consumers buying habits: convenience goods, shopping goods and specialty goods. Copeland (1923) considered convenience goods as those goods purchased at easily accessible stores, with a small unit price, purchased at frequent intervals and are such that they would not justify buyers going far out of their way or incurring travel expense to procure a special brand. In addition, the consumer is familiar with these articles and as soon as the want is recognized, the consumer desires prompt satisfaction of the want. This original usage of the term "convenience" deals with ease of acquisition, convenient to purchase, requiring minimal physical or mental effort or time to acquire. Copeland's (1923) original use of the term, and the continued use of the term in this context, clearly assumes a distribution orientation.

"Convenience" as it will be used in the current study, however, is quite different. This study seeks to reexamine convenience in terms of the comfort-offering, work saving and time saving aspects that are commonly associated with the term. Consequently, in this study, convenience, refers to the inherent time-saving or effort-saving characteristics or attributes of a good or service and the disposition or orientation among consumers for products with these

attributes.

Taken this way, convenience will not be viewed from a distribution, acquisition, or accessibility perspective. Instead, it will be examined as a multidimensional construct that incorporates a time-saving and effort-saving dimension with respect to the attributes inherent in the product itself. In addition, consumers will exhibit a level of preference for products with this attribute by having a measurable "convenience orientation."

For purposes of the present research, the operationalization of convenience, as a two-dimensional construct, is detailed in Chapter Two (Review of Relevant Literature). Such an operationalization is similar to that originally proposed by Anderson (1971b) in part two of his definition where he considered convenience-oriented consumption as consumption that "(1) satisfies some immediate want or need and (2) releases time or energy or both for alternative uses" (p. 179, emphasis added). In addition, by viewing convenience from this perspective, this operationalization: 1) recognizes the multidimensionality of the construct; 2) incorporates the two dimensions most often cited in the literature, i.e., time-saving and effort-saving (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972; Anderson and Shugan 1991; Brown 1989, 1990; Bellante and Foster 1984; Douglas 1976; Reilly 1982; Schaninger and Allen 1981; Strober and Weinberg 1977, 1980; Yale and Venkatesh 1986); and 3) continues the

tradition of empirical examination, begun by Anderson (1969) and more recently revived by Anderson and Shugan (1991), which has recognized the importance of the construct and has evaluated convenience in terms of time and/or effort reduction.

### The Convenience Industry

A number of factors have been identified as contributing to the development of a convenience orientation among consumers. Primary among these factors is the time-scarcity of consumers (see Chapter Two). Robinson (1991) reports that many Americans now value time at least as highly as they value money. American Demographics (1992) reports that more people are increasingly using time-saving services and behaviors than in the past, just to keep up with their commitments. Because the time crunch has turned into what Business Week terms a "time famine," the convenience industry has been accelerating and competition has become more intense (Benway et al. 1987). Faith Popcorn, head of a New York marketing consultancy, estimates that some consumers will pay as much as \$100 an hour for convenience (Benway et al. 1987). In order to compete, even industry leaders have sought to make themselves increasingly convenient. "Every convenience provider is out to prove that he or she can do something faster -- and better -- than anyone else" (Benway et al. 1987, p. 94).



Convenience has increasingly been recognized as a salient product attribute and as a basis for obtaining competitive advantage. O'Shaughnessy (1987) considered buying time and minimizing (unpleasant) effort to be key benefits of using convenient products. He suggested that consumers make product choice decisions partly based upon convenience and views convenience as an important extrinsic preference factor used by consumers in their deliberation with respect to rival brand selection.

Gross and Sheth (1989) provided support for the popular notion that consumers are becoming more convenience oriented. Their research indicated that advertising appeals were increasingly emphasizing time-oriented concerns and product benefits. Intuitively, therefore, as the value of time increases, so does the consumer preference for time-saving or convenience-offering products.

Only recently has the impact of this increased intensity of preference for convenience been empirically examined. Anderson and Shugan (1991) empirically demonstrated the important role that convenience, as a product attribute, can have on competitive product positioning. Specifically, they found that the increased consumer preference for convenience may be responsible for poultry producers' success in competing with beef producers. The authors propose that this success may have been due to the poultry producers' superior ability to reposition their product mix in response to this

preference.

### Relevance to Marketing

From the inception of the marketing concept, marketers have argued that firms must embrace a market orientation. The market orientation is defined as "the organizational culture that most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviors for the creation of superior value for buyers and, thus, continuous superior performance for the business" (Narver and Slater 1990, p. 20). Indeed, recent research illustrates the important impact a market orientation can have on business profitability and firm performance (i.e., Narver and Slater 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993).

Narver and Slater (1990) suggested that there are only two ways to create value for buyers: by increasing benefits in relation to costs and by decreasing buyers' costs in relation to benefits to the buyer. However, implicit in this value creation is the customer orientation or the "sufficient understanding of one's target buyers to be able to create superior value for them continuously (or, per Levitt 1980, to create continuously an 'augmented product')." (Narver and Slater 1990, p. 21).

It is proposed here that the convenience construct is worthy of study because it is an important product attribute to many American consumers and because it is an important means of creating buyer value. Indeed, as consumers place

higher and higher values on their time and effort, they demand higher and higher levels of convenience in the products they purchase (e.g., O'Shaughnessy 1987). A key benefit of convenience, as a product attribute, is its ability to reduce the time and energy costs of consumers (Anderson and Shugan 1991; Brown 1990; O'Shaughnessy 1987; Yale and Venkatesh 1986). As Anderson (1971b) and others have demonstrated, marketing strategy and marketing management will be enhanced if demographic correlates of convenience-oriented behavior can be identified. Improved segmentation strategies and a better understanding of consumer wants and needs, therefore, are also possible.

#### Scope of the Study

##### --Statement of Purpose

A great deal of the past "convenience" research has assumed that the convenience attributes of a good or service were well-defined and universally understood (e.g., Douglas 1976; Reilly 1982; Strober and Weinberg 1977, 1980). Indeed, some of these researchers recognized that the treatment of the construct in such a way may have been flawed (Bellante and Foster 1984; Reilly 1982). As a result, the multidimensionality of the convenience construct is gaining proponents, but has received limited research attention (Anderson and Shugan 1991; Brown 1989, 1990; Yale and

Venkatesh 1986). Apart from the operationalization issues, the focus of much of the previous research has been on convenience foods, convenience goods, or on time-saving durables (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972; Bellizzi and Hite 1986; Douglas 1976; Marple and Wissmann 1968; Morganosky 1986; Reilly 1982; Strober and Weinberg 1977, 1980). With few exceptions, the amount of marketing research attention that has been spent on examining convenience with respect to services is limited (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991).

The appropriateness of such treatment of this important marketing construct should be addressed when identifying critical research gaps in marketing. If convenience, as a consumer orientation, as a good/service attribute, or as an area of study critical to understanding consumer marketing, is ignored simply because it is complex, the field of marketing and, in particular, services marketing, may be left unequipped to more fully understand, predict and influence firm performance. The primary purpose behind this research, therefore, is to examine a proposed series of relationships involving household expenditures for "convenient services."

In order to achieve this research purpose, it is necessary to operationally define "convenient services." For the purposes of this study, a "convenient service" is operationally defined as a time-saving and/or effort-saving service which substitutes for the average consumer's ability

to perform the service themselves. In order to conduct the proposed research, an inventory of convenient services has been constructed which is composed of services that are high on either or both the effort-reducing aspects of service and the time-saving aspects of utilizing the service (see Exhibit 3.1). As discussed in Chapter Three, these services meet the criteria of being convenient in that these services are high on the execution dimension of convenience and thereby save time or effort by replacing users' need to perform the service themselves (Anderson and Shugan 1991; Brown 1990; Lovelock 1984).

Services have been chosen over goods for this research for three reasons. First, it is believed that because services are typically high on the execution dimension, they have the potential to offer consumers the ultimate convenience (Brown 1990). A service performance requires minimal mental or physical effort, requires very little or no time expenditure on the part of the buyer, and is therefore high in both the time-saving and effort-saving dimensions of convenience (Brown 1990). As Anderson and Shugan (1991) suggest, "from the consumer's perspective, more convenience literally implies subcontracting out services, activities, and processing to a more efficient producer rather than invest individual time and effort to perform these steps at home." (p 221). Thus, it is an underlying assumption of this research that certain "convenient" services possess appreciable levels

of the convenience attribute.

The second reason for examining services rather than goods, is because of the growing service economy in the United States and other developed nations. The Economist (1993) reports that the economies of most developed countries are becoming service-based and that service now accounts for 72% of the United States gross domestic product. From an employment perspective, as U.S. service industries replace manufacturing industries as generators of wealth, many manufacturing workers will seek employment in the service sector (Raynor 1992). In fact, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics anticipates that service jobs will be the center of job growth in the next 13 years (Franklin 1993). This shift in employment, however, is expected to have far-reaching consequences. Fearing that "widespread impoverishment of Americans" will result as this shift to lower wage service jobs occurs, Raynor (1992) has suggested that the American standard of living will be at risk unless the management practices and the productivity levels of service industries improve.

If, indeed, the American standard of living is dependent on improved service productivity and management (Raynor 1992), a better understanding of the services consumer, in the form of a relatively comprehensive profile of the convenience-oriented services consumer, is warranted. Better knowledge of the customer would enhance service business decision making

within the emerging service-economy environment.

The third reason for examining services is that, as crucial as services are to the economy, convenient service usage has received relatively little marketing research attention. The few marketing studies which have examined relationships associated with expenditures for convenient or time-saving services have limited the type and number of variables to those available from the Bureau of Labor Statistics Consumer Expenditure Survey or have used primarily economic/household production-based variables (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). In addition, these few marketing studies have essentially chosen services that were assumed to be convenient, but provided no empirical, theoretical, or operational support for that assumption.

The marketing studies that have been conducted in the area of services are also becoming dated in that they utilized data from the early 1970s or, most recently, the early 1980s (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). Additional research in this area would be useful. A number of demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff variables that have been suggested by the literature or demonstrated to be significant with respect to convenience foods, goods, or durables, have not yet been examined with respect to services. The demographic, lifestyle, economic and technological factors which Etgar (1978) and

others identified as influencing convenience consumption or time scarcity continue to alter consumer behavior and create dramatic changes in consumption patterns. The compounded consumption impacts of continued societal changes, therefore, may be even more profound today than they were in the early 1970s or even the early 1980s.

#### --Description of Variables

As discussed in Chapter Two (Review of Relevant Literature), previous research indicates that many variables contribute to convenience consumption by American consumers. In order to develop a relatively comprehensive profile of the convenience-oriented services consumer, this study examines consumer convenient service orientation and its association with nine separate demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff variables. Detailed in Chapter Three (Methodology), the nine variables under investigation include: the wife's employment; the husband's employment; family size; the number of young children; role overload of household head; household head leisure activity level; value consciousness; total household income; and credit usage. The convenient service orientation of consumers (CSO) is measured by totaling the dollar expenditures, over a six-month period, on services contained in a specially-constructed inventory of convenient services (ICS). The construction of the ICS, which operationalizes CSO, is explained in Chapter Three



(Methodology) .

Certain variables investigated in the current study required the use of special measures or scales. These measures included the Reilly (1982) Role Overload scale; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton's (1990) Value Consciousness scale and; Hawes and Lumpkin's (1984) Credit Usage scale. Discussions of the use, validity and reliability of these measures and scales are detailed in Chapter Three (Methodology) .

#### --Contributions

Previous research examined convenience consumption as a unidimensional construct. An important premise of the current research is that convenience has at least two dimensions: time-savings and/or effort-savings. It is believed that the operationalization proposed here will more thoroughly capture the essence of the construct than has been possible with a unidimensional, time-saving, operationalization and that it will spur future research into finer delineations of the convenience construct.

Another important contribution of this research is the enhancement of service providers' understanding of the convenience-oriented consumer. Understanding consumers' time and energy costs are an important step in creating buyer value. Narver and Slater (1990) suggest that there are only two ways to create value for buyers: by increasing benefits in

relation to costs and by decreasing buyers' costs in relation to benefits to the buyers. A key benefit of convenience, as a product attribute, is its ability to reduce the time and energy costs of consumers (Anderson and Shugan 1991; Brown 1990; O'Shaughnessy 1987; Yale and Venkatesh 1986). Therefore, greater understanding of the convenience orientation of consumers may enable providers of convenient services to create increased buyer value and thereby improve their firms' performance (Narver and Slater 1990; Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Previous researchers have demonstrated that marketing strategy and marketing management will be enhanced if convenience, as a product attribute, can be more clearly understood and if demographic correlates of convenience-oriented behavior can be found (Anderson 1971b; Anderson and Shugan 1991).

Another major contribution of this research is the integration of previous convenience research with economic choice theory, recreation and leisure literature, services marketing and sociological literatures, in application to a services marketing problem. Building upon existing knowledge and theory, a conceptual framework of convenient services consumption is proposed. Based on this framework, hypotheses are developed to empirically test previous relationships and to examine new research questions and potential relationships. Very little services research has been conducted which examines consumer role overload, consumer value consciousness,

consumer leisure activity level or consumer credit usage. The results of this research, therefore, will contribute to the existing body of knowledge which examines the similarities and differences between goods and services marketing issues.

THE CONVENIENCE ORIENTATION OF SERVICES CONSUMERS: AN  
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CHAPTER TWO  
REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Overview

While the amount of literature dealing with the convenience orientation of consumers is limited, the convenience orientation of services consumers has received even less research attention. The following examination of the literature is therefore broadened to include a number of research areas. First, the evolution of convenience is traced and support for the proposed operationalization of the convenience construct is documented. Second, the factors which are attributed to the desire for convenience are reviewed. Third, a number of consumer manifestations of the desire for convenience are summarized. Fourth, a conceptual framework of convenient services consumption is proposed which links the various existing theoretical conceptualizations related to the convenience construct. Fifth, and finally, the factors that have been found to be associated with a convenience orientation with respect to convenience foods, convenience goods, time-saving durables, and services are examined.

## Convenience Construct Evolution

As indicated in Chapter One, early marketing definitions of the term "convenience" primarily focused on the amount of time and/or effort used in acquiring retail merchandise and as a way of classifying consumer goods (e.g., Copeland 1923). For the purposes of the current investigation, however, convenience will not be viewed from such a distribution, acquisition or accessibility perspective. Instead, it will be examined as a multidimensional construct that incorporates a time-saving and effort-saving dimension with respect to the attributes inherent in the product itself. In addition, this research will argue that consumers will exhibit a level of preference for products with this attribute and therefore have a measurable "convenience orientation."

Convenience researchers have increasingly recognized that products have the ability to save time and/or effort. Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972), one of the first researchers to examine convenience, proposed that convenience-oriented consumption is motivated by a desire to: 1) satisfy some immediate want or need and 2) release time or energy for alternative uses. Part one of his definition is consistent with the "convenience good" categorization of Copeland (1923) in that there is immediate satisfaction of a want or need. However Anderson's expanded definition has paved the way for a broader interpretation of convenience as a product/service attribute and as a consumer orientation. Specifically,

Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972) examined consumers' convenience orientation as evidenced in their patterns of convenience food consumption and their use or ownership of convenience-oriented appliances and accessories.

Although Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972) specifically recognized both the time-saving and energy-saving motivations associated with convenience consumption, some subsequent researchers have examined convenience as primarily a time-saving attribute. Increasingly, however, these researchers have recognized that such unidimensional operationalizations may be flawed. Reilly (1982), for example, considered poor measurement of the convenience construct to be a possible explanation of his inability to explain a great deal of variance in ownership of time-saving durables and variance in convenience food use. Due to the weak support found for his hypotheses which explored the relationship between role overload and durable ownership and convenience food purchases, Reilly (1982) was among the first to point out the potential problems with the operationalization of the convenience construct:

It may be that the measure of convenience consumption used in this and similar research is not particularly sensitive. Individuals may or may not use the measured convenience foods for a number of reasons other than a desire to save time (Reilly 1982, p. 416).

Bellante and Foster (1984) also hinted at operationalization problems in their summary and conclusions:

An important qualification concerns the precision of the dependent variables [expenditures on specific services] used in this study. While all the dependent variables are intended to represent services for which demand would be positively affected by the value of time, such classification is not always clearcut. For example, meals away from home generally use less time but cost more money than meals prepared at home, but this is not always the case.... A meal at an elegant restaurant... consumes more money and perhaps more time than a meal prepared at home...Although beauty parlor services may be more convenient than equivalent home beauty care (e.g., home permanents), it is not clear whether less time is consumed (p. 706).

Yale and Venkatesh (1986) revived the call for more research with respect to the construct of convenience in consumer research. They argued for the multidimensionality of the concept and proposed that the rise of the service economy requires the systematic examination of convenience as a "primary salient product attribute" (p. 403). In their review of the convenience literature, Yale and Venkatesh (1986) argued against its overwhelming operationalization as being equivalent to time-saving or time-buying. Such unidimensional operationalizations, they contended, may be the reason why so many of the empirical examinations (particularly those focusing on working versus non-working women) had found few significant differences (e.g., Douglas 1976; Reilly 1982; Schaninger and Allen 1981; Strober and Weinberg 1977, 1980).

Yale and Venkatesh (1986) pointed out that the issue of convenience is important to marketing in two ways. First, it

is important with respect to recognizing and understanding the consumer's preference for convenience (i.e., their convenience orientation). Second, it is important because of the resultant demand for the convenience attribute in products. Consequently, the authors proposed three areas of investigation: 1) studies should utilize strata representing all possible household types (singles, marrieds, single parent, etc.) in order to reveal significant differences, not just working vs. nonworking women; 2) the "fuzzy" delineations of "convenience goods" should be made more clearly in that previous "operationalizations measure the dependent variables in a very ambiguous, nonsensitive manner" (p. 404); and 3) a better theoretical exploration of the convenience construct should be undertaken in that the "simple unidimensionality of convenience as a time saving [one] has proven too ambiguous for successful empirical study" (p. 404).

Yale and Venkatesh (1986) offered a preliminary, untested operationalization of convenience. They proposed that there are six variables which influence an individual's convenience preference: temporal/economic, spatial, psychological, sociological, philosophical and situational variables (see Exhibit 2.1). Temporal/economic represents the scarcity of time, the monetary value and the resultant opportunity cost of time. Spatial is considered an efficiency variable, where being at the right place at the right time represents a consumer preference. The psychological



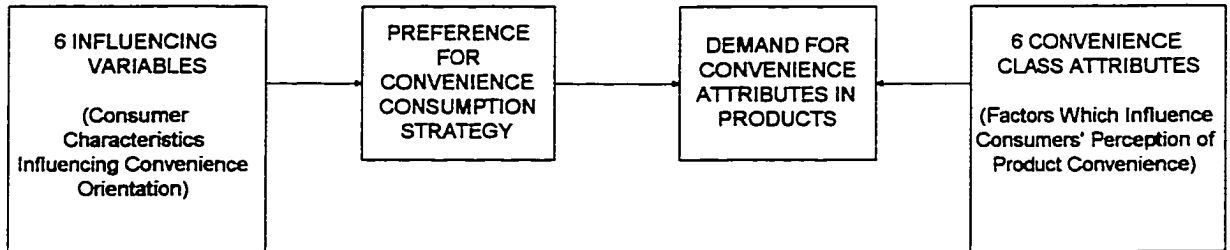
variable includes the values, personality, opinions, attitudes, abilities and preferences of the consumer. The sociological dimension considers the role that reference groups, social class, race and cultural norms and values have on convenience consumption. The philosophical dimension includes the consumer's philosophy of life. The authors proposed that this dimension transcends apparent cultural norms and personal values. The situational variable suggests that the consumer's perception and need for convenience may vary in different usage situations (particularly time-constrained situations, but also purchase situation). The authors concluded that:

the lack of empirical evidence supporting the simple singular time savings notion of convenience implies that the construct is more complex, with a number of variables interacting to determine the individual's need for and perception of convenience. Convenience apparently is many things to many people and it may vary among, and within, individuals along the variables just outlined. (Yale and Venkatesh 1986, p. 405).

Yale and Venkatesh (1986) also proposed a list of factors or convenience attributes that the consumer may perceive as making a product "convenient." The factors were grouped into six classes of convenience: time utilization, accessibility, handiness, appropriateness, portability, and avoidance of unpleasantness (see Exhibit 2.1). Time utilization deals with the traditional unidimensional

**EXHIBIT 2.1  
MULTIDIMENSIONALITY OF CONVENIENCE**

**Adapted From: Yale and Venkatesh (1986)**



1. Economical / Temporal
2. Spatial
3. Psychological
4. Sociological
5. Philosophical
6. Situational

1. Time Utility
2. Accessibility
3. Handiness
4. Appropriateness
5. Portability
6. Avoidance of Unpleasantness

operationalization that has been included in previous research, that is, the time-saving/time-buying utility of a product. Accessibility deals with proximity of location, availability and flexibility of delivery. Handiness refers to effort-saving attributes or ease of production and flexibility of use. Appropriateness refers to fittingness to specific needs. Portability aspects permit the consumption of the product in any location desired. Avoidance of unpleasantness permits the consumer to forego an unenjoyable activity by having such activities performed by another. These classes are not considered to be mutually exclusive.

O'Shaughnessy (1987) apparently concurred with regard to the multidimensionality of the convenience construct. He argued that product choice involves deliberation on intrinsic and extrinsic preference criteria and that a key set of extrinsic preference criteria are those that concern the product's use (technical/performance criteria). Technical criteria include the product's core use, ancillary use and convenience-in-use functions. It is this third function which is of particular relevance here. Understanding this extrinsic factor is important in that competition among products is usually based on extrinsic preference factors (O'Shaughnessy 1987) and because:

consumers buy time by using brands that are more labor saving, easy or pleasant to use, or [are] in some other way convenient. Recent examples are nail polish pens, shaving brushes with built-in lather, and toothpaste pumps (which consumers seem

willing to buy at a 20% premium to avoid the 'tyranny of the twist-off cap'). In the U.S., the sales of household products that require hard effort or are unpleasant to use (e.g., toilet bowl cleaners that require scrubbing) are well down while sales of alternatives (e.g., cleansers that scrub with each flush) are up. Cleaning liquids for cleaning bathrooms, and so on are replacing cleaning powders because they are more pleasant to use. (O'Shaughnessy 1987, p. 11).

Brown (1989, 1990) also suggested that the construct of convenience had not been clearly defined and operationalized by marketers and should be viewed as a multidimensional construct. Citing previous research which often focused on convenience orientation by examining convenience goods/durables or convenience foods (e.g., Anderson 1969, 1972; Reilly 1982; Strober and Weinberg 1986) and common usage of the term as documented by dictionary definitions, Brown (1989, 1990) contended that convenience can more accurately be operationalized multidimensionally. He, like Yale and Venkatesh (1986), argued that the failure of previous marketing studies to find the hypothesized relationships between household characteristics and convenience orientation, for example, lies in the "assumption" that convenience is merely the time-saving attribute of a product and is, therefore, a unidimensional construct.

Brown (1989, 1990) pointed out that dictionary definitions consider convenience as anything that saves work, adds to one's comfort; is useful, handy or helpful, etc. As he noted, however, most marketing literature has concentrated

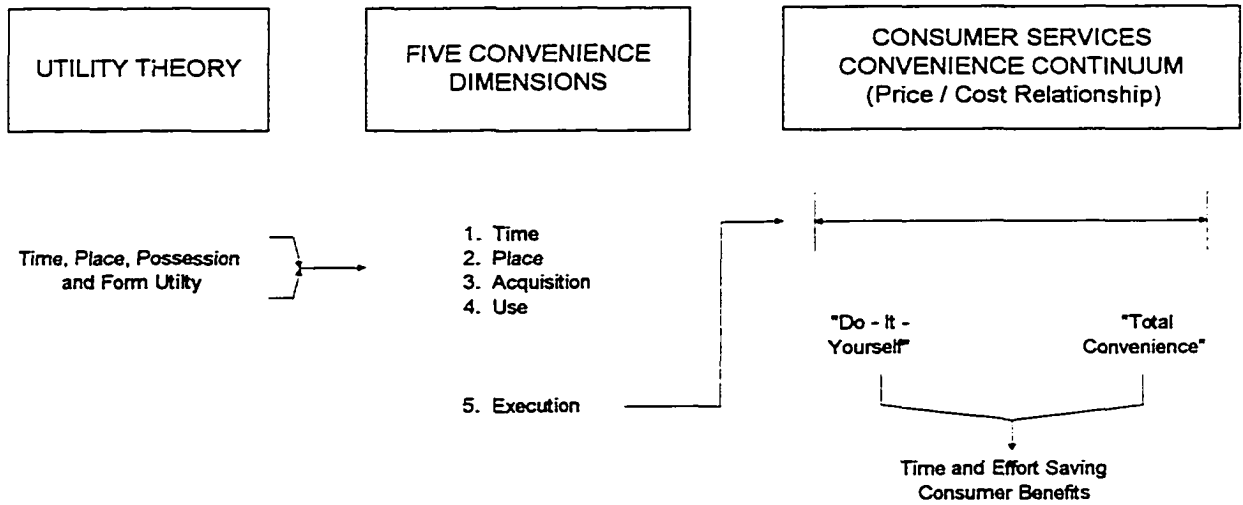
almost exclusively on the time-saving aspects and has ignored the other dimensions of the definition, such as the psychological, comfort-adding, aspects of convenience.

Arguing that a number of the "classes" depicted in the Yale and Venkatesh (1985) convenience conceptualization are often ambiguous, difficult to measure and not driven by any theory, Brown (1989, 1990) conceptualized five dimensions of convenience (see Exhibit 2.2): 1) the "time" dimension relates to providing a good or service at a time that is "convenient" to the customer; it does not relate to time-saving aspects of a good or service; 2) the "place" dimension refers to the provision of products or services in a place that is convenient; 3) the "acquisition" dimension deals with making purchase of the product or service easier; 4) the "use" dimension involves making products easier for consumers to use; and 5) the "execution" dimension involves having someone else provide the product or service for the consumer.

Brown (1989, 1990) considered the first four dimensions to be derived from economic utility theory which considers the consumer's desire for time, place, possession and form utility and suggested that, in one sense, convenience is a summary variable for these four dimensions. To these four dimensions, Brown (1989, 1990) offers a fifth dimension, execution. This dimension involves having someone else provide the product or service for the consumer. It is within this dimension of convenience, Brown (1989, 1990) argued, that time-saving

**EXHIBIT 2.2  
MULTIDIMENSIONALITY OF CONVENIENCE**

Derived From : Brown (1990)



benefits are most prevalent.

Brown (1989, 1990) theorized that the execution dimension is linked to the consumer's willingness to pay for convenience. The author suggested Chemlawn or gourmet frozen dinners as examples of "consumers' willingness to pay for a higher level of 'preparation' of consumer products. Customers may be willing to 'contract out' all or portions of jobs they previously would have done themselves" (1989, p. 16). As Brown (1990) describes:

The ultimate convenient product/service would be available continuously (time) and everywhere (place) and would require almost no effort to acquire (possession) or use (form). The fifth dimension (execution), however, is different. The consumer can choose how much mental or physical effort he or she wishes to expend in obtaining a product or service (p. 55).

Brown's (1989, 1990) proposition of a continuum of convenience in the execution dimension represents a new and logical contribution to the convenience literature. He suggested that a service's position on a convenience continuum will run somewhere between the extremes of "do-it-yourself" and "total convenience," and that each location may have differing levels of time, place, use and acquisition convenience. Brown (1990) suggested that as a service's position moves higher in the level of convenience, the price charged (and the cost to the provider) would be expected to increase. He also proposed that the nature of the price/cost relationship may be altered as a service moves along this

convenience continuum.

Also implying a convenience continuum, Anderson and Shugan (1991) viewed convenience from the perspective of customization. They proposed that the relative level of convenience was a function of the number of tasks performed by the provider for the consumer. For a provider to increase the convenience level, more provider processing or service would be required. Less convenient products would receive less processing. This operationalization implies both the time-saving and effort-saving aspects of convenience that this paper proposes must be included for a product to be truly "convenient." As Anderson and Shugan (1991) explain:

The focus of our research is on products that provide 'value-added' convenience, such as frozen and microwave foods. Products which provide greater value-added convenience receive more processing or added services at the manufacturer level. Consequently, these products require less of a consumer's own time and effort relative to other products that might normally be employed in achieving the same final benefit (Reilly 1982)....Hence, the level of value-added convenience provided can be characterized both by the amount of service or processing a producer adds to a raw food product and by the corresponding reduction in the amount of individual time and effort that must be invested by the end user. From the producer's perspective, offering more convenience can be viewed as bundling extra services or adding levels of processing to the original raw materials. From the consumer's perspective, more convenience literally implies subcontracting out services, activities, and processing to a more efficient producer rather than invest individual time and effort to perform these steps at home (p 221, emphasis added).



### Convenience Operationalized

From the foregoing discussion, it can be concluded that the convenience construct must be operationalized appropriately if research in the area of convenience is to be meaningful. While both Brown (1989, 1990) and Yale and Venkatesh (1986) have proposed multidimensional operationalizations and others have suggested a range or continuum of convenience (i.e., Brown 1989, 1990; Anderson and Shugan 1991), little empirical work has been done to support such conceptualizations. Although five and six dimensions have been hypothesized to exist within the construct of convenience, they tend not to be mutually exclusive or well delineated (Brown 1989, 1990; Yale and Venkatesh 1986). Part of the problem is as Brown (1990) suggested; convenience conceptualizations are often ambiguous, difficult to measure and are not theory-driven. Unfortunately, the ambiguity and measurement difficulties also plague Brown's (1989, 1990) five proposed dimensions of convenience.

Given these drawbacks, an exploratory operationalization is proposed which considers only the time and/or effort-saving dimensions of convenience as a product/service attribute. Operationalizing the construct in recognition of at least these two dimensions will advance the current research beyond the unidimensional operationalization (i.e., time-saving only) and should satisfy some of the concerns that Brown (1989,

1990) and other researchers have raised.

One concern which is addressed by the two-dimensional operationalization is the time-saving versus effort-saving debate. Brown (1989, 1990) noted that "time-saving" may not be a separate dimension of convenience. He proposed that there are situations where saving time may be a by-product or benefit of a convenient service, but it may not be a characteristic of the service itself. In a case such as this, where saving time is not a benefit of the convenience of, say, a salon versus home permanent, then what is the nature of the convenience? Having someone else perm one's hair provides convenience of execution (Brown 1989, 1990), but does not necessarily save time (Bellante and Foster 1984). It is suggested here, that if a service is convenient, but does not save time, then it saves some form of effort. In the home vs. salon permanent example, the consumer is willing to add their drive time to the convenience equation in return for less unpleasant self-effort. It is proposed here that the more distasteful or unpleasant the effort that would have been required, the more willing the consumer is to participate in and pay for the exchange in anticipation of avoiding or reducing some disutility (Fram and DuBrin 1988; Widrick and Fram 1984). Such service exchanges complement the dictionary definition of convenience referred to by Brown (1989), in that they add to one's comfort or, at least, minimize the amount of discomfort. In addition, they recognize the "avoidance of

unpleasantness" dimension proposed by Yale and Venkatesh (1986) and the "easy or pleasant to use" attribute discussed by O'Shaughnessy (1987).

Additional support for the current examination of only these two dimensions of convenience is provided by the theoretical acceptance of these two dimensions of convenience in the multidimensional literature. The time-saving dimension is in keeping with the "time utilization factor" proposed by Yale and Venkatesh (1986) and the time-saving dimension is contained in Brown's (1989, 1990) "execution dimension" of convenience. This dimension is also consistent with the majority of convenience research which has dealt with convenience as time-saving only (e.g., Bellante and Foster 1984; Douglas 1976; Reilly 1982; Schaninger and Allen 1981; Strober and Weinberg 1977, 1980).

Inclusion of the effort-saving dimension into the present operationalization is also supported by the convenience literature. Effort-saving is equivalent to Yale and Venkatesh's (1986) "handiness" and/or "avoidance of unpleasantness" factors and would be consistent with Brown's (1989, 1990) "execution" and/or "use" dimensions. It was also considered part of the consumer's motivation for convenience consumption (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972) and as a final benefit sought by consumers of "value-added convenience" (Anderson and Shugan 1991).

In conclusion, the current investigation defines convenience as: the inherent time-saving and/or effort-saving characteristics or attributes of a good or service and the disposition or orientation among consumers for products with these attributes. This operationalization is similar to that originally proposed by Anderson (1971b) in part two of his definition where he considered convenience-oriented consumption as consumption that "(1) satisfies some immediate want or need and (2) releases time or energy or both for alternative uses" (p. 179, emphasis added). By viewing convenience from this perspective, this operationalization 1) recognizes the multidimensionality of the construct; 2) incorporates the two dimensions most often cited in the literature, i.e., time-saving and effort-saving (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972; Anderson and Shugan 1991; Brown 1989, 1990; Bellante and Foster 1984; Douglas 1976; Reilly 1982; Schaninger and Allen 1981; Strober and Weinberg 1977, 1980; Yale and Venkatesh 1986); and 3) continues the tradition of empirical examination, begun by Anderson (1969) and more recently revived by Anderson and Shugan (1991).

The previous discussion of the evolution and operationalization of the convenience construct was provided in order to give the concept of "convenience" more precise meaning. In order to gain a broader understanding of the concept, an examination of the factors which are attributed to the desire for convenience is required. Such factors are

detailed in the section which follows.

### Time Scarcity and Convenience

The growth in the demand for convenience as a product attribute has resulted from an increasing propensity for American consumers to view time as a scarce resource. According to Anderson (1971b), one of the first researchers to examine the convenience orientation of consumers, the post World War II period, with its higher levels of discretionary time and income, sparked the emergence of the American convenience-oriented consumer. As Anderson (1972) put it: "to a degree, convenience-oriented consumption represents a point of convergence between the coincidentally increasing affluence and time-consciousness of the contemporary consumer" (p. 50).

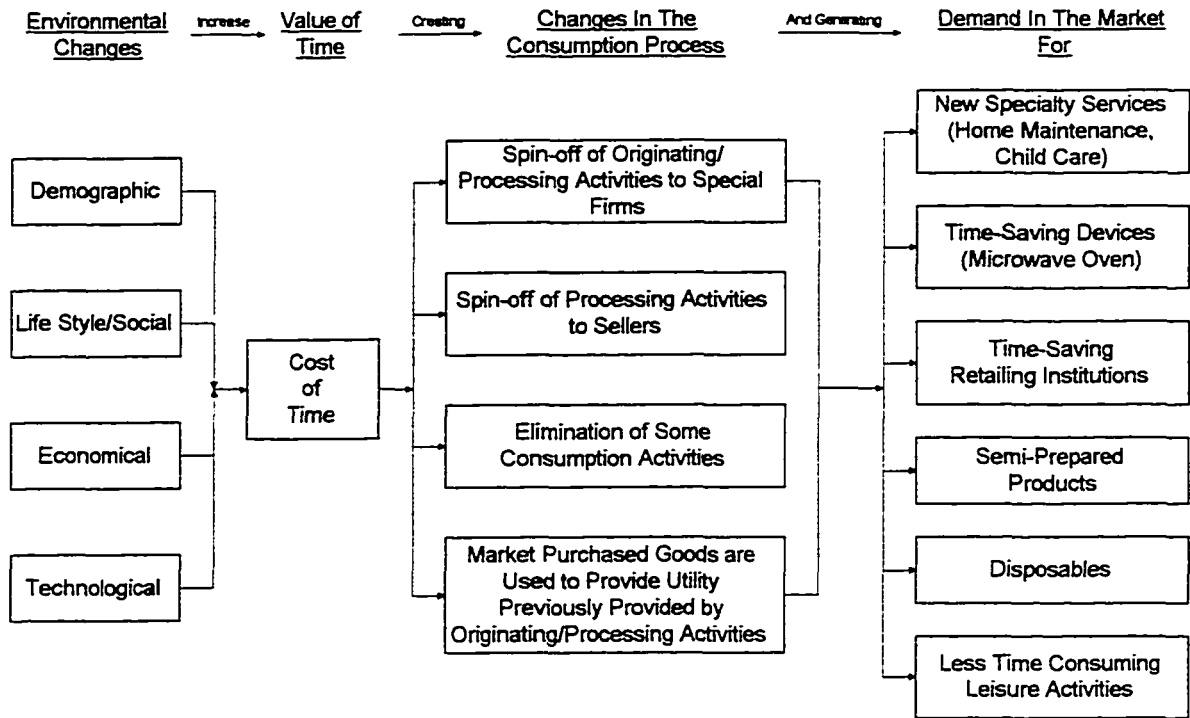
Various other researchers have attributed the desire for convenience to increasing time pressures and changing social environmental variables. Berry (1979) joined Linder (1970) and others who have challenged the leisure society concept and examined the influence that the poverty of time (rather than the abundance of time) have had on consumer behavior. Berry (1979) proposed that a number of developments have contributed to American time pressures. Primary among these, Berry (1979) argued, are the rising number of women in the labor force and the amount of time dedicated to physical and mental well-being which he terms the "me time movement." Together these factors have contributed to a perceived time scarcity and have

resulted in the development of a "time-buying" consumer.

Sharing the opinion of Berry (1979), Fram and DuBrin (1988) suggested three factors which have initiated consumers' quest for time-conserving products and services: 1) the steadily increasing participation of married females in the labor force; 2) an increasing attention to physical and mental self-improvement; and 3) an increase of professional workers' devotion to work as organizations downsize and adopt "lean and mean" philosophies which require more effort from their remaining workers.

Etgar (1978) also suggested that households have consistently increased the value they place on time, and proposed that, as a result, there has been a shrinkage in the amount of time that these households can devote to consumption. Relating to his extended model of consumer behavior which explicitly incorporates consumption behavior, Etgar (1978) theorized that there are at least four primary environmental changes which account for the increased time valuation and consumption time compression (see Exhibit 2.3). These environmental factors are: (1) demographic changes such as the growth of divorced households and an increase in women's participation in the labor force; (2) lifestyle changes, such as the perception of housework as undignified and non-fulfilling, and an increasing emphasis on leisure or hedonistic philosophies; (3) economic changes such as rising

**EXHIBIT 2.3**  
**A PROCESS APPROACH TO ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGES**  
**AND THEIR EFFECTS ON THE CONSUMPTION PROCESS**



Source : Etgar, Michael (1978), "The Household as a Production Unit," in *Research in Marketing*, Vol 1., Jagdish N. Sheth, ed. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, Inc., page 91.

levels of income which contribute to the rising opportunity costs of activities in the home; and (4) technological changes which reduce the time needed for consumption activities.

It is evident from the convenience literature that a number of socio-environmental changes have led Americans to view time as a scarce resource. This perspective represents an important driving force behind the American consumer's quest for convenience. Indeed, consumers in more developed societies tend to be more concerned with time than consumers in less industrialized/urbanized societies and are more likely to view time as a scarce resource (Berry 1979; Sheth 1983; Gross 1987).

Time is also considered a valuable resource. Becker (1965) incorporated time into the classic economic choice model recognizing that time acts as a constraint on choice in addition to income and price. He also suggested that the scarcity of time influences the demand for time-saving goods and services. As economic theory explains, no person, regardless of income or wealth, has more than 24 hours of this resource in any given day. Time cannot be stockpiled and vanishes constantly and irreversibly. Its value derives from its scarcity, and rational people will seek to maximize their utility given their time and income constraints. The key question therefore is: how will an individual allocate these resources to maximize their utility? While individuals may seek to increase their income resources (longer hours, raises,



investments, etc.), the only option open to an individual who wishes to "buy time" is to purchase goods or services from others which offer time-saving and/or effort-reducing attributes. That is, consumers must buy, and pay some price for, convenience.

#### Responding to Time Pressures, The Quest for Convenience

The growing emphasis on the value of time that has resulted from the increasing time scarcity has had two immediate effects. First, this emphasis has contributed to the growth of convenience-oriented consumers, and second, it has increased the demand in the market for products and services that possess time-saving and/or effort-saving attributes. Etgar's (1978) early work is particularly relevant in that it links these two effects (see Exhibit 2.3). He proposed that the increased importance attached to time may now make it the "ultimate factor" in consumption decisions for many households. He suggested that this emphasis on time may impact household consumption four ways: (1) consumers may spin-off originating/processing activities to special firms (e.g., child care, home maintenance, diaper services); (2) consumers may spin-off processing activities to sellers (e.g., catalog purchases, home deliveries, store assembly services; pre-prepared foods); (3) consumers may eliminate some consumption activities (wear non-ironed clothes, skip meals, not shave); and (4) consumers may use market-purchased goods

to replace originating/processing activities (e.g., frozen/microwave entrees, fast-foods, paper plates, disposable diapers, instant breakfasts, instant coffee).

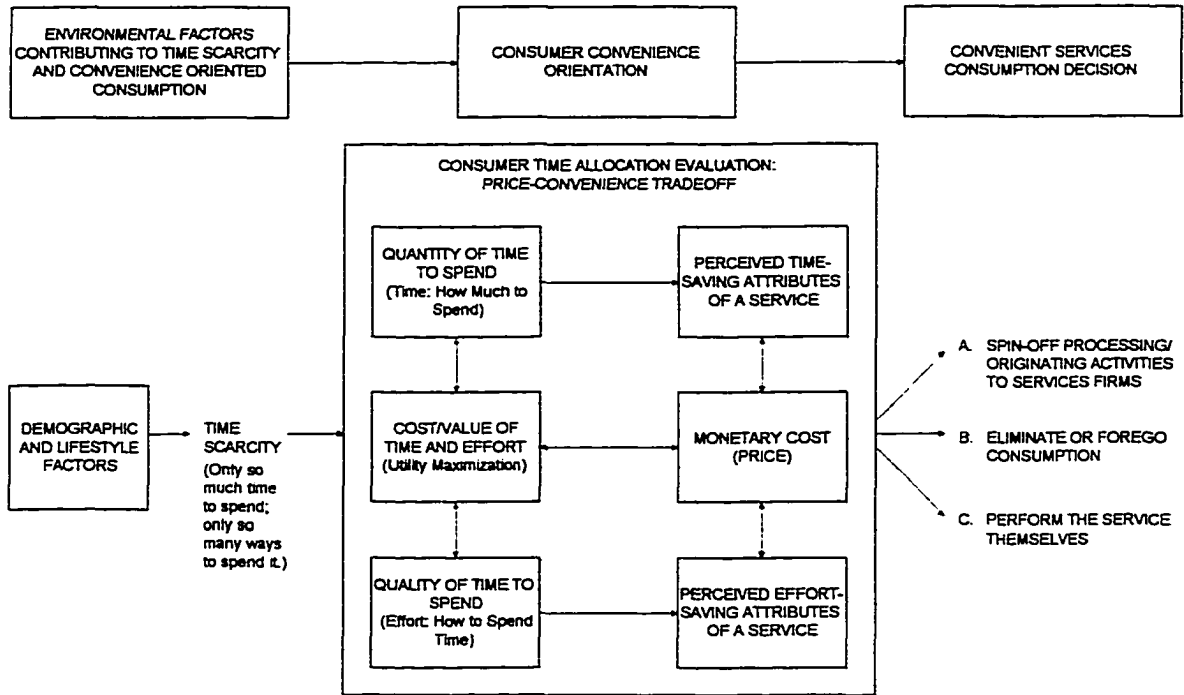
Similarly, Strober and Weinberg (1980) suggested five strategies that wives may use to economize on time: (1) substitute capital equipment for their nonmarket labor; (2) substitute the labor of others for their nonmarket labor (paid help or family); (3) reduce the quality or quantity of household production and/or use their own labor more efficiently; (4) decrease the time allocated to volunteer/community activities; and/or (5) decrease the time allocated to leisure and/or to sleep.

It is quite apparent that as these strategies are increasingly adopted by time-constrained families, the market demand for convenience products will also increase.

#### Toward A Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption

In an attempt to synthesize the various existing theoretical conceptualizations relating to the convenience consumption process and the number of factors said to influence consumers' convenience orientation, "A Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption," is diagrammed in Exhibit 2.4. Drawing heavily from the conceptualizations and theories of Becker (1965), Etgar (1978), Yale and Venkatesh (1986) and Brown (1990), this framework links three

**EXHIBIT 2.4  
A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF CONVENIENT SERVICES  
CONSUMPTION**



basic elements that have been hypothesized to impact convenience consumption: 1) the various environmental factors which contribute to time-scarcity and therefore convenience-oriented consumption; 2) the development of a consumer preference, disposition or "orientation" for services that reduce consumers' time and/or energy costs (i.e., services that possess inherent time-saving and/or effort reducing convenience attributes); and 3) the translation of this orientation into a measurable, overt behavior -- the consumption of convenient services.

The environmental portion of the conceptual framework specifies the demographic and lifestyle factors which have been considered to contribute to time valuation or time scarcity and impact the consumption process (Etgar 1978). These two factors capture such relevant societal trends as increased participation of women in the labor force; increased emphasis on self-improvement and physical well-being; and a re-dedication to work. Together, these trends have been proposed to contribute to time-scarcity and to the development of the "time-buying" consumer (Berry 1979; Fram and DuBrin 1988).

The convenience orientation portion of the framework attempts to capture the consumer time allocation process which necessitates a price-convenience tradeoff decision. Time is a valuable resource; its value derives from its scarcity. In as much as rational people will attempt to maximize their utility

given their time and income constraints (Becker 1965), the conceptual model suggests that consumers must make a time allocation evaluation based on the value that they place on their time and effort. In that Americans now value leisure time as highly as they value money and because "quality time" will become a status symbol as well as a luxury item in the 1990s, the quality of time spent becomes an important element of consumer decision making (Robinson 1991). Specifically, in a time-scarce environment, there is only so much time and only so many ways to spend it. Depending on the consumer's characteristics (Yale and Venkatesh 1986) and the environmental/situational forces at play, consumers will assess at least two things with respect to their time allocation: 1) the "quantity" of time (i.e., "how much time do I have to spend?") and 2) the "quality" of the time (i.e., "how do I want to spend my time?"). This first question addresses the value that consumers place on time and the time costs associated with a "do-it-yourself" approach to service provision. The second question addresses the value that consumers place on their effort, particularly the way they want to spend their time and the effort costs (unpleasantness or drudgery) associated with a "do-it-yourself" approach to service provision.

The consumer's need to balance their budget constraints with the values they place on the product and its attributes (even abstract product attributes) requires a set of tradeoffs

(Corfman, Lehmann and Narayanan 1991). Hence, the framework indicates a price-convenience tradeoff relationship which incorporates the consumer's perceptions of the time and/or effort reducing attributes of a service. At this stage, the consumer weighs these convenience aspects of the service against the monetary price for the service. Consumers then make an evaluation as to the total resource allocation which will maximize their overall utility and provide the most value. When consumers perceive a service to possess utility-maximizing convenience attributes (i.e., time-reducing and/or effort-reducing attributes), they may be willing to trade the higher monetary cost associated with the performance of the service by a provider in exchange for lowering the time and effort costs that would be associated with self-performance. This is the nature of the price-convenience tradeoff for services.

The third portion of the model details the three outcomes that are possible once the time allocation process is complete and the price-convenience tradeoff decision is reached. Here consumers may opt to: A) spin-off processing/originating activities to services firms; B) eliminate or forego consumption; or C) perform the service themselves (Brown 1990; Etgar 1978; Strober and Weinberg 1980). It is anticipated that consumers who have a high convenience orientation are those consumers who perceive the price-convenience tradeoff for services to be favorable given

their time, energy and income constraints. It will be the convenient service-oriented consumer, therefore, who would most often select option "A" and utilize convenient services.

In an effort to better understand this preference for convenience, it is useful to examine how these elements of the conceptual framework have been demonstrated to be associated with a convenience orientation. To this end, the framework is divided into two components. First, the environmental factors associated with convenience consumption are reviewed and, second, the price-convenience tradeoff factors associated with convenience consumption are explored.

#### Environmental Factors Associated With Convenience Consumption

The environmental portion of the conceptual framework specifies the demographic and lifestyle factors which have been suggested to contribute to time scarcity and convenience orientation (Etgar 1978). These two sets of factors capture such relevant societal trends as increased participation of women in the labor force and a re-dedication to work which have been proposed to contribute to time-scarcity and development of the "time-buying" consumer (Berry 1979; Fram and DuBrin 1988).

A number of demographic variables have been found to be associated with convenience-oriented consumption in previous research. They include: the wife's employment, the husband's employment and family composition (lifecycle). With respect

to lifestyle variables, role overload has increasingly been examined with respect to convenience consumption. Another lifestyle variable, family members' activities outside the home, represents a less-examined lifestyle variable that has been proposed to be associated with convenience consumption. The research relating to these demographic and lifestyle variables is presented below, and their association with convenience-related consumption is explored.

Demographic Variables: The Wife's Employment. As discussed at the beginning of this chapter, the bulk of convenience research has been conducted on the premise that convenience and time-saving are primarily equivalent constructs. Consequently, much of the existing research relating to convenience consumption appears to have been stimulated by theories of time allocation and household production (e.g., Becker 1965). According to Becker (1965), working wives will place a greater value on their time available for household work than will nonworking wives and, consequently, working wives will use less time and more purchased goods in household production. Based on the increased participation of married women in the labor force, the wife's employment has been examined frequently with respect to the purchase of time-saving durables, convenience goods and paid services (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972; Bellante and Foster 1984; Douglas 1976, Marple and Wissmann



1968; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991; Strober and Weinberg 1978, 1980) (See Exhibits 2.5 and 2.6). The results of this research have generally been inconclusive with respect to the relationship between the wife's employment and convenience consumption.

One of the earliest studies dealing with the subject of convenience good consumption dealt with convenience foods (Marple and Wissmann 1968). While some of the variables studied by these researchers had a mixed impact on convenience food purchases (such as wife's employment, family income, family involvement in community and social activities), they concluded that, in general, convenience food consumption is positively associated with the wife's employment.

Pointing to the scarcity of published research, Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972) appears to have been among the first to define and rigorously examine convenience-oriented consumption. His examination of consumers' convenience orientation focused on the patterns of convenience food consumption and on the use or ownership of convenience-oriented appliances and accessories. Based on his findings, certain variables were found to be more strongly associated with high- and low-convenience goods orientations than they were for high- and low-convenience foods orientations among Americans residing in suburban metropolitan areas. His examination of homemakers' employment outside the home and convenience consumption indicated that homemaker employment

EXHIBIT 2.5

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY AUTHOR)

Marple & Wissmann (1968)

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Convenience Food Consumption</u>
Wife's employment	+
Family Size	+
Household Members' Activities Outside the home	+

Anderson (1969)

	<u>High Vs Low Convenience Orientation for:</u>	
	<u>Foods*</u>	<u>Goods*</u>
Homemaker employment outside home	NS	
Household Member activities	NS	

Anderson (1971b)

Stage in family life cycle (oldest child pre-teen or younger)	S	S
Family Size (4-5 member)	S	S
Age of household head 25-40	S	S
Socioeconomic Status	NS	S
Occupation of Head of Household	NS	S
Education of Head of Household	S	S
Annual Family Income	NS	S

\*Variety and frequency of serving 52 convenience food items in last week and ownership of 50 convenience-oriented appliances and accessories.

EXHIBIT 2.5 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY AUTHOR)

Anderson (1972)

	<u>Discrimination</u>	
	<u>For Classes of:</u>	
	<u>Foods*</u>	<u>Goods*</u>
Type of Residence	S	S
Automobile Ownership	S	S
Geographic Division	S	S
Marital Status of Household Head	S	NS
Employment Status of Wife	NS	S

\*Variety and frequency of serving 52 convenience food items in last week and ownership of 50 convenience-oriented appliances and accessories.

Douglas (1976)

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Convenience Product Usage Frequency</u>
Price Consciousness	NS
Opinion Leadership	S
Female Role Perception	NS
Pride in Home	NS
Cooking Interest	NS
News/Reading Interest	NS
Personal Influence	NS
Personal Shopper	NS
Fashion Interest	NS
Optimism	NS
Wife's Education	S
Husband Occupation	S
Income	S
Number of Children	NS
Wife's Age	NS
Daily help	NS
Number of Cars	NS
Husband's Education	NS
Number of Rooms in Home	NS
Apartment	NS
Working Wife	NS

EXHIBIT 2.5 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY AUTHOR)

Strober and Weinberg (1980)

	<u>Purchase and/or Ownership of Labor-Saving Durables</u>
Wife's Employment	NS
Total Household Income	S
Family Lifecycle	S

Reilly (1982)

	<u>Convenience</u>	
	<u>Foods Served</u>	<u>Durables Owned</u>
Wife's Educational Level	-	
Family Social Status		NS
Wife's Earnings		+
Total Family Income		+
Role Overload	NS	+
Time Saving Durable Ownership	-	

Nickols and Fox (1983)

	<u>Convenience Product Usage</u>			<u>Purchased Convenience Service Usage</u>		
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>F</u>
Total Family Income	+	+	NS	+	+	+
Age of Younger Child	-	+	NS	NS	NS	-
Occupation Status of Husband	-	+	NS	NS	NS	NS
Wife's Hourly Employment	+	NS	+	NS	NS	+
Occupation Status of Wife	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	+
Urban Residence	NS	NS	+	NS	+	NS
Home-based Employment of Wife	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	-

- A = Disposable Diapers (days used in previous week)
- B = Restaurant Meals (number for 2 record days)
- C = Fast Food (number for 2 record days)
- D = Housecleaning (days used in previous week)
- E = Drycleaning/Laundry (days used in previous week)
- F = Child Care (hours in previous week)

EXHIBIT 2.5 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY AUTHOR)

Bellante and Foster (1984)

<u>Variables</u>	<u>5 Convenience Services</u> <u>Mean Dollar Expenditures</u>					<u>Total</u> <u>Services</u>
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>E</u>	
Family Income	+	+	+	+	+	+
Weeks Worked	+	+	NS	NS	NS	+
Part Time Employment	NS	NS	NS	-	NS	NS
Full Time Employment	+	+	NS	NS	NS	+
Family Size (Over 6 years)	NS	NS	-	-	NS	NS
Young Children (Under 6)	-	+	+	NS	-	+
Education of Wife:						
Some High School	+	NS	NS	+	NS	+
High School Graduate	+	NS	NS	+	+	+
Some College	+	NS	NS	+	+	+
College Graduate	+	NS	+	+	NS	+
Wife's Age 25-34	NS	+	NS	NS	+	+
35-44	+	NS	NS	NS	+	+
45-54	NS	NS	NS	+	+	+
55-64	NS	NS	+	+	+	+
Race (Black)	NS	NS	+	+	+	+
Race * Income	-	-	-	-	-	-
Homeownership - Owners	+	+	NS	+	+	+

A = Food Away From Home      D = Clothing Care  
 B = Child Care                      E = Personal Care  
 C = Domestic Services

Bellizzi and Hite (1986)

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Time Saving\Convenience</u> <u>Product Shopper</u>
Role Overload	+
Age	+
Number of Dependent Children	+

EXHIBIT 2.5 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY AUTHOR)

MORGANOSKY (1986)

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Discrimination Between</u> <u>Cost vs. Convenience-</u> <u>oriented Consumers</u>		
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Age	S	S	S
Household Income	S	S	S
Family Type	NS	S	S
Attitude toward Premarital Sex	NS	S	S
Quality versus Quantity Value	S	S	S
Fashion versus Function Value	S	S	S

A = Clothing                      B = Foods                      C = Household Equipment

SOBERON-FERRER AND DARDIS (1991)

5 Convenience Services and Mean  
Dollar Expenditure of Dual Earner Families

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>Total</u> <u>Services</u>
Unearned Income	+	NS	+	NS	NS	+
Wife's Hourly Wage	+	NS	+	NS	+	+
Hours Worked						
Per Year-Wife	+	+	NS	+	+	+
Husband's Hourly Wage	+	NS	NS	+	+	+
Hours Worked						
Per Year-Husband	+	NS	NS	+	+	+
Family Composition	NS	+	NS	NS	NS	+
Family Size	NS	+	NS	-	+	NS
Age - Wife	-	-	NS	NS	+	-
Education - Wife	+	-	+	+	+	+
Race of Husband-Black	-	NS	-	+	+	NS
Location of HH-Rural	-	-/+*	NS	-	-	-/+*
Homeownership-Renter	-	NS	NS	+	-	NS

A = Food Away From Home    B = Child Care    C = Domestic Services  
D = Clothing Care              E = Personal Care

\*Negatively associated with full time working wife households,  
positively associated with part time working wife households.

EXHIBIT 2.6

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY VARIABLE)

CONVENIENCE GOODS, FOODS, DURABLES:

Wife's Employment	Marple and Wissmann (1968) found a positive association; Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972) found it not significant for convenience foods and found it a significant discriminator between classes of convenience goods; Douglas (1976) found it not significant; Strober and Weinberg (1980) found it not significant; Nickols and Fox (1983) found a positive association with "hourly employment"; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "weeks worked" and "full time employment" to be positively associated with food away from home; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "wife's hours worked per year" to be positively associated with food away from home.
Family Size	Marple and Wissmann (1968) found a positive association; Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b) found it significant for convenience foods and goods; Douglas (1976) found "number of children" not significant; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "family size, over six years" to be not significant for food away from home; Bellizzi and Hite (1986) found a positive association with "number of dependent children" and convenience shopping; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) both "family size" and "number of young children" to not be significant for food away from home.
Stage in Family Life Cycle	Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b) found it significant; Strober and Weinberg (1980) found it significant.

EXHIBIT 2.6 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY VARIABLE)

CONVENIENCE GOODS, FOODS, DURABLES:

Age of Household Member	Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b) found "age of household head" significant for convenience foods and goods; Douglas (1976) found "wife's age" not significant; Nickols and Fox (1983) found "age of younger child" to be significant; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "young children under six" to be negatively associated with food away from home and "wife's age" to generally be not significant; Bellizzi and Hite (1986) found a positive association with convenience shopping; Morganosky (1986) found it significant; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found number of young children to be not significant and "wife's age" to be negatively associated with food away from home.
Outside Activities	Marple and Wissmann (1968) found a positive association; Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b) found it not significant for convenience foods.
Socioeconomic Status	Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b) found it significant for convenience goods, but not for convenience foods; Reilly (1982) found "family social status" not significant for time-saving durables owned.
Occupation	Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b) found "head of household occupation" not significant for convenience foods, but significant for convenience goods; Douglas (1976) found "husband occupation" significant; Nickols and Fox (1983) found "occupation status of husband" significant for convenience product usage, but found "occupation status of wife" not significant.



EXHIBIT 2.6 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY VARIABLE)

CONVENIENCE GOODS, FOODS, DURABLES:

- Education Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b) found "education of household head" significant for convenience foods and goods; Douglas (1976) found wife's education" significant, but found "husband's education" not significant; Reilly (1982) found "wife's educational level" negatively associated with convenience foods served; Bellante and Foster (1984) and Soberon Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "education of wife" to be positively associated with food away from home.
- Income Anderson (1969, 1971a, 1971b) found "annual family income" not significant for foods, but significant for goods; Douglas (1976) found "income" significant; Strober and Weinberg (1980) found "total household income" significant; Reilly (1982) found both "wife's earnings" and "total family income" to be positively associated with time-saving durables owned; Nickols and Fox (1983) found "total family income" to be positively associated with convenience product usage; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "family income" to be positively associated with food away from home; Morganosky (1986) found "household income" significant; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "unearned income," "wife's hourly wage" and "husband's hourly wage" each to be positively associated with food away from home.
- Role Overload Reilly (1982) found it positively associated with time-saving durables owned but not significant for convenience foods served; Bellizzi and Hite (1986) found it positively associated with convenience shopping.

EXHIBIT 2.6 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY VARIABLE)

Residence	Anderson (1972) found both "type of residence" and "geographic division" to be significant discriminators between both classes of convenience foods and between classes of convenience goods; Douglas (1976) found both "number of rooms in home" and "apartment dweller" not significant; Nickols and Fox (1983) found "urban residence" positively associated with fast food use; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "home ownership" positively associated with food away from home; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "home ownership (renter)" and "rural households" each to be negatively associated with food away from home.
Family Type	Anderson (1972) found "marital status of household head" a significant discriminator between classes of convenience foods, but not between classes of convenience goods; Morganosky (1986) found it significant for convenience foods and household equipment, but not for clothing.
Automobile Ownership	Anderson (1972) found it a significant discriminator Ownership between both classes of convenience foods and classes of convenience goods; Douglas (1976) found "number of cars" not significant.
Attitudes/ Values	Douglas (1976) found "opinion leadership" significant, "price consciousness" not significant, and "fashion interest" not significant; Morganosky (1986) found "fashion versus function value," "quality versus quantity value" and "attitude toward premarital sex" all significant for clothing, foods and household equipment.

EXHIBIT 2.6 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY VARIABLE)

CONVENIENCE SERVICES:

Income                    Nickols and Fox (1983) found "total family income" to be positively associated with housecleaning, drycleaning/laundry, and child care; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "family income" to be positively associated with child care, domestic services, clothing care, personal care and total services overall; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "unearned income" to be positively associated with domestic services and total services overall, they found that "wife's hourly wage" was positively associated with domestic services, personal care and total services overall, in addition they found that "husband's hourly wage" was positively associated with clothing care, personal care and total services overall.

Age                        Nickols and Fox (1983) found "age of younger child" to be negatively associated with child care and to be not significant for housecleaning and drycleaning/laundry; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "wife's age" to be variously positive for child care, domestic services, clothing care, personal care and total services overall and that "young children, under six" was positively associated with child care and domestic services, negatively associated with personal care, not significant for clothing care and positively associated with total services overall; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "wife's age" to be positively associated with personal care but negatively associated with child care and total services overall, additionally they found that "number of children aged 3-5" was negatively associated with clothing care, but it and "number of children aged 0-2" were positively associated with child care and total services overall.

EXHIBIT 2.6 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY VARIABLE)

CONVENIENCE SERVICES:

Occupation	Nickols and Fox (1983) found "occupation status of husband" not significant and "occupation status of wife" to be positively associated with child care and not significant for housecleaning or drycleaning/laundry.
Wife's Employment	Nickols and Fox (1983) found "wife's hourly employment" positively associated with child care and not significant for housecleaning or drycleaning/laundry; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "weeks worked," "part time employment" and "full time employment" to be not significant for both domestic services and personal care, but "weeks worked" and "full time employment" were positively associated child care where "part time employment" was not significant and in the case of clothing care, "weeks worked" and "full time employment" were not significant, but "part time employment" was negatively associated with clothing care; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "wife's hours worked per year" to be positively associated with child care, clothing care, personal care and total services overall, but not significant for domestic services.
Residence	Nickols and Fox (1983) found "urban residence" not significant for housecleaning and child care, but positively associated with drycleaning/laundry; Bellante and Foster (1984) found "homeownership" positively associated with child care, clothing care, personal care and total services overall, but not significant for domestic services; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "homeownership-renter" positively associated with clothing care, negatively associated with personal care and not significant for total services overall, additionally they found that "rural household" was negatively associated

EXHIBIT 2.6 (Cont.)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENIENCE CONSUMPTION  
(BY VARIABLE)

CONVENIENCE SERVICES:

Residence	with clothing and personal care, negatively associated with child care and total services overall for full time working wife households, but positively associated with child care and total services overall for part time working wife households.
Family Size	Bellante and Foster (1984) found "family size, over six years" to be negatively associated with domestic services and clothing care and not significant for child care, personal care or total services overall; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "family size, over six years" to be positively associated with child care and personal care, negatively associated with clothing care and not significant for domestic services and total services overall.
Education	Bellante and Foster (1984) found "wife's education" to be positively associated with clothing care and total services overall and variously positively associated with domestic services and personal care but not significant for child care; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found "wife's education" to be variously positively associated with domestic services, personal care, clothing care and total services overall, but negatively associated with child care.

was not a significant discriminator between high- and low-convenience orientations for foods (1969). The employment status of the wife, however, was found to be a significant discriminator for certain classes of convenience goods (1972).

Douglas (1976) examined convenience consumption among working and nonworking wives in the U.S. and France. She found that working wives do not appear to make greater use of convenience products and services than non-working wives.

Strober and Weinberg (1980) proposed that due to time pressures, working wives may adopt one or more of five time-saving strategies. Their study examined two particular strategies: 1) purchase and ownership of labor-saving durable goods and 2) meal preparation and shopping behavior modification. Strober and Weinberg (1980) found that the wife's employment was not a significant determinant of the purchase or ownership of labor-saving durable goods. In addition, when income or life cycle was held constant, working wives and nonworking wives were generally found to be similar with respect to meal preparation methods and shopping behavior. Specifically, working and non-working wives did not appear significantly different with respect to the use of frozen foods, the use of mail order, shopping for specials, or the use of coupons.

Nickols and Fox (1983) examined the time-buying and time-saving activities of employed-wife and nonemployed-wife families based on the strategies proposed by Strober and

Weinberg (1980). Specifically, Nickols and Fox's (1983) examination of convenience product and service use indicated that the wife's employment was related to the increased use of disposable diapers. They also found that the purchase of meals away from the home and the purchase of childcare services both appeared to be time-buying strategies for employed-wife families. Contrary to their expectations, the wife's hourly employment was not significantly associated with the purchase of housecleaning or laundry services.

Bellante and Foster (1984) examined Becker's (1965) theory of household production and time allocation with respect to the purchase of services. These authors noted that research which focused on whether working-wife families economize on time by making services purchases was "virtually nonexistent." They also pointed out a number of methodological limitations which have existed in some of the services-oriented research. In order to fill this gap, Bellante and Foster (1984) specifically examined the relationship between the wife's employment and expenditures on five groups of time-saving services. Examining data from the 1972-1973 Consumer Expenditure Survey (CES), the researchers found that full-time working-wife families spent significantly more money on food away from home, child care, and total services overall than did families of full-time homemakers. However, they also found that working-wife families did not substitute paid services for housework that would normally be

done by the wife in that neither the number of weeks worked nor the number of hours worked per week impacted spending for domestic services.

Bellante and Foster (1984) pointed out that while the variables used in their research explained a portion of the variance for time-saving services expenditures, a large amount still remained unexplained. Together, their independent variables explained 27.18% of the variance in total services expenditures. They also pointed out a recurrent problem with convenience research:

An important qualification concerns the precision of the dependent variables used in this study. While all of the dependent variables are intended to represent services for which demand would be positively affected by the value of time, such classification is not always clearcut. For example meals away from home generally use less time but cost more money than meals prepared at home, but this is not always the case....[In addition] although beauty parlor services may be more convenient than equivalent home beauty care (e.g., home permanents), it is not clear whether less time is consumed (p. 706).

The work of Bryant (1988) again examined the relationship between consumer durables purchases and the employment of the wife to determine if, indeed, durables and the wife's time were substitutes, as argued by Strober and Weinberg (1977, 1980), or complements, as argued by traditional economic theory of household production. Bryant (1988) found that the wife's time and durables were complements rather than substitutes. Bryant (1988) pointed out that these findings contrast with most research results



which have found either no relationship between the wife's employment and durables purchases or, that in certain cases with particular durables, the wife's time and consumer durables were substitutes. Bryant (1988) concluded that the wife's time and the family's total durables were used together in home activities (as opposed to substituted for their time that is now spent in the labor market).

More recently, using 1984-1985 CES data, Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) examined many of the same variables and service categories that were examined by Bellante and Foster (1984). They found that significant differences existed between part time and full time working wife households with respect to expenditures on child care, food away from home and total services. An analysis of all households indicated that the number of hours worked per year by the wife was significantly related to expenditures on clothing care and personal care, but not domestic services.

Taken together, the research that has been conducted to date which examines the relationship between the wife's employment and convenience consumption has been contradictory.

It appears that in some cases the wife's employment has a significant relationship with convenience purchases, but not in all cases or with all purchases. It appears as though the operationalization of the dependent variable in terms of the nature of the product purchased (e.g., durables, goods, foods, or services) is an important determinant of the type of

relationship exhibited. In addition, more precision in dependent variable operationalization has been recommended (Bellante and Foster 1984; Reilly 1982).

Demographic Variables: The Husband's Employment.

Although the wife's employment has been the subject of considerable convenience-related research, the attention paid to the husband's employment has been minimal. In as much as it has been argued that an increased devotion to work is a key factor contributing to the quest for convenience (Fram and DuBrin 1988), it is surprising that this variable has received such limited research attention. In their exploratory study of role overload and convenience consumption, Foxman and Burns (1987) indicated that the length of the husband's workweek and the number of time saving durables and services used in the households were significantly different between role load clusters. Although the specific relationship between husband's employment and convenience consumption was not examined, their findings indirectly suggested that a relationship might exist.

Further evidence of the possible importance of this variable has been provided by Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991). They suggested that the hours worked per year by the husband represented an important explanatory variable for services expenditures based on the household production model's stipulated time and income constraints. Their research found a positive association between the husband's employment

and food away from home, clothing care, personal care and total services. However, they also found that the husband's employment was not significant with respect to child care or domestic services expenditures.

Demographic Variables: Family Composition. Variables that reflect the stage of the family lifecycle, in terms of the size of the family and the presence, absence and age of children, have been included in a number of studies examining convenience-oriented consumption. The primary motive for examining such variables in connection with services consumption has been the belief that family size and the presence of young children will impact family time pressures, activity patterns and consumption. In addition, the size of the family and the presence, absence and age of the children is expected to influence the tendency of households to either utilize the labor of spouses and children (that is, to do it themselves) or to purchase time-saving services (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983).

One of the earliest convenience-related studies included this variable and, in general, concluded that convenience food consumption was positively associated with family size (Marple and Wissmann 1968). Additional research into the category of convenience goods continued to point to an association with family size. Anderson (1971b) found that stage in family lifecycle and family size were significant discriminators of

high- versus low- convenience orientations for both convenience foods and convenience goods.

Contrary to this early research, Douglas (1976) did not find the number of children to be a significant predictor of convenience product usage frequency. The Douglas (1976) research, however, appears also to be an exception to most of the subsequent research. A number of more recent studies have found that lifecycle variables have had significant associations, although they have differed in direction depending on the product examined. Strober and Weinberg (1980), for example, found that the stage of family lifecycle was related to time-saving durables ownership. Nickols and Fox (1983) found that the age of the younger child was an important predictor of the use of disposable diapers, restaurant meals and child care. Similar results were reported by Bellante and Foster (1984) who found that family size (aged over six) was negatively associated with domestic and clothing care services. They also found that young children (under aged six) were negatively associated with food away from home and personal care, but positively associated with child care, domestic services and total services. They reported that the number of children under six explained more of services expenditures than did the size of the family. They explained that the greater monetary outlay on domestic services indicated "that among families with children under six, substitution of paid services of others was a strategy used to

compensate for reduced household production time because of the requirements of caring for young children" (p. 705).

Bellizzi and Hite (1986) examined convenience product use and certain lifecycle factors. They found that those consumers with more children indicated more interest in convenience products than those with fewer children.

More recently, Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found that young children were positively associated with child care and total services, and family size was positively associated with child care and personal care, but negatively associated with clothing care.

Lifestyle Variables: Role Overload. Several important studies suggested that time pressures and role overload are associated with convenience consumption. Strober and Weinberg (1980), for example, indicated that working wives were significantly different from nonworking wives in their perception of time pressures. They found that "at all income levels and lifecycle stages, working wives appear to face greater time pressures than do nonworking wives" (p. 338). They also reported that working wives exhibited a significantly greater level of agreement with the statement: "meal preparations should take as little time as possible." However, Strober and Weinberg (1980) found that working wives and nonworking wives were generally similar with respect to their purchase of labor-saving durables, meal preparation and

shopping behavior.

In continuation of the research which examines consumption differences that result from the wife's employment, Reilly (1982) sought to measure how "role overload" impacts convenience consumption. Similar to "time pressure," "role overload" is "a type of role conflict that results from excessive demands on the time and energy supply of an individual" (p. 407). Citing previous research which had consistently failed to indicate any differences in convenience-consumption based on the wife's employment, Reilly (1982) suggested that either employment does not necessarily lead to role overload or, convenience consumption is not used by working wives to relieve role overload. Reilly's (1982) examination of role overload and convenience consumption indicated that the wife's work involvement related weakly and indirectly to the family's consumption through role overload. This finding supported the author's contention that employment does not necessarily result in role overload. The researcher further noted that "wives who reported role overload were somewhat more likely than others to serve convenience food and to own time-saving durables, although the former relationship did not achieve statistical significance at the 0.05 level" (p. 414). Overall, the model indicated that role overload of the wife was positively associated with ownership of time-saving durables and ownership of time-saving durables was negatively associated with the number of convenience foods

served. Reilly (1982) pointed out, however, that a limitation to his research was the measure of convenience consumption used:

Individuals may or may not use the measured convenience foods for a number of reasons other than a desire to save time. Similarly, the ownership of time-saving durables may be motivated by considerations other than work-load reduction. Some measurement research is needed to identify behavioral measures of convenience consumption which are not confounded with other factors (p. 416).

Reilly (1982) also suggested that additional factors to consider with respect to role overload and, consequently, convenience consumption should include the extent that children are present as well as the activities outside of the home. He argued that in order to have a more complete knowledge of convenience consumption determinants, further research is needed to identify these factors. Specifically:

Convenience consumption and ownership of time-saving durables are only two ways to reduce the demands of the family position. Other possibilities include redivision of household labor assignments, eat out frequently, buying fast food for home consumption, and hiring household help. Each of these can significantly reduce the time and energy demands of the wife's family role, and each would be an alternative to owning time-saving durables or serving convenience foods (Reilly 1982, p. 414).

Advancing the work of Strober and Weinberg (1980), who examined convenience behaviors, Bellizzi and Hite (1986) examined convenience product use, convenient shopping style, price-convenience trade-offs and role overload. In order to

involve some aspect of convenience or inconvenience, the authors created a scale of items which were deliberately selected to reflect a potential price savings when inconvenient shopping behavior was chosen by the consumer. In their operationalization of convenience with respect to shopping behavior, Bellizzi and Hite (1986) proposed that the items "searching for coupons, clipping coupons, saving coupons, and redeeming coupons all involve some customer inconvenience," as do comparing unit prices and watching advertising for sales (p. 2). To operationalize convenience regarding products, the authors suggested that "using frozen main course dinners or ordering home-delivered, prepared foods usually means paying a higher price in order to obtain the convenience" (p. 2).

From these scales of behaviors, two convenience behavior factors emerged: 1) convenient shopping style and; 2) convenience product shopper. Using these two factors as the dependent variables, the researchers examined seven independent variables. The main effects reported indicated that role overload was significantly related to factor one such that those high on role overload were more interested in the price-saving shopping style (through coupons, price watching, etc.) despite the inconvenience. With regard to product behavior tapped with factor two, significant main effects suggested that those high in role overload were more interested in convenience products than those with low



overload.

Lifestyle Variables: Outside Activities. Another factor which has been proposed to contribute to the American time crunch and thereby has influenced the consumer's quest for convenience is the increasing consumer emphasis on leisure or hedonistic philosophies (Etgar 1978). Berry (1979) described the dedication to physical and mental well-being as the "me time movement" and considered it a primary motivator of the "time-buying" consumer. Fram and DuBrin (1988) also considered increasing attention to physical and mental self-improvement as one of the three factors which have initiated the consumer's quest for time-conserving products and services. Indeed, Yankelovich (1981) found that nearly 80% of the population is involved in the "search for self-fulfillment." In addition, the 17% of the population who exhibit the "strong form" of this behavior also tend to experience greater time and work pressures which result in distinct consumption and leisure activity patterns.

A growing stream of research within the field of leisure and recreation has suggested that time constraints (such as family and work obligations) do not necessarily constrain leisure activities. This research has indicated that time constraints may actually increase the level of individual participation in the sense that high levels of leisure involvement often come with high levels of "other commitments"

(e.g., Hultsman 1995; Kay and Jackson 1991). The implication of this is that certain time-constrained individuals somehow "make time" to participate in leisure activities. Robinson (1991), for example, reported that four Americans in ten cut back on sleep in order to gain more time for daily activities and that Americans now value leisure time as highly as they value money.

Given that "leisure" or outside activities have been proposed contributors to time scarcity and convenience consumption (Berry 1979; Etgar 1978; Fram and DuBrin 1988; Yankelovich 1981), it is surprising that the relationship between time scarcity, leisure and consumption has received only limited research attention. Existing research which specifically addresses the relationship between convenience consumption and activities outside the home has been contradictory and inconclusive.

One of the earliest studies dealing with convenience consumption dealt with convenience foods (Marple and Wissmann 1968). Although family involvement in community and social activities has had a mixed impact on convenience consumption, the researchers concluded that, in general, convenience food consumption was positively associated with the wife's employment, family size and family activities outside the home. A subsequent analysis examining household members' activities and convenience food orientation, however, failed to substantiate the conclusions of Marple and Wissmann

(Anderson 1969).

Given the contradictory nature of the reported findings regarding outside activities and convenience consumption, it is surprising that more research has not been done in this area. Indeed, it has often been suggested that research should include involvement in outside activities as a time-consuming activity which contributes to time scarcity, role overload and convenience consumption (Strober and Weinberg 1980; Reilly 1982). Although Nickols and Fox (1983) investigated the strategy of decreasing the amount of time spent in volunteer and leisure activities as a response to the wife's employment, the researchers did not examine the consumption consequences. Specifically, they found that employed wives did not decrease the amount of time allocated to volunteer and community work, but did decrease the time allocated to leisure activities (social and recreational activities). The relationship between leisure activity and purchased services and labor substitutes, however, was not examined.

#### Price-Convenience Tradeoff Factors Associated With Convenience Consumption

The environmental portion of the conceptual framework specifies a demographic factor (as captured with the variables: wife's employment; husband's employment; and family composition) and a lifestyle factor (as captured with the

variables: role overload and outside activities) which are proposed to contribute to time scarcity and convenience orientation. These two sets of factors are meant to capture relevant societal trends. The second portion of the framework, the convenience orientation portion, attempts to capture the consumer time and effort allocation process which necessitates a price-convenience tradeoff decision. At this stage, the consumer weighs the convenience aspects of a service against the monetary price for that service. Consumers then make an evaluation as to the total resource allocation which will maximize their overall utility and provide the most value.

In as much as the research herein examines the consumer's orientation toward paid services that could otherwise be performed by the consumer, much of the process is dependent upon the consumer's willingness to pay for the convenience of having the service performed for them. The price a consumer is willing to pay for a product or service is a function of its various costs. There is a monetary cost, a time cost and an energy (physical and cognitive) cost associated with the purchase of a good or service. Etgar (1978) suggested that in satisfying their needs, households have to consider two types of costs: the direct expenditures for goods and services and the indirect costs of the time and other resources which households invest in the consumption process. Upon evaluation, households will tend to choose

lower cost alternatives.

Consideration of the price-convenience tradeoff is particularly interesting in that while the monetary price of convenience may be higher, the energy and time costs may actually decrease when a convenient good or service is purchased. It is therefore assumed that the value of these various costs will be alternatively considered and finally reflected in the consumer's willingness to pay a monetary price for convenience (see Exhibit 2.4).

As discussed at the outset of this paper, convenience may come with a hefty price attached (Benway et al. 1987). Faith Popcorn suggested that some consumers "will spend as much as \$100 an hour on conveniences -- anything that will 'get them to the airport or out of the supermarket faster'" (Benway et al. 1987, p. 86). Robinson (1991) indicated that "it appears that more and more Americans are eager to make the transaction" (p. 24). Increasingly, convenience industry leaders recognize that the high prices must not only be associated with convenience but must also be accompanied by high quality (Benway et al. 1987).

Academic research which examines the value of convenience and the willingness to pay for convenience, however, has not been forthcoming. Very little of the convenience research touches on the price-convenience tradeoff of products, be they goods or services. While a number of convenience studies have considered various household

production variables such as income, wages, hours, etc., the connection between having the means and the willingness to part with those assets is not direct. It is therefore useful to examine not only the economic variables associated with convenience consumption (income and credit), but also the research which has sought to examine the tradeoff process and value maximization.

Price-Convenience Tradeoff Variables: Value

Consciousness. A concern for price, subject to some quality constraint, is a utility-based construct termed "value consciousness." More precisely, the construct pertains to "a specific concern for 'value' received (defined in terms of need-satisfying properties of the product) for price paid" (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990, p. 55). As noted by these authors, this definition is consistent with "value" as it is defined in acquisition-transaction utility theory (Thaler 1983, 1985). It is also consistent with the conceptualization of Monroe and Petroshius (1981) who proposed that value was a ratio of quality to price. Similarly, Zeithaml (1988) defined perceived value as "the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on what is received and what is given" (p. 14).

This concept of value consciousness is central to the price-convenience tradeoff process proposed in the conceptual framework (Exhibit 2.4). According to the proposed framework,

a price-convenience tradeoff relationship exists which incorporates the consumer's assessment of the time and/or effort reducing attributes of a service. At this stage, the consumer weighs these convenience aspects of the service against the monetary price for the service. Consumers then make an evaluation as to the total resource allocation which will maximize their overall utility and provide the most value. When consumers perceive a service to possess utility-maximizing convenience attributes (i.e., time-saving and/or effort-reducing attributes), consumers may be willing to trade the higher monetary cost associated with the performance of the service by a provider in exchange for lowering the time and effort costs that would be associated with self-performance. This is the nature of the price-convenience tradeoff for services. This is also a reflection of their value consciousness.

The connection between the value-consciousness construct and the consumer's willingness to pay for convenience can be linked through utility theory. The framework proposed herein argues that there is a value judgment as to the inherent convenience attributes of a service. Indeed, at the outset of Chapter One, "convenience" was defined as the inherent time-saving and/or effort-saving characteristics or attributes of a good or service and the disposition or orientation among consumers for products with these attributes. The value-consciousness conceptualization and findings indicate that:

value conscious consumers are more concerned about acquisition utility (the inherent need-satisfying properties of the product). Such a focus implies that value conscious consumers are concerned about the product's value in use over time, which is a stable characteristic of the product (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990, p. 57).

The "need-satisfying properties" of concern in this study are the inherent time-saving or effort-saving attributes of "convenient" services. A key outcome of the consumer's utility maximization and time allocation decision is the "convenience-oriented" consumers' willingness to pay a monetary price for the convenience of service provision as a substitute for self-performance.

Although the value consciousness of convenience-oriented consumers has yet to be directly investigated, a number of researchers have indicated that a price/quality relationship or price consciousness may play a role in convenience consumption. Indeed, it has long ago been established that relative affluence or higher socioeconomic status of the consumer, even the convenience-oriented consumer, does not necessarily imply price indifference or a low level of price sensitivity (Anderson 1971b; Schaninger and Allen 1981; Shapiro 1968). It has also been demonstrated that, while annual family income explains some variance, income alone does not completely explain convenience orientation. Anderson (1972) pointed out that "the high socioeconomic status of convenience-oriented families suggests not only material



affluence, but also discriminating awareness of price-quality interrelationships" (p. 71). As a consequence, Anderson (1971b) suggested that "pricing policies for convenience-oriented products should reinforce or complement the quality image of the product reflected in promotion and distribution channels" (p. 183).

Several subsequent research studies have attempted to examine this relationship between convenience consumption and the willingness to pay. One of the earliest works which sought to incorporate some form of willingness to pay disposition was the work of Douglas (1976). In her examination of working and nonworking wives in the U.S. and France, Douglas (1976) incorporated a number of attitude scales, one of which sought to tap price consciousness. While she found price consciousness did influence clothing purchase behavior, it was not a significant factor influencing convenience product or service usage.

In a subsequent study, which examined consumer behavior based on the wife's occupational status, Schaninger and Allen (1981) found that high-status working wives were less deal prone than nonworking wives or low-status working wives. The authors proposed that this is due to greater time constraints, less emphasis on traditional shopping roles and their social-class background (Levy 1966). Interestingly, however, they also found that nonworking, low-status working and high-status working wives were not significantly different with respect to

price sensitivity. The use of the occupational status variable as opposed to the dichotomous variable of working/nonworking also indicated that "contrasting or opposite consumption profiles emerged between HSW and LSW families for convenience foods, deal proneness and emphasis on television" (p. 195). Importantly, the authors found that most of these differences in convenience foods consumption and certain deal prone behaviors remained even after income effects were removed. These researchers, however, did not directly examine the deal proneness or price sensitivity of those women who were found to be users of convenience foods.

Although not dealing with convenience services, Bellizzi and Hite (1986) added to the convenience consumption research by examining convenience product use, convenient shopping style and price-convenience tradeoffs. In their operationalization of convenience with respect to shopping behavior, the researchers proposed that the items "searching for coupons, clipping coupons, saving coupons, and redeeming coupons all involve some customer inconvenience," as do comparing unit prices and watching advertising for sales (p. 2). To operationalize convenience regarding products, the authors suggested that items directed toward "using frozen main course dinners or ordering home delivered, prepared foods usually means paying a higher price in order to obtain the convenience" (p. 2). Using the two factors labeled factor one (bargain-hunter/low-price/less convenient shopping style) and

factor two (time-saving/convenience product shopper) as the dependent variables, the researchers examined role overload, age, and the number of children.

With regard to product behavior tapped with factor two, which the authors contended captured a willingness to pay higher prices for product convenience, significant main effects suggested that those high in role overload were more interested in convenience products than those with low overload. Older consumers were more interested in convenience products than younger ones and those consumers with more children indicated more interest in convenience products than those with fewer children.

It may be useful to point out here, however, that price-consciousness, deal proneness, price sensitivity and the behaviors such as coupon clipping that are reflected in the works by Douglas (1976), Schaninger and Allen (1981) and Bellizzi and Hite (1986), may reflect a consumer's concern for transaction utility rather than acquisition utility. While acquisition utility (the need-satisfying ability of the product in relation to price) is the foundation of value consciousness (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990), transaction utility represents the pleasure or displeasure associated with the financial terms of the deal which comes about through a comparison of an internal reference price against the purchase price (Thaler 1985). Indeed, Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) have demonstrated

that, while related, value consciousness and coupon proneness represent two distinct constructs, both of which are useful in explaining purchase behaviors (Thaler 1985).

Demographics, lifestyle and value perspectives were examined with respect to cost- versus convenience-oriented consumers by Morganosky (1986). Among the first to include consumers' value of time in relation to money as a variable associated with convenience good consumption, Morganosky (1986) found that the differences between cost-oriented and convenience-oriented consumers were significant.

It may be argued that the operationalization of the cost-convenience tradeoff was more explicit in this study than in that of Bellizzi and Hite (1986). While Bellizzi and Hite (1986) proposed that consumers exhibit a form of willingness to pay for convenience when they do not use coupons or when they buy convenience foods (which "usually means paying a higher price"), Morganosky (1986) operationalized the definitions of a convenience versus cost-oriented consumer via consumer agreement to specific statements referring to their behavior regarding three types of products (clothing, convenience food and household equipment).

Morganosky (1986) defined a convenience-oriented consumer as one that seeks to "accomplish a task in the shortest time with the least expenditure of human energy," and the cost-oriented consumer as one that "based selection on maximizing the use of money" (p. 37). Mothers surveyed by

telephone met that definition based on their responses to six statements in relation to three products. The level of consumer agreement with the statements "I often buy clothes at stores that are easy to get to, even if the clothes are more expensive," and "At home, parents should use disposable diapers instead of cloth diapers on their babies," sought to establish the cost versus convenience orientation with respect to clothing. The statements "I am more concerned about how much food costs rather than about how much time it takes to prepare," and "Our family uses convenience foods even when they are more expensive," sought to establish the consumer orientation with regard to convenience foods. The statements "I would rather have an expensive frost-free refrigerator than a cheaper one that must be manually defrosted," and "I would rather clean an oven myself than spend additional money for a self-cleaning oven," sought to establish a consumer cost or convenience orientation for household equipment.

Although each category was examined individually, a number of similarities across product categories were apparent. Age, household income, the consumer values of quality versus quantity, and the consumer value of fashion versus function were all significant differentiators of convenience- and cost-oriented consumers across all three product categories. A particularly interesting finding, with respect to value consciousness, was that "convenience-oriented clothing, food, and household equipment shoppers consistently

valued quality and fashion more highly than did cost-oriented shoppers" (Morganosky 1986, p. 45).

While this study tended to more clearly identify the cost versus convenience tradeoff to the respondents than did Bellizzi and Hite (1986), and while this study tended to incorporate time-saving as well as effort-saving as part of convenience, it also had its limitations. Convenience was operationalized differently in a number of areas. Convenience, as an attribute of the product, was included in this operationalization of convenience only in the cases of frost-free refrigerators and self-cleaning ovens. In the case of clothing and stores, effort to acquire was tapped, however clothing exhibiting convenience as an attribute was not. While disposable diapers may be viewed as clothing exhibiting convenience attributes, the implication that disposables are more expensive than cloth may be questioned (especially when diaper cleaning services may be considered in the use of cloth diapers). The response to the diaper statement may also be confounded due to the respondents' environmental concerns rather than strictly cost-convenience concerns. In the case of foods, "convenience" was not defined for the respondent.

While a willingness to pay for convenience appears to exist among consumers, further research is necessary in order to determine if the relationship between the convenience of products, the value/quality relationship, and the willingness to pay can be more clearly explicated and if any such

relationship exists with respect to convenient services. Examination of the value-consciousness construct in relation to convenient service consumption may contribute to this endeavor. The consumer's willingness to trade the monetary price for convenient service performance represents a measurable exchange of values. There is a judgment regarding the "perceived value" of the service that reflects "the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on what is received and what is given" (Zeithaml 1988, p. 14). In addition, the consumer's concern regarding the need-satisfying properties (convenience attributes) of such services, may be a reflection of their concern for acquisition utility. Consequently, convenience-oriented services consumption behaviors may be associated with value consciousness.

Price-Convenience Tradeoff Variables: Income. An important element in the Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption (Exhibit 2.4) is the stipulation that consumers will participate in a price-convenience tradeoff process whereby they must compare the monetary cost of the service with the time and effort costs of "doing it themselves." Given that rational people will allocate their resources to maximize their utility given their time and income constraints, a relevant economic resource to be considered in services purchases, therefore, is income.

Almost without exception, total household income has been found to be positively associated with the consumption of convenience goods, foods or durables (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b; Bellante and Foster 1984; Douglas 1976; Morganosky 1986; Nickols and Fox 1983; Reilly 1982; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991; Strober and Weinberg 1980). Similarly, total household income has been positively associated with the consumption of a number of convenience services (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991).

Anderson (1971b) found that annual family income was significantly associated with high/low convenience goods orientations. Additional evidence of the importance of income was provided by Douglas (1976). In her examination of convenience consumption among working and nonworking wives in the U.S. and France, Douglas (1976) found that income contributed to the heavier purchasing of ten convenience products and services.

Strober and Weinberg (1980) proposed that due to time pressures, working wives may adopt a number of time-saving strategies. In their investigation of two of the strategies: 1) purchase and ownership of labor-saving durable goods and 2) meal preparation and shopping behavior modification, Strober and Weinberg (1980) established the importance of household income as an explanatory variable relating to the purchase or ownership of labor-saving durable goods. They found that



total household income and stage of family lifecycle relate to time-saving durables ownership. In addition when income or life cycle is held constant, working wives and nonworking wives are generally similar with respect to meal preparation methods and shopping behavior.

Similar results were reported by Reilly (1982). Reilly (1982) reported that while family social status was not found to contribute significantly to the ownership of time-saving durables, total family income did. Reilly (1982) suggested that this is due, in part, to the high correlation between family social status and income.

Among the first to separately analyze services as a time-buying strategy as proposed (but not investigated) by Strober and Weinberg (1980), Nickols and Fox (1983) found significant relationships between income and a number of services. They found a positive relationship between purchase of housecleaning, purchased meals, childcare, and laundry or drycleaning services and total family income.

Bellante and Foster (1984) examined Becker's (1965) theory of household production and time allocation with respect to the purchase of services. They noted that research which focused on whether working-wife families economize on time by making services purchases was "virtually nonexistent." Examining data from the 1972-1973 Consumer Expenditure Survey (CES), the researchers found working-wife families do not substitute paid services for housework that

would normally be done by the wife. With respect to the wife's work load, they found that neither weeks worked, nor hours worked per week, impacted spending for domestic services. However, with respect to the impact of the other independent variables on services expenditures, they found that family income was positively related to all five services analyzed (expenditures on: food away from home; child care; domestic services; clothing care; personal care).

More recently, using 1984-1985 CES data, Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) examined many of the same variables and service categories that were examined by Nickols and Fox (1983). They found that significant differences existed between part time and full time working-wife households with respect to expenditures on child care, food away from home and total services. However, as opposed to the family income, weeks worked, part time or full time employment variables studied by Nickols and Fox (1983), Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) examined services expenditures with respect to a number of "household production variables" which consisted of wage rate, hours worked (with and without income held constant) and unearned income. In most instances, the researchers found that these variables had a significant impact on services expenditures.

Price-Convenience Tradeoff Variables: Credit. Research in the field of economics and marketing suggests that the

availability and use of credit may be related to convenient service consumption both as an economic resource and as a convenient means of exchange. Specifically, the price-convenience tradeoff process may involve more than the consumer's consideration of his or her "actual" economic resources such as total household income. The tradeoff process may also be impacted by "potential" economic resources such as the availability and willingness to use credit. In addition, the use of credit as a convenient (time-saving) means of exchange, and as a way of reducing the cost of shopping time, has a demonstrated association with individuals who have high opportunity costs of time which result from time scarcity.

Garcia (1980) proposed that credit cards have two attributes: they can be used as a medium of exchange and as a source of short- or intermediate-term revolving credit. Mathews and Slocum (1969) and Slocum and Mathews (1970) provided evidence that use differs by income and socioeconomic status. They found that low income, low socioeconomic status cardholders tended to use cards to generate revolving credit, while rich, high status card holders used cards as a convenient medium of exchange. Related research by Murphy and Ott (1977) has suggested that card users belong to high income strata and have high opportunity costs of time.

The role that credit cards play as a source of credit and as source of transactions convenience simultaneously, has

consumption implications (Garcia 1980). However the consumption impacts of these different uses of credit represent an area of interdisciplinary debate. Particularly at issue is whether consumer credit stimulates consumption, increases expenditure levels, or redistributes consumer expenditures over time in anticipation of future income (Garcia 1980; Hirschman 1979; Russell 1975). While the precise nature of these microeconomic impacts and the larger macroeconomic impacts still remain undetermined, the use of credit cards as a convenience has been borne out in a number of consumption studies.

Blackwell, Hawes and Talarzyk (1975) reported that cards were most commonly used in the purchase of shopping goods and convenience goods. This supports the notion that a key advantage of credit cards lies in their ability to save time when shopping (Baxter, Cootner and Scott 1977). Related evidence has also been supplied by in-home shopping studies. Past research has indicated that in-home shoppers are generally convenience-oriented in their lifestyles (Gillett 1970, 1976) and that such convenience-oriented consumers have a more positive attitude toward the use of credit (Cunningham and Cunningham 1973). Kinsey (1981) reported that such use of credit cards as a source of credit and as a convenience was particularly the case for homeowners. Kinsey (1981) contended that it may be that credit cards allow homeowners to maintain a level of consumption concomitant with home ownership.

Additionally, "homeowners generally spend more of their nonwork time producing (maintaining) housing services, implying that time left for shopping is even more scarce. Minimizing the cost of shopping time is more important under these circumstances" (p. 178).

This implication, that credit card use is related to time-saving shopping style and convenience purchases, suggests that a relationship may also exist between time-scarcity, credit card use and convenient services consumption. As Kinsey (1981) reported, "results supported theoretical predictions that households whose time was the most valuable would be most likely to have credit card accounts" (p. 172). Consequently, if this link between credit attitude, time-scarcity and convenient shopping behavior exists, then the link may also exist between consumer credit usage and a convenient service orientation.

In conclusion, a number of demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff factors have been suggested or shown to be associated with convenience consumption. The question which still remains, however, is whether these factors are also associated with the consumption of convenient services.

THE CONVENIENCE ORIENTATION OF SERVICES CONSUMERS: AN  
EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION  
CHAPTER THREE  
METHODOLOGY

Statement of Purpose

The primary purpose of this exploratory investigation is to collect empirical evidence regarding nine variables which are hypothesized to be associated with a convenience orientation among services consumers. These variables are: the number of hours worked per year by the wife; the number of hours worked per year by the husband; the number of persons in the household, aged six and over; the number of young children in the household, aged zero to five; the role overload of the household head; the leisure activity of the household head; the value consciousness of the household head; the total household income; and credit usage. The stated purpose of this research, therefore, is to examine a proposed series of relationships involving household expenditures for "convenient services."

This research is based upon the premise that the convenience construct, as it relates to product/service attributes, is multidimensional and incorporates two dimensions: a time-saving dimension and an effort-saving dimension. As such, services which possess convenience attributes provide value to their customers through their

inherent abilities to decrease the time and/or effort costs of consumers. In this examination of convenient services, services which exhibit the highest level of time-saving and effort-reducing attributes are proposed to be services that represent an alternative to the consumer's own time and effort (Anderson and Shugan 1991; Brown 1990; Lovelock 1984). Consequently, "convenient services" represent substitutes for the average consumer's ability to "do-it-themselves."

#### Convenient Service Orientation or "CSO" and Its Measure

The primary variable under investigation in this study is "Convenient Service Orientation" or "CSO". This section discusses the operationalization of this construct and also describes the construction of the "Inventory of Convenient Services" or "ICS," which was needed for the measurement of CSO.

The research herein seeks to assess the association between convenient service orientation and nine hypothesized demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff correlates. CSO was measured by totaling the dollar amount paid for convenient service purchases (from an inventory of six convenient services) within a six-month period (see Exhibit 3.1). As stipulated by Anderson (1971b), differential convenience consumption is best examined by incorporating a measure that captures both the variety and rate of convenience consumption. Anderson (1971b) proposed that neither of these

EXHIBIT 3.1

INVENTORY OF CONVENIENT SERVICES

1. Paid Clothing Care Services (CLTH):

Paid clothing care services include commercial laundry services such as laundry sent out and minor clothing repairs (it does not include coin-operated/laundromat/self-service laundry or chemical dry cleaning).

2. Paid Auto Cleaning Services (AUTO):

Paid auto care services include simple, routine auto cleaning services such as car washes/waxes (hand and machine), interior cleaning/vacuuuming (it does not include auto painting, engine maintenance or engine repair).

3. Paid Domestic Services (DOM):

Paid domestic services consist of services are that provided inside your home. Domestic services include house cleaning/maid services, clothes washing/ironing, cooking and other routine domestic services (it does not include carpet cleaning services).

4. Paid Lawn Care Services (LAWN):

Paid lawn care services include mowing grass, raking and bagging of clippings, and other regular, routine grounds keeping and gardening services.

5. Paid Residence Maintenance Services (RES):

Paid residence maintenance services include services that are performed on your home such as gutter cleaning, house painting (interior/exterior), caulking and other simple or routine (non-specialty) home maintenance or repair services (not including specialties such as electrical or plumbing repairs).



EXHIBIT 3.1 (Cont.)

INVENTORY OF CONVENIENT SERVICES

6. Paid Carpet Cleaning Services (CRPT):

Paid carpet cleaning services include rug shampooing and furniture upholstery cleaning services (it does not include renting equipment to perform the job yourself).

variables (number of items or average frequency of use of all items) could be judged as sufficient by itself to discriminate differential convenience (food) orientation from the perspective of both the variety and the rate of consumption.

It is proposed here that the dollar amount paid for service purchases permits both the number of services (the variety) and the frequency of use (rate) to be reflected in a single measure: the Convenient Service Orientation (CSO). Measuring services expenditures is also in keeping with previous research which has examined the determinants of household expenditures for services (Bellante and Foster 1984; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). Such an operationalization permits the development of a single continuous variable for regression analysis whose value will have the opportunity to be larger, if the number of different services utilized from the inventory is larger. That is, the greater the number of services utilized, the greater the potential CSO. Similarly, CSO will increase if the frequency of purchase of each service increases. A household that has a high expenditure level on services contained in the inventory will be assumed to have a high convenient service orientation (CSO).

In that a number of the services contained in the Inventory of Convenient Services (Exhibit 3.1) may not be purchased frequently or regularly, the purchase time period of six months was deemed to be necessary in order to capture the use of those services that may be considered to be more

"discrete" in the nature of service delivery (Lovelock 1983).

In recognition of the convenience construct operationalization problems that were cited in the literature review, it is necessary to discuss the operationalization of CSO. The two key issues involved here are that the expenditures being measured are expenditures for true "services," and that these services are truly "convenient," as defined herein. To deal with these two issues, the selection of the items in the "Inventory of Convenient Services" or "ICS" (Exhibit 3.1) was conducted in two steps. The first step, described below, entailed developing a pool of products that have been either empirically demonstrated to be "services" or were considered, a priori, to be services in previous convenience-related research. This pool of services became the "Inventory of General Services" or "IGS" (see Exhibits 3.2 and 3.3). The second step, also described below, involved the application of the marketing literature-based definition of "convenient" to the services listed in the "IGS." This resulted in the development of the "Inventory of Convenient Services" or "ICS" (Exhibit 3.1), and provides the basis for the measurement of CSO.

STEP 1: The Development of the "IGS". In step one of the development of the "ICS," published, empirical research which specifically dealt with goods/service classificatory schema or service taxonomies were examined in order to identify a pool of general services inventory items (Hartman

EXHIBIT 3.2

DEVELOPMENT OF AN INVENTORY OF GENERAL SERVICES

Murray and Schlacter (1990) operationalized the services construct with their "good-service continuum." Five services were identified as possessing a high perceived service identity level:

Teeth Cleaning by a Dentist or Hygienist  
Income Tax Advice and Preparation  
Auto Wheel Alignment  
Professional Interior Decoration Advice  
Eye Exam

Hartman and Lindgren's (1993) goods/services qualities rating system ranked 41 commonly used consumer items that ranged from typical services to typical goods. Using the mid-point of the five-point rating scale, those consumer items rating below 2.5 were ranked higher in services qualities than goods qualities. There were 15 services which rated below 2.5:

Eye Exam	Catered Party
Golf Lessons	Redecorating
City Bus Ride	Wheel Alignment
Teeth Cleaning	Lawn Care
Dancing Lesson	Carpet Scrub
Home Cleaning	Auto Cleaning
Tended Bar	Health Club
Income Tax Preparation	

Services that have previously been examined in convenience-oriented services research include:

(Bellante and Foster 1984; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991)

Food Away From Home (FAFH)	Clothing Care
Childcare	Personal Care
Domestic Services	

(Nickols and Fox 1983)

Childcare	Appliance Repair
Housecleaning	Purchased Food Away From Home
Yard Work	Paid Laundry Services
Repair, Maintenance or Redecoration of House	

EXHIBIT 3.3

INVENTORY OF GENERAL SERVICES

1. Eye Exam
2. Golf Lessons
3. City Bus Ride
4. Teeth Cleaning
5. Dancing Lesson
6. Home Cleaning (Domestic Services)
7. Tended Bar
8. Income Tax Preparation
9. Catered Party
10. Redecorating
11. Wheel Alignment
12. Lawn Care (Yardwork)
13. Carpet Scrub
14. Auto Cleaning
15. Health Club
16. Food Away From Home (FAFH)
17. Childcare
18. Clothing Care (Paid Laundry Services)
19. Personal Care
20. Appliance Repair
21. House Repair and Maintenance

and Lindgren 1993; Murray and Schlacter 1990). The researchers who selected the items in these previous inventories were guided by prior research and the criteria that the items be commonly used by consumers and that the items range from typical services to typical goods. In the case of Murray and Schlacter (1990), the inventory resulted from a controlled experiment whereby 235 product stimuli were objectively placed along a goods-services continuum by 145 consumers. The Hartman and Lindgren (1993) inventory resulted from a survey of 369 consumers who evaluated 41 consumer items on the basis of their goods/services qualities. From an examination of the results of existing services research, 15 distinct and empirically-tested "services" (e.g., products very high in service qualities) were identified. It should be noted that all five of the "true" services contained in the Murray and Schlacter (1990) inventory also appear in the Hartman and Lindgren (1993) inventory. As Hartman and Lindgren (1993) pointed out, this "agreement in the rank order of the replicated items between the two studies suggests that there is a high degree of consistency in the way consumers perceive the goods/services qualities contained in the consumer items" (p. 7).

In an effort to create a substantial pool of general services, the services inventories used in the convenience-oriented services research (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991) were combined

with those inventories developed through empirical taxonomy research. This combination added six additional services to the general services inventory: "child care," "food away from home," "laundry services," "personal care," "appliance repair," and "house repair/maintenance." In total, this resulted in an "Inventory of General Services" which includes a pool of 21 different consumer services (see Exhibits 3.2 and 3.3).

It is also worthy of note that the list of services empirically operationalized as "services" by Hartman and Lindgren (1993) and Murray and Schlacter (1990) included many of the services that have previously been examined with respect to convenience-related service consumption. Specifically, Bellante and Foster's (1984) examination of working wives' expenditures on "time-saving" services focused on: food away from home (FAFH), child care, domestic services, clothing care and personal care. Similarly, Nickols and Fox (1983) examined purchased services and substitutes for wife's labor. Their "time-buying" services included: purchased child care; housecleaning; yard work; repair, maintenance, or redecoration of the house; appliance repair; purchased FAFH; and paid laundry services. Most recently, Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) re-examined the same five services examined by Bellante and Foster (1984), but used more current data (1984/1985) and a different combination of explanatory variables.

STEP 2: The Development of the "ICS". Step two of the development of the "ICS" involved the identification of those "general services" (i.e., the services in the "IGS") that met the additional definitional criteria of being "convenient." In order to achieve this objective, an operational definition of a "convenient service" was applied against the services contained in previous services inventories and the services examined in previous convenience-related services research (i.e., the services in the "IGS").

As generally suggested by the literature and detailed in Chapter Two, a "convenient service" is one with inherent time and/or effort-saving attributes. However, in order to avoid the construct operationalization problems which have been noted by previous convenience researchers and theorists (Bellante and Foster 1984; Brown 1989, 1990; Reilly 1982; Yale and Venkatesh 1986), this definition requires more precise operationalization. The services chosen for the "ICS" were selected on the basic premise that to be "convenient," they had to be substitutes for work that could be performed by consumers themselves (Brown 1990; Lovelock 1984). Indeed, as concluded by Anderson and Shugan (1991) "more convenience literally implies subcontracting out services, activities, and processing to a more efficient producer rather than invest individual time and effort to perform these steps at home" (p. 221).



Specifically, the services contained in the "ICS" are high on: 1) the effort-reducing aspects of utilizing the service such that they reduce, for the consumer, the unpleasant aspects of an act, deed or performance without necessarily saving time; and/or 2) the time-saving aspects of utilizing the service such that the consumer need not be present at the performance of the service or where the use of a service provider is primarily motivated by a desire to save time. In either case, the consumer who utilizes such services is defined as "convenience-oriented." That is, consumers who purchase such services, although able to perform the service themselves, have for the sake of convenience, opted not to perform the services themselves.

The selection procedure was therefore guided by three criteria: 1) each service must be effort-reducing or time-saving in nature; 2) each service included must represent a substitute for the average consumer's ability to "do it themselves"; and 3) each service must be one that commonly would be used by consumers. Applying these criteria to the services included in the "IGS" yielded the classification of the following six services as "convenient" services: domestic services; lawn care; carpet cleaning; auto cleaning; clothing care; and residence maintenance (see Exhibit 3.1).

As intended, this selection process specifically excluded those services where customer self-performance of the service is not a realistic or common option. Categories of

services exist which would require the consumer to be in possession of uncommon wealth, skill or equipment in order for them to perform the services themselves (Lovelock 1984). Services in the "IGS" which were excluded from the "ICS" on the basis that self-performance is not an option include: eye exam, golf lessons, city bus ride, teeth cleaning, dancing lessons, wheel alignment, health club, personal care, appliance repair and childcare.

It is important to note here that several of the services that have been excluded from the current study (i.e., appliance repair, personal care and childcare), have been examined in previous convenience-related research (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). However, while they have been considered as time-saving in previous convenience-related research, they are excluded from the current research on the basis of impeded self-performance. Purchased appliance repair was examined by Nickols and Fox (1983) as a substitute for the wife's labor. They found no support that this was a household strategy used to buy or save time. Although discussion of this finding was not offered by the researchers, it is possible that it was not a substitute for the wife's labor because self-performance of the repairs may not be a common or realistic option since it requires skills or equipment that are not commonly possessed by the average consumer.

Such an argument can also be employed against the use of paid personal care services. Bellante and Foster (1984) and Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) examined this service on the basis that it was "expected to be sensitive to the value of time" (Bellante and Foster 1984, p. 700). As discussed in Chapter Two, Bellante and Foster (1984) recognized operationalization problems with using personal care services as well as food away from home (restaurant services) to measure their dependent variable. They noted that the time-saving motivation of food away from home and beauty parlor services was not clear. In addition they proposed that "one way to save time -- other than substituting beauty parlor services for equivalent home beauty care -- is to adopt a hairstyle that requires little care. For these reasons, inclusion of the personal care category is highly tentative and should be interpreted accordingly" (p. 706).

Even if time-saving or effort-saving properties were inherent in these services, it might also be argued here that personal care (beauty-parlor/barber shop) services require special skills and training that may not be possessed by the average person. Therefore, the option of self-performance of certain personal care services may not be available to the average consumer. Consequently, this service category was excluded from the study on the basis that personal care services fail to meet the operational definition requirements of convenience proposed herein.

Another service contained in the "IGS" that has been excluded from the "ICS" is paid childcare services. Paid childcare has also been considered in previous convenience-oriented research as a possible time-buying or time-saving strategy, particularly among employed wives (e.g., Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). The argument proposed herein, however, revolves around whether the purchase is truly one of convenience, rather than necessity. Support for the position that childcare is a necessity, rather than a convenience, is provided by Feldman and Hornik (1981). In their integrated conceptual model of time allocation these authors proposed that time is structured into four categories of activities: work at job, necessities, homework and leisure. Activities such as house cleaning, gardening and do-it-yourself projects fall into the "homework" category. Childcare activities, on the other hand, are recognized as "necessities" and are included with other necessities such as sleeping and medical care. In keeping with our proposed definition of "convenient" services being substitutes for self-performance, then it is required that the activity normally fall into the category that Feldman and Hornik (1981) referred to as "homework." They defined homework time as "time used to generate services with close substitutes in the market" (p. 410). Childcare, as a "necessity" is recognized as an "essential self-maintenance activity" (p. 410).

Another related argument for excluding childcare from an inventory of convenient services relates directly to this issue of substitutability of self-performance with marketplace performance. Given that childcare services are primarily purchased by working parents, these parents' presence in the workplace thwarts the opportunity for self-performance of childcare. The services contained in the "ICS" have been selected on the basis that their self-performance is a realistic option. By virtue of this requirement, it may be necessary for the household activities contained in this inventory to be curtailed or deferred to weekends or off-hours in order to be performed. However, their self-performance is an option that is not made "impossible" by virtue of employment status. Thus consumers, employed or not, are not precluded from performing any of these services themselves. The option of self-performance exists, if the consumer chooses to exercise this option. Such is not the case, however, with childcare.

Drawing from economic theory for support of the difference between childcare and other services in the "ICS": services or activities "are substitutes if both can satisfy the same need of the consumer" (emphasis added, Henderson and Quandt 1958, p.29). Purchased childcare services, therefore, cannot be considered a substitute for the employed consumers' time at home. Paid childcare satisfies the dual "needs" of pursuit of income and care for children. Self-provided

childcare satisfies only the care of children. To the point, the childcare decision is not a simple one of self-provision or paid childcare. If self-provision is chosen, then for many, employment and income is forgone. This is not the nature of the purchase decisions for other "convenient" services. The decision to purchase childcare services is therefore much more complex than others in the "ICS" because the self-provision of childcare and childcare services are not true substitutes. A consumer's time can be allocated in the labor market or in the home, but not both at the same time. Indeed, it could be argued that the consumer's time spent in the labor market and childcare services are complements that satisfy the particular need for income. None of the other services in the "ICS" can be viewed as complements for labor-force participation. To consider this service purchase as a simple "purchase, forego or do-it-yourself" decision is not possible. Its use, therefore, as a measure of a consumer convenience orientation for services would be suspect.

Food away from home (FAFH) has also been excluded from the present study for two reasons. First, Bellante and Foster (1984) have questioned the time-saving properties of meals away from home. Similarly, Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) have suggested that the purchase of FAFH may very well reflect a leisure component, rather than a strictly time/effort saving motivation. The second reason for exclusion of FAFH from the "ICS" is due to the fact that prior services taxonomy research

has indicated that it falls in the mid-range of the good-service continuum (Hartman and Lindgren 1993; Murray and Schlacter 1990). In as much as the focus of the current study is on convenient services, it is necessary to restrict the CSO variable to only those products with a high perceived service identity (Murray and Schlacter 1990).

Several other service exclusions warrant discussion. Tended bar, paid income tax preparation, catered party and redecorating have been excluded not because they do not save time and/or effort, or because they require uncommon wealth, skill or equipment, but because they are particularly discrete rather than continuous in terms of service delivery (Lovelock 1983). As such, their purchase may not be captured in a six-month expenditure study. The infrequency of such purchases, even by these services' users, therefore, limits their measurement contributions.

Consumer expenditures on the six convenient services contained in the ICS are solicited in Section II of the questionnaire (see Appendix).

#### Correlates of Convenient Service Orientation and Research Hypotheses

As discussed in the literature review, previous research has indicated that many variables influence the convenience consumption of American consumers. In an attempt to synthesize the various existing theoretical conceptualizations

relating to convenience consumption and the number of factors said to influence consumers' convenience orientation, a conceptual framework was constructed (see Exhibit 2.4, "A Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption"). This framework linked three basic elements: the environmental forces which contribute to time scarcity and therefore convenience consumption (demographic and lifestyle factors); the development of a consumer preference or orientation for services that possess inherent time-saving and/or effort reducing convenience attributes (price-convenience tradeoff factors); and the translation of this orientation into a measurable, overt behavior, the consumption of convenient services (spin-off processing/originating activities to services firms).

In order to expand this framework and contribute to the development of a relatively comprehensive profile of the convenience-oriented services consumer, the current study examines the association of nine separate demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff variables with the convenient service orientation of services consumers ("CSO"). These variables include: wife's employment; husband's employment; family size; number of young children; role overload of household head; household head leisure activity level; value consciousness; total household income; and credit usage.



In the section which follows, hypotheses relating to these variables are presented and the measurement issues surrounding each variable are explored. The predicted relationship of these variables with consumers' convenient service orientation (CSO) are summarized in Exhibit 3.4, and are incorporated into an expanded framework depicted in Exhibit 3.5, "Hypothesized Relationships Within the Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption."

-- Demographic Variables: Hourly Employment

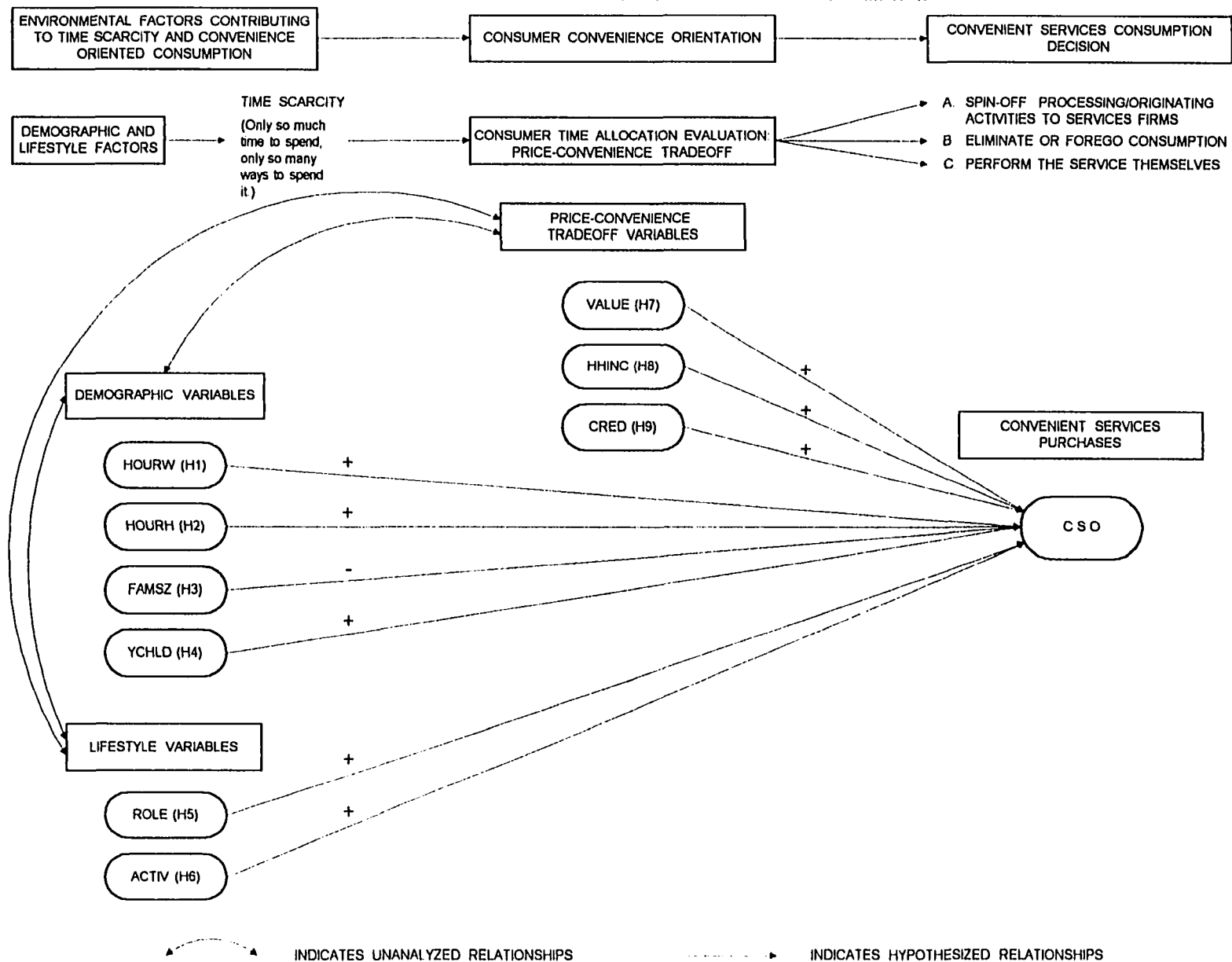
As discussed in the literature review, much of the convenience research has examined the connection between the wife's employment and convenience product usage (see Exhibit 2.6). Although the results of this research have often found no association, some research has found differentially positive associations, depending on the good or service examined (e.g., Nickols and Fox 1983; Bellante and Foster 1984; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). Research which has considered the husband's employment has had similarly mixed results (e.g., Foxman and Burns 1987; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). Given the mixed results of these examinations, it appears that more research into the workload of both spouses is called for. Indeed, it recently has been argued that the situation of both spouses should be examined due to the roles both spouses play in information acquisition, purchase decision-making and the assortment of

EXHIBIT 3.4

VARIABLES AND THEIR PREDICTED ASSOCIATION WITH CSO

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Definition</u>	<u>Association with CSO (Hypothesis)</u>
HOURW	Number of hours worked per year by wife	Positive (H1)
HOURH	Number of hours worked per year by husband	Positive (H2)
FAMSZ	Number of persons in household, aged 6 and over	Negative (H3)
YCHLD	Number of young children aged 0-5	Positive (H4)
ROLE	Role overload score of household head	Positive (H5)
ACTIV	Leisure activity of household head	Positive (H6)
VALUE	Value consciousness score	Positive (H7)
HHINC	Total household pre-tax 1995 income	Positive (H8)
CRED	Credit usage scale score	Positive (H9)

**EXHIBIT 3.5  
HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN THE  
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF CONVENIENT SERVICES CONSUMPTION**



goods and services found in the household (Foxman and Burns 1987). Further, it has been proposed by Fram and DuBrin (1988) that an increased devotion to work, perhaps as measured in terms of the number of hours worked, is a key factor contributing to the consumer's quest for time-conserving products and services.

Consequently, the following hypotheses are presented:

- H1: The greater the number of hours worked per year by the wife, the higher the level of CSO.
- H2: The greater the number of hours worked per year by the husband, the higher the level of CSO.

Measurement of this employment variable in terms of hours worked per year was selected on the basis that it represents a more thorough reflection of work commitment. Previous research which has included such nominal variables as "full-time" or "part-time" employment has often failed to find associations which may be due to the loss of some explanatory power by virtue of such employment definitions (Anderson 1972; Bellante and Foster 1984; Douglas 1976). Other research which has asked for only "weeks worked" or "hours per week" also may have been limited in their ability to capture an accurate reflection of work commitment (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Strober and Weinberg 1980). "Weeks worked," for example, does not reflect how many hours were worked in a week. Similarly, "hours per week" does not reflect the number of weeks worked in a year. A combination

of both measures in the form of "weeks worked\*hours per week" will produce the number of hours per year the individual was employed. This permits a more encompassing reflection of work commitment and time spent in market production (Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). Such a measure has been recommended by previous researchers of convenience-related consumption and has been found to have more significant results (Strober and Weinberg 1980; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991).

Questions 9, 10, 11 and 12 of Section IV of the questionnaire (see Appendix) solicited the information necessary to measure "employment."

-- Demographic Variables: Family Composition

Convenience research examining the stage of the family life cycle as evidenced by the size of the household, the number of children present and the ages of household members has found conflicting results. Some research has indicated either positive or significant results, other research has found no significance or negative results, depending on the good or service investigated (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b; Bellante and Foster 1984; Bellizzi and Hite 1986; Douglas 1976; Marple and Wissmann 1968; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991; Strober and Weinberg 1980).

Given these conflicting findings, the hypotheses advanced here are, in part, intuitive, however they can be supported by some of the more recent services research (e.g.,

Bellante and Foster 1984; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). Intuitively, as family size increases, more workload may be spread among the family members (aged over six years), suggesting less of a motivation to acquire time and/or effort-saving services from firms. Along opposite lines, the greater the number of young children present, the more time and effort is consumed in tending to their demands, hence a greater need for convenience consumption. Given these propositions the following hypotheses are advanced:

H3: The greater the family size, the lower the level of CSO.

H4: The greater the number of young children aged 0 to 5 years, the higher the level of CSO.

Family composition was measured using question 3 in section IV of the questionnaire. The definition of "family size" as the number of persons aged 6 and over and the definition of "number of young children aged 0 to 5 years" is consistent with definitions utilized by the Consumer Expenditure Survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics as used by Bellante and Foster (1984) and Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991).

-- Lifestyle Variables: Role Overload

A more recent trend in the area of convenience research is to investigate variables that round out the description of

the convenience-oriented consumer. Such lifestyle variables are useful for strategic market segmentation and are increasingly being examined or are suggested by the research related to the convenience area. These variables, however, have yet to be examined with respect to convenient services. This investigation therefore examined the associations that role overload and leisure activity participation have on consumers' convenient service orientation (CSO).

In an examination of the methods families employ to reduce the time and energy demands of the wife, Reilly (1982) found that role overload of the wife was positively associated with ownership of time-saving durables and that ownership of time-saving durables was negatively associated with the number of convenience foods served. Role overload itself, however, was not found to be significant with respect to the amount of convenience foods served. Reilly (1982) also proposed that further research into other types of convenience consumption (such as domestic services and restaurant patronage) was warranted on the grounds that such behaviors represented alternative work-load reducing strategies.

Role overload of women was further examined by Bellizzi and Hite (1986). Interestingly, they found that although role overload was significantly related to interest in convenience products, they also found that it was significantly associated with an inconvenient (price-saving/coupon using) shopping style.

More recently, Foxman and Burns (1987) examined role load of both spouses, arguing that the original conceptualization of Reilly (1982) should be expanded in order to include the role load situations of both household decision makers. As the researchers hypothesized, the data indicated that the highest incidence of convenience items and time-saving durables occurred when both spouses were overloaded.

The question remains, however, as to the impact of role overload on the consumer's orientation for convenient services. Given the associations which have been demonstrated regarding role overload and convenience good consumption, the following hypothesis is advanced:

- H5: The greater the role-overload level of the head of the household, the higher the level of CSO.

Role overload of the head of the household was measured using Reilly's (1982) role-overload scale contained in questions 1 through 13 in Section I of the questionnaire. This scale was originally developed to measure the role overload of the wife. It is a 13-item, five-point Likert-type summated ratings scale. Item scores were summed to form an overall role-overload score. Although modified by Reilly (1982), the scale is based upon the House and Rizzo (1972) role-conflict and role-ambiguity scales which were developed for use in organizational settings.



In repeated applications, the role-overload scale has demonstrated quite strong measures of reliability. Reilly (1982) reported a Chronbach's Alpha Coefficient of .88 and item-to-total correlations ranging from .502 to .797. After removing items that had low (below .5) item-to-total correlations, Foxman and Burns (1987) reported Chronbach's Alpha Coefficients of .89 and .93 for the wife and husband scales respectively. Kaufman, Lane and Lindquist (1991) utilized Reilly's (1982) role-overload scale in an examination of polychronic time use. Their administration of the measure to 310 respondents indicated that the scale was reliable with a Chronbach's Alpha Coefficient of .86.

It should be noted here that while Reilly (1982) sought to measure the degree to which a woman perceives to be pressured due to the number of roles undertaken, the validity of the scale was not specifically assessed. As Foxman and Burns (1987) pointed out:

it is important to note that Reilly's (1982) study is the first to operationalize role load in household consumption, and the authors have seen little subsequent empirical study in this area....In other words, the construct is still in the early stages of scale development and descriptive analysis (p. 458).

However, while the scale's validity has not been firmly established, it has been noted by others that it may be a useful measure of time pressure or stress. Kaufman, Lane and Lindquist (1991) utilized Reilly's (1982) role-overload scale

in an examination of polychronic time use. Their administration of the "previously validated indicator of perceived time pressure" (p. 395) to 310 respondents indicated that the scale was reliable. "The reliability of the role-overload scale was estimated by calculation of Chronbach's alpha. The computed value in the present sample was 0.86, which favorably compares to Reilly's value of 0.88 in his Milwaukee sample" (p. 395).

Others involved with scale development and application also note that:

Until validity is assessed, there is some question whether the scale measures role overload as purported, or time pressure. The two constructs may indeed be related, but they are not the same thing....Therefore, care must be exercised in assuming too much about what this scale can say in terms of the quantity of roles played, but it does appear to indicate the degree of perceived stress despite the amount of role conflict (Bruner and Hensel 1992, p. 497).

Thus, while Reilly's (1982) role-overload scale may actually measure stress or time pressure, its application in the current investigation is still believed to be warranted in that either phenomenon may contribute to convenience consumption. Using a single "time pressure" statement, Strober and Weinberg (1980), for example, indicated that working wives were significantly different from nonworking wives in their perception of time pressures. They found that "at all income levels and lifecycle stages, working wives appear to face greater time pressures than do nonworking

wives" (p. 338). Interestingly, they also noted that working wives and nonworking wives were generally similar with respect to their purchase of labor-saving durables, meal preparation and shopping behavior.

-- Lifestyle Variables: Household Head Leisure Activity Level

As discussed in the literature review, a number of factors have contributed to the American time crunch and thereby influenced consumers' quest for convenience. One such factor is the increasing emphasis on leisure or hedonistic philosophies (Etgar 1978). Berry (1979) described the dedication to physical and mental well-being as the "me time movement" and considered it a primary motivator of the "time-buying" consumer. Fram and DuBrin (1988) also considered increasing attention to physical and mental self-improvement to be one of the three factors which have initiated the consumers quest for time-conserving products and services. Given that such "leisure" or outside activities have been proposed contributors to time scarcity and convenience consumption, their further examination is warranted.

Existing research which specifically addresses the relationship between convenience consumption and activities outside the home has been contradictory and thus inconclusive (Marple and Wissmann 1968; Anderson 1969). In connection with the wife's employment, Strober and Weinberg (1980), for example, cited evidence that employment tends to diminish

volunteer work among married women. They argue that the reduction in volunteer work may be a result of their inability to reduce time spent in other activities and is, therefore a conscious strategy pursued more often by working women, than non-working women to reduce time pressures.

When this proposition was tested by Nickols and Fox (1983), they found that working women did not tend to decrease time spent in volunteer and community work, but did decrease the time spent in social and recreational activities. The possibility exists, however, that when volunteering or other outside activities are not curtailed, that is, when the strategy of reducing outside activity time is not chosen as response to increasing time pressures, then convenience services may be purchased as an alternate time saving strategy (Etgar 1978; Strober and Weinberg 1980). Indeed, the inability (or unwillingness) to decrease time in volunteer and other outside activities may contribute to role overload, and thus increase convenience consumption (Reilly 1982). These consumption consequences have not been examined with respect to convenience-oriented services consumption.

This issue is therefore explored through the following hypothesis:

H6: The greater the leisure activity level of the head of the household, the higher the level of CSO.

This measure of household head leisure activity level

was determined by averaging the household head's numerical responses to a Leisure Activity Index (LAI) contained in section III of the questionnaire. The LAI asked each household head to indicate on a six-point scale how frequently he or she participated (by themselves and with others) over the last six months in each of 30 activities. The six frequencies on the scale were: Not at All; Less than Once a Month; About Once a Month; Several Times a Month; Several Times a Week; and Almost Every Day. This 6-point frequency measurement was selected due to the existing evidence of good convergent validity between such a recall-based leisure activity measure and diary-based indices of leisure frequency ( $r = 0.88$ ) (Bishop, Jeanrenaud and Lawson 1975). Use of similar frequency scales in subsequent leisure research is documented by Holbrook and Lehmann (1981) who used a comparable 7-point scale, but did not report on validity.

Additional support for use of a frequencies scale with leisure activity patterns is provided by Holman and Jacquart (1988) who reported that subjects found such response categories better in terms of providing an organizing structure for evaluating the amount of time they spend in each activity. The researchers' use of additional response categories were an attempt "to provide more information than the typical response categories of 'frequently, sometimes, seldom and never' without getting into the difficulty of coding presented by an open-ended question" (Holman and

Jacquart 1988, p. 76).

Use of such a frequencies scale to determine mean activity level has been suggested as an improvement to a quite common practice of using nominal checklists for leisure activities (Schaninger and Danko 1993) and more economical and simpler than the more voluminous, unwieldy recording task of using a time-diary approach (Bishop, Jeanrenaud and Lawson 1975; Holbrook and Lehmann 1981).

The 30 activities included in this index were drawn from activities contained in previous leisure indices (Danko and Schaninger 1990; Holbrook and Lehmann 1981; Schaninger and Danko 1992) which were gathered from Market Facts surveys and other psychographic studies.

-- Price-Convenience Tradeoff Variables: Value Consciousness

A concern for price, subject to some quality constraint, is a utility-based construct termed "value consciousness." More precisely, the construct pertains to "a specific concern for 'value' received (defined in terms of need-satisfying properties of the product) for price paid" (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990, p. 55). In Chapter Two, the connection between the value-consciousness construct and the consumer's willingness to pay for convenience was linked through utility theory. It was proposed there that consumers participate in a price-convenience tradeoff process which includes a value judgment as to the inherent convenience

attributes of a service which will maximize their overall utility and provide the most value. The value-consciousness conceptualization and findings indicate that:

value conscious consumers are more concerned about acquisition utility (the inherent need-satisfying properties of the product). Such a focus implies that value conscious consumers are concerned about the product's value in use over time, which is a stable characteristic of the product (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990, p. 57).

The "need-satisfying properties" of concern in this study are the inherent time-saving or effort-saving attributes of "convenient" services. A key outcome of the consumer's utility maximization and time allocation decision is the "convenience-oriented" consumer's willingness to pay a monetary price for the convenience of service provision as a substitute for self-performance or non-performance.

Support for the proposition that value consciousness may be related to a convenient service orientation was also noted in Chapter Two. The relationship between price and quality has been demonstrated in the literature in that a high level of income does not necessarily imply price indifference or a low level of price sensitivity (Anderson 1971b; Schaninger and Allen 1981; Shapiro 1968). Particularly, Anderson (1972) pointed out that the high socioeconomic status associated with a convenience orientation suggests a discriminating awareness of a price-quality interrelationship. The particularly interesting finding, which relates to consumers' value/quality

considerations, was that "convenience-oriented clothing, food, and household equipment shoppers consistently valued quality and fashion more highly than did cost-oriented shoppers" (Morganosky 1986, p. 45).

While value consciousness, as a measurable construct, has yet to be examined with respect to convenience consumption, other, related constructs have been investigated. Price consciousness has been examined with respect to the purchase of convenience goods and services in at least two studies. Douglas (1976) examined price consciousness as one of 10 attitudinal scales with respect to the purchase of 10 convenience goods and services. She found that it had no significant effect on the purchase of these products. Along similar lines, however, the research of Bellizzi and Hite (1986) suggested a relationship between role overload, price consciousness and convenient shopping style such that "those high on the role-overload scale reported more interest and activity in price-saving shopping style despite the less convenient nature of this behavior" (p. 5). This research suggests that time-constrained consumers may still exhibit a level of price-consciousness. Further, the researchers noted that those high on role overload also exhibited more interest in purchasing convenience products.

As pointed out in Chapter Two, price-consciousness, deal proneness, price sensitivity and the behaviors such as coupon clipping that are reflected in the works by Douglas (1976),



Schaninger and Allen (1981) and Bellizzi and Hite (1986) may reflect a consumer's concern for transaction utility rather than acquisition utility. While acquisition utility (the need-satisfying ability of the product in relation to price), is the foundation of value consciousness (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990), transaction utility represents the pleasure or displeasure associated with the financial terms of the deal which comes about through a comparison of an internal reference price against the purchase price (Thaler 1985). Indeed, Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) have demonstrated that, while related, value consciousness and coupon proneness represented two distinct constructs, both of which were useful in explaining purchase behaviors (Thaler 1985).

Thus, given 1) the implied relationship between convenient product usage and a related construct, price consciousness (Anderson 1972; Douglas 1976); and 2) the proposition that convenience-related consumption has been associated with other price-related consumption behaviors and a willingness to pay (Bellizzi and Hite 1986; Morganosky; Schaninger and Allen 1981); it is expected that convenience-oriented services consumers will actively participate in a price-convenience tradeoff deliberation that necessitates a value judgment which maximizes their overall utility and provides the most value. It is therefore hypothesized that:

H7: The greater the value-consciousness score of the head of household, the higher the level of CSO.

Value consciousness was measured using a scale developed by Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990). The scale, contained in questions 22 through 28 of Section I of the questionnaire, is comprised of seven items measured on a five-point, Likert-type summated ratings scale going from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Scores on the items were summed in order to form an overall value-consciousness score.

Extensive detail regarding the development and application of the scale is provided by Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990). In the development of their scale, an original pool of 33 items was reduced to a 15-item pool of items which were drawn from existing literature and screened by two panels of expert judges for redundancy and content validity. Factor analysis and various estimates of reliability were performed on the 15-item pool to further purify the scale and assess the dimensionality and internal consistency of the scale. This resulted in a 7-item value-consciousness scale. Using a student sample, composite reliability was estimated at .80 for the scale. Confirmatory factor analysis to test discriminant validity between value consciousness and coupon proneness revealed that the two constructs were related, yet distinct. The correlation between the two measures was .36. Repeated examination with a

non-student sample provided a composite reliability estimate again of .80 and supported the scale's discriminant validity (.24). Nomological validity of the scale was also exhibited in the pattern of correlations with measures of enduring involvement (.26), product knowledge (.43), price knowledge (.41), and information from "Consumer Reports Magazine" (.20).

-- Price-Convenience Tradeoff Variables: Income

An important element in the Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption (Exhibit 2.4) is the stipulation that consumers will participate in a price-convenience tradeoff process whereby they must compare the monetary cost of the service with the time and effort costs of "doing it themselves." Given that rational people will allocate their resources to maximize their utility given their time and income constraints, a relevant economic resource to be considered in services purchases, therefore, is income.

Almost without exception, total household income has been found to be positively associated with consumption of convenience goods, foods or durables (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b; Bellante and Foster 1984; Douglas 1976; Morganosky 1986; Nickols and Fox 1983; Reilly 1982; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991; Strober and Weinberg 1980). Similarly, total household income has been positively associated with the consumption of a number of convenience services (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis

1991). It is therefore proposed that:

H8: The greater the level of total household income, the higher the level of CSO.

This income variable, defined as "total household income from all sources, before taxes in 1995", was measured with question 13 in Part IV of the questionnaire. The 11 response categories provided range from "Less than \$9,999" to "Over \$100,000" and the item was coded as the midpoint of the category.

Use of similar response categories for income measurement are consistent with other convenience-related research. Nickols and Fox (1983), for example, gathered before-tax income using 14 categories. The researchers assigned the mid-point value to each family surveyed, with the exception of the highest category, where the lower limit was used because no midpoint could be determined. These midpoints were subsequently used in their regression analyses. Similarly, Reilly (1982) used the midpoints of 9 income ranges to reflect family income. Use of these midpoints was deemed appropriate for subsequent LISREL analysis. Strober and Weinberg (1980) measured total annual household income using an income index which ranged from 1 to 12 where 1 represented income of less than \$3,000 and 12 represented income of \$25,000 or more. They report that their index numbers were correlated ( $r = .98$ ) with the midpoints of the intervals.

These index numbers reflecting the income categories were subsequently used in stepwise discriminant analyses.

The present use of 11 response categories mirror the response categories provided by the Arkansas Household Research Panel (AHRP) from whom data were collected. Use of these response categories provided a frame of reference for comparisons of panel members who have responded with panel members who had not responded.

-- Price-Convenience Tradeoff Variables: Credit Usage

Another economic resource variable included in the research proposed here is the consumer's willingness to use credit. It is hypothesized that availability and use of credit is related to convenient service orientation in at least two ways. First, credit plays an important role as an economic resource. Specifically, the price-convenience tradeoff process may involve more than the consumer's consideration of his or her "actual" economic resources such as total household income. The tradeoff process may also be impacted by "potential" economic resources such as the availability and willingness to use credit. The second reason for examining consumers' credit usage is that past research has indicated that credit also plays a role as a convenient means of exchange. As such, the use of credit has been associated with convenience-related purchase behaviors and individuals with high opportunity costs of time which result

from time scarcity (Baxter, Cootner and Scott 1977; Kinsey 1981; Murphy and Ott 1977). Past research has also indicated that in-home shoppers are generally convenience-oriented in their lifestyles (Gillett 1970, 1976) and that such convenience-oriented consumers have a more positive attitude toward the use of credit (Cunningham and Cunningham 1973). If this link between credit attitude, time scarcity and convenient shopping behavior exists, then there may also be a link between credit usage and convenient service orientation. The following research hypothesis is therefore advanced:

H9: The greater the level of credit usage of the head of household, the higher the level of CSO.

Credit usage was measured using a two-item, five point, Likert-type summated ratings scale which is designed to measure a person's propensity to use credit. The scale is contained in questions 20 and 21 of Section I of the questionnaire. The scale score was calculated by averaging numerical responses to individual items. A score of 5 indicates that a person has a strong propensity to use credit, a score of 1 indicates that a consumer does not use credit. The original items used in this scale were part of Wells and Tigert's (1971) classic psychographic study. The items were used as a two-item, six point scale by Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) as well as Lumpkin (1985).

Reliability of the two-item scale was assessed by Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) with a Chronbach's Alpha Coefficient of .655. Lumpkin (1985) reported a value of .7638. Validity was assessed by these researches by way of a factor analysis of these items. Results indicated that the items loaded together.

#### Sample Framework and Design

In order to generate the data necessary to test the hypotheses proposed, married homeowners who have made service expenditures over the previous six month period were selected for this sample. Since many of the services included in the services inventory are typically associated with home ownership (e.g., lawn care, residence maintenance, etc.), it is believed that the sample must consist of home-owning households only. Similarly, because husband and wife employment commitment was particularly sought, it was also necessary that the homeowners be married. In addition, in that the purpose of this research is to examine the variables proposed to be related to convenience consumption, only consuming households (households that had expenditures on convenient services) were selected for examination in this study.

Survey data were collected from married, home-owning, services consumers using a questionnaire administered to a household panel. Use of a household panel to analyze family

consumption processes is increasing and has been recommended (Johnson 1988). Consumer household panel data have also been used in previous time-related and convenience-related consumption studies (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1972; Holbrook and Lehmann 1981; Strober and Weinberg 1980).

A number of advantages of household panels for cross-sectional (one-time) panel surveys have been cited (Churchill 1991; Johnson 1988; Tull and Hawkins 1993): panels typically have a high response rate (70 to 90 percent); they are less time-consuming and may be a lower cost alternative to other methods of sampling; due to the legitimacy of the organization maintaining the panel, panels may supply more detailed and accurate data to both neutral and sensitive questions and may thereby also reduce interviewer-respondent interaction bias; use of panels also provides the future opportunity to survey the same panel members several times (multi-wave/longitudinal studies) in order to monitor purchase behavior and attitude changes over time; and finally, use of panels allows for the collection of extensive demographic data associated with each panel member which permits the analysis of additional variables for further study (Churchill, 1991).

The main disadvantage of panels, however, is that they may not be representative. This concern stems from the initial response rate when individuals are initially asked to join a panel. Some individuals may refuse the commitment to participate. Although this may not present a problem in every



study, it is has been noted that the selection of the panel is important in dealing with the issue of nonrepresentativeness.

According to Churchill (1991), the "better" panels are ones that attempt to generate and maintain panels that are representative of the total population of interest with respect to such characteristics as age, occupation, education, etc.

The Arkansas Household Research Panel (AHRP) was selected as the sample framework. The AHRP was established in 1977 to provide academicians with a useful data source for research. The AHRP is composed of 585 households selected from Arkansas cities. As per the recommendation of Churchill (1991), this panel meets the criteria of being a "better" panel in that it is a continuously recruited proportionate, stratified, systematic, random sample of households based on the Arkansas State Planning Regions. Past users include faculty and student researchers from the University of Arkansas, Cornell University, the University of Southern California, the University of North Carolina as well as other universities around the country (Arkansas Household Research Panel, 1995).

In order that the necessary protection against both Type I and Type II errors can be obtained and to ensure that the sample sizes are large enough to detect important differences with high probability, the sample size must be planned (Neter, Wasserman and Kutner 1990). Because the research hypotheses

were tested with multiple regression analysis, Milton's (1986) sample size formula for multiple regression studies was employed. Milton's (1986) technique to sample size determination for multiple regression analysis requires specification of the estimated overall R-square of the model, the delta r-square for a variable entering the model last, and the desired significance level. For the current investigation, the overall R-square of the model was expected to be approximately .20 and the delta r-square selected was .02. The desired significance level of .05 was specified, which assumes a one-tailed test since the hypotheses provide for a direction of the relationship. Thus, using the sample size formula advocated by Milton (1986) with an estimated R-square of .20; a delta r-square of .02; and a test for Beta Coefficients at the .05 level, the appropriate sample size for multiple regression model containing nine independent variables would be 170.

Such a sample size is also supported by Hair et. al. (1992) who proposed that for multiple regression analysis several rules of thumb have been advanced "ranging from 10 to 15 observations per predictor to an absolute minimum of 4 observations per predictor" (p. 46). Under these guidelines, a model with 9 independent variables would require a sample size of 90 to 135 observations and should under no circumstances fall below 36 observations.

Similarly, Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) advocate 20 times more cases than independent variables when performing standard multiple regression and caution that 5 times more cases than independent variables represent a "bare minimum" requirement with respect to sample size (p. 128). Given this rule of thumb, 180 cases would be the desired sample size, with 45 cases representing the bare minimum.

### Data Collection

All panel members were surveyed using a mail questionnaire. The mail questionnaire technique is considered popular because it promises to secure data at a minimum of time and expense; however it is not without its advantages and disadvantages (Miller 1991). In brief, mail questionnaires permit more considered answers and permit respondents to check information; permit uniformity in question administration; and lessen interviewer effects. The disadvantages include non-returns and potential bias; time and costs considerations; and sampling error due to question misinterpretation or erroneous response (Miller 1991).

Questionnaires were distributed to all panel members during the first week of September, 1996 (see Appendix). Although distributed to all panel members, AHRP had indicated that not all of the 585 households in the panel are married and own homes. Thus it was anticipated that less than the full panel would meet the criteria of being married, home-

owning, services consumers. Only those respondents who met the criteria of being married, home-owning, services consumers were to be used for subsequent hypotheses testing and analyses.

In total, 383 of the 585 households returned completed, usable questionnaires (65.5%). Of those, 252 were married, home-owning households. From these 252 households, 181 households were selected for further examination in that they made convenient service expenditures during the six-month period of study. Thus, the 181 households utilized in the final sample, was of sufficient size, and exceeded the 150 necessary to meet the sample size requirements for multiple regression advocated by Milton (1986). This sample size also exceeds the 20 cases per independent variable guideline advanced by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989).

The questionnaire consisted of four major sections (see Appendix). Section I surveyed consumer opinions and attitudes. Section II operationalized the dependent variable, CSO, by asking a number of questions regarding the respondent's service usage. Section III surveyed the household head's leisure activity level. Section IV sought to collect household characteristics and demographic information.

Respondents were asked to complete the entire questionnaire and return it to the panel administrator as per the panel guidelines. Completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher during the last week of September.

## Analytical Procedures

An advantage of using panel data in this investigation is that it enables the researcher to compare certain demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents with the panel in total. A data file (provided by AHRP) contained the household demographics and an ID number for each household. In order to compare the characteristics of the initial responding sample with those of the panel from which it was drawn, a number of t-tests and Chi-square tests were performed. These tests examined differences, between survey-responding panel members and panel members who did not respond to survey, in terms of household income, education of male head of household, education of female head of household, age of male head of household, age of female head of household, number of children at home, number of children living away, age of youngest child, marital status, and race.

The hypotheses proposed herein were examined using multiple regression analyses. An important first step in using multiple regression analysis involves examining the data and identifying any substantial departures from the assumptions of the model. Therefore, in order to determine the validity of the assumptions for the various analytical techniques employed in this study, the data were examined for normality, equal variance, linearity and multicollinearity. Any serious violations of the assumptions that were detected were corrected and reported.

In that a number of scales were used in this analysis, it was necessary to examine them for dimensionality. Specifically, the factor structures of Reilly's (1982) role-overload scale, Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton's (1990) value-consciousness scale, and Hawes and Lumpkin's (1984) credit-usage scale were assessed. Confirmatory factor analysis was also employed to determine if, indeed, the dimensional nature of the constructs was confirmed, and if purification of the scales appeared warranted.

As indicated in the development of the research hypotheses, all three scales have provided evidence of their reliability in previous applications. Nevertheless, it is useful to determine the reliability of a scale in different applications. Therefore, the internal consistency of the Reilly (1982) role-overload scale, the Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) value-consciousness scale, and the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) credit-usage scale were assessed utilizing Coefficient Alphas.

In order to assess two aspects of construct validity, correlation analysis was used to find evidence of convergent validity and nomological validity of the scales employed in this research. In order to examine the Reilly (1982) role-overload scale for evidence of convergent validity, the Strober and Weinberg (1980) single-item time pressure measure was included in the questionnaire (question 14, Section I). For the purposes of examining how closely Lichtenstein,

Netemeyer and Burton's (1990) value-consciousness scale correlated with a theoretically-related construct, price consciousness, the four-item measure used by Dickerson and Gentry (1983) was included in the questionnaire (questions 16, 17, 18, and 19, Section I), as was the Douglas (1976) single-item measure of price consciousness (question 15, Section I).

Due to the importance of the "CSO" expenditure variable in the current investigation, "CSO" was also measured on an index using a 5-point likert-type summated ratings scale. Consumer purchase frequency of six convenient services were measured on a scale ranging from "very seldom" to "very often" (see Section II of questionnaire, Appendix). Such "multiple measures" techniques are advocated by Churchill (1991) who argued that:

if the trait or construct exists, it is also true that it should be measurable by several different methods. These methods should be independent insofar as possible. If they are all measuring the same construct, though, they should have a high level of correlation. This provides evidence of convergent validity, which is defined as "the confirmation of a relationship by independent measurement procedures" (p. 494).

Consequently, the extent to which the purchase frequency index score correlated with dollar expenditures on convenient services was expected to provide some evidence of convergent validity of the two measures of "CSO."

In that nomological validity refers to the "extent to which a scale correlates in theoretically predicted ways with

measures of different but related constructs," (Malhotra 1993, p. 310), the nomological validity of the Reilly (1982) role-overload scale, the Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) value-consciousness scale, and the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) credit-usage scale were assessed through the tests of the research hypotheses. It was expected that if the hypotheses related to the scales were confirmed, additional evidence of this type of construct validity would thus be provided.

In order to test the hypotheses proposed in this chapter, multiple regression analysis was employed. Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique that may be utilized to examine the relationship between a single metric dependent variable and a set of metric independent variables (Hair et. al. 1992). Once the assumptions of the model were satisfied, the were analyzed using SPSS Regression utilizing the standard, or simultaneous model such that all of the independent variables entered into the regression equation at once. This strategy was chosen as the most suitable approach to examining the relationships between the various demographic, lifestyle, and price-convenience tradeoff variables and consumers' convenient service orientation (as indicated in "The Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption," Exhibit 3.5). In a research situation such as this one, standard multiple regression is deemed appropriate when it is used to answer two fundamental questions: 1) what is the size of the overall relationship between the dependent



variable and the independent variables as a group? and; 2) how much of the relationship is contributed uniquely by each independent variable? (Tabachnick and Fidell 1989). As noted by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989): "To simply assess relationships among variables, and answer the basic question of multiple correlation, the method of choice is standard multiple regression (p. 150).

Previous researchers have suggested that studies involving labor force participation and services expenditures should control for the presence of factors such as age and education (Bellante and Foster 1984). Their findings suggest that "studies that do not control of these factors may be attributing explanatory power to labor force status itself that ought properly to be attributed to variables which influence labor force status" (Bellante and Foster 1984, p. 705). Given these cautions, education and age were examined for their impact on the regression model.

THE CONVENIENCE ORIENTATION OF SERVICES CONSUMERS: AN  
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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

This chapter presents the findings of the data analysis and provides interpretations of these results. This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section examines the sample's characteristics, the response rate, and discusses non-response bias. The second section examines the psychometric properties of the measures utilized in terms of confirmatory factor analyses, reliability analyses, and validity. The third section assesses any departures from the assumptions of the various analytical techniques employed in this study. The fourth section presents the regression results, the tests of the research hypotheses advanced, and addresses the nomological validity of the scales used in these tests. The fifth section summarizes the findings of the chapter.

Characteristics of the Respondents and Response Rate

The Arkansas Household Research Panel (AHRP) was selected as the sample framework for this study. At the time of the administration of the mail questionnaire (September, 1996), the membership of the AHRP had been updated to more accurately reflect the households in the Arkansas State Planning Regions. Previous non-responding households were

dropped from the panel and new members were recruited. Such a process is consistent with good panel administration (Churchill 1991). At the time of the mailing of the research instrument used in this study, the updated panel consisted of 585 Arkansas households.

A total of 585 questionnaires were mailed to panel members. In total, 383 household panel members returned usable questionnaires (a 65.5% response rate).

Non-response bias was examined by comparing the characteristics of respondents and non-respondents. Using a data file (provided by AHRP) that contained demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of panel members and a panel ID number, the returned questionnaires were coded according to panel ID numbers to determine differences. Seven T-tests and three Chi-square tests were performed comparing the respondents and non-respondents. No statistically significant differences were found between the respondents and non-respondents with regard to most of the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics examined. Specifically, there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in terms of the following: 1) household income; 2) number of children living at home; 3) number of children living away from home; 4) age of youngest child; 5) marital status; 6) education of male head of household; and 7) education of female head of household. A significant difference was found with regard to: 8) age of male head of

household; 9) age of female head of household; and 10) race of the head of household. The T-Tests indicated that male and female respondents tended to be older than non-respondents, suggesting that younger consumers may have been underrepresented. With respect to race differences, the Chi-Square results indicate that non-whites may have been underrepresented in the current investigation. The results of these analyses are depicted in Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

As indicated in Chapter Three, although data were sought from all household panel members, only those panel members who met the criteria of being married, home-owning, service-consuming households were used in the subsequent analyses. This resulted in a sample size of 181 married, home-owning, service-consuming households. Characteristics of this sample are provided in Table 4.3.

#### Psychometric Properties of the Measures

This section examines the psychometric properties of three measures utilized in this study: Reilly's (1982) role overload scale; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton's (1990) value consciousness scale; and Hawes and Lumpkin's (1984) credit usage scale. Specifically, reliability of the measures was assessed, the measures were examined via confirmatory factor analyses in order to determine if the dimensional natures of the constructs were confirmed, and convergent validity between certain measures and theoretically-related

TABLE 4.1  
NON-RESPONSE BIAS (T-TEST)

CHARACTERISTICS	MEAN RESPONDENTS (N=363)	MEAN NON- RESPONDENTS (N=112)	T- VALUE	P- VALUE
HOUSEHOLD INCOME	\$42,926	\$41,422	.593	.554
BIRTHYEAR OF MALE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD	1941.55	1947.12	2.840*	.005
BIRTHYEAR OF FEMALE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD	1942.86	1948.71	3.249*	.001
NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME	.725	.679	.367	.714
NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING AWAY FROM HOME	1.45	1.24	1.154	.249
AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD	18.03	15.53	1.450	.148

\* significant  $p \leq .05$

TABLE 4.2  
NON-RESPONSE BIAS (CHI-SQUARE)

CHARACTERISTICS	% OF RESPONDENTS (N=363)	% OF NON-RESPONDENTS (N=112)
EDUCATION OF MALE		
HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD		
High school graduate or less	36.9	39.3
Some College	25.5	23.8
College graduate (4-year)	23.7	21.4
Post graduate college degree	13.9	15.5
	Chi-square = .441 p = .932 (not significant)	
EDUCATION OF FEMALE		
HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD		
High school graduate or less	33.5	44.2
Some College	32.6	29.5
College graduate (4-year)	18.6	15.8
Post graduate college degree	15.2	10.5
	Chi-square = 4.044 p = .257 (not significant)	
MARITAL STATUS		
Married	71.3	67.9
Divorced or Separated	10.5	17.0
Widowed	11.0	8.9
Never Married	7.2	6.3
	Chi-square = 3.616 p = .306 (not significant)	
RACE		
White	91.7	84.8
Non-white	8.3	15.2
	Chi-square = 4.589* p = .032 (significant)	

\* significant  $p \leq .05$

TABLE 4.3  
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE  
(N=181)

CHARACTERISTICS	PERCENT
GENDER	
MALE	53.6
FEMALE	46.4
AGE	
UNDER 25	.6
25-34	10.0
35-44	20.5
45-54	20.6
55-64	24.4
65 AND OVER	23.9
EDUCATION	
COMPLETED GRAMMAR SCHOOL	0.0
SOME HIGH SCHOOL	1.7
HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE	19.9
SOME COLLEGE	28.7
COLLEGE GRADUATE (4-YEAR DEGREE)	21.5
SOME POST GRADUATE WORK	7.7
POST GRADUATE DEGREE (MASTER'S, PHD, LAW, ETC.)	20.5
RESIDENCE	
URBAN	41.9
SUBURBAN	34.6
RURAL	23.5
HOUSEHOLD INCOME	
LESS THAN \$9,999	0.0
\$10,000 TO \$19,999	3.4
\$20,000 TO \$29,999	7.4
\$30,000 TO \$39,999	10.2
\$40,000 TO \$49,999	24.4
\$50,000 TO \$59,999	16.5
\$60,000 TO \$69,999	11.9
\$70,000 TO \$79,999	9.7
\$80,000 TO \$89,999	5.7
\$90,000 TO \$99,999	4.0
OVER \$100,000	6.8

constructs was measured. Convergent validity of the CSO measure was assessed through a multiple measures technique. Nomological validity of the measures was also assessed through tests of the research hypotheses, which are discussed in the Regression Results section.

Role Overload: One contribution of this study is to provide further tests of the scales adopted in this research. In this vein, the reliability of Reilly's (1982) role overload scale was assessed in the same way Reilly (1982) assessed the original. Using item-to-total correlations, Reilly (1982) retained items with correlations above .502, consequently a cutoff of .50 was used. Table 4.4 lists the thirteen items in the role overload scale, Reilly's (1982) reported correlations and Coefficient Alpha, and the correlations and Coefficient Alpha of the scale in the present application. All thirteen items demonstrated item-to-total correlations above .50. Reliability analysis of the scale in its present application indicated a Coefficient Alpha of .9273. This compares favorably with Reilly's (1982) .88. Given the acceptable correlations and Coefficient Alpha, purification of the scale appeared unwarranted.

Although previous researchers have failed to discuss dimensionality or factor structures in their applications of the role-overload scale (e.g., Bellizzi and Hite 1986; Foxman and Burns 1987; Kaufman, Lane and Lindquist 1991; Reilly 1982), a confirmatory factor analysis of the measure was



TABLE 4.4

## ITEM-TO-TOTAL CORRELATIONS FOR ROLE-OVERLOAD SCALE

ITEM	REILLY (1982)	STUDY
1. I have to do things that I don't really have the time and energy for.	.631	.705
2. There are too many demands on my time.	.731	.789
3. I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me.	.797	.807
4. I can't ever seem to get caught up.	.697	.746
5. I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.	.629	.737
6. There are times when I cannot meet everyone's expectations.	.595	.622
7. Sometimes I feel as if there are not enough hours in the day.	.502	.735
8. Many times I have to cancel my commitments.	.558	.549
9. I seem to have to overextend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.	.679	.772
10. I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the other people I know.	.544	.623
11. I find myself having to prepare priority lists (lists which tell me which thing I should do first) to get done all the things I have to do. Otherwise, I forget because I have so much to do.	.555	.522
12. I feel I have to do things hastily and maybe less carefully in order to get everything done.	.684	.608
13. I just can't find the energy in me to do all the things expected of me.	.689	.596
RELIABILITY (13 ITEMS) Coefficient Alpha	0.88	.9273

conducted. It was assumed, from previous applications of the scale, that the role overload construct would be unidimensional in nature. The one-factor structure which emerged supported this expectation.

Examination of the confirmatory factor analysis results indicated that the one-factor solution provided better interpretability and reliability than did a two-factor solution. Specifically, the confirmatory factor analysis, which specified that one factor be extracted, provided initial statistics which indicated that one factor (eigenvalue of 7.058) explained 54.3% of the variation in the data.

Reilly's role-overload scale was also assessed for evidence of convergent validity. Given that role overload has been likened to time pressure by a number of researchers, (e.g., Kaufman, Lane and Lindquist 1991; Reilly 1982), convergent validity was assessed via a correlation analysis between the Strober and Weinberg (1980) single-item time-pressure measure and Reilly's (1982) role-overload scale. After correcting for reverse scoring of the time-pressure measure, evidence of convergent validity was established in that the correlation between the two measures was .508 ( $p=.000$ ).

Value Consciousness: The Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) value-consciousness scale is still in its formative stages of development. Thus, it is important to examine this scale for reliability, factor structure,

validity, and to utilize the scale in new applications. The reliability of this scale, therefore, was assessed in the same manner as was used by its originators and the results compared.

In their development of the scale, Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) assessed item-to-total correlations, and retained items with corrected item-to-total correlations greater than or equal to .40. Consequently a cutoff of .40 was used. Table 4.5 lists the seven items in the value-consciousness scale, the original Coefficient Alpha of the scale, and the correlations and Coefficient Alpha of the scale in the present application. All but one of the seven items demonstrated item-to-total correlations above .55, exceeding the originators' cutoff of .40. Item 1 of the scale, however, had a corrected item-to-total correlation of .36. While this correlation is below the .40 cutoff, it comes sufficiently close to be retained. Reliability analysis of the scale in its present application indicated a Coefficient Alpha of .8283. This compares favorably with Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton's (1990) .80. Removal of item 1 from the scale would improve the reliability of the scale, bringing it to .8336. However, the reliability of the scale, without removal of item 1, still exceeded the reliability of the scale in its original application. Thus, given the acceptable Coefficient Alpha, the strong correlations of six of the items, and the nearly acceptable correlation of the first

TABLE 4.5

## ITEM-TO-TOTAL CORRELATIONS FOR VALUE-CONSCIOUSNESS SCALE

ITEM	STUDY
1. I am very concerned about low prices, but I am equally concerned about product quality.	.361
2. When grocery shopping, I compare prices of different brands to be sure I get the best value for the money.	.683
3. When purchasing a product, I always try to maximize the quality I get for the money I spend.	.585
4. When I buy products, I like to be sure that I am getting my money's worth.	.553
5. I generally shop around for lower prices on products, but they still must meet certain quality requirements before I will buy them.	.578
6. When I shop, I usually compare the "price per ounce" information for brands I normally buy.	.576
7. I always check prices at the grocery store to be sure I get the best value for the money I spend.	.715
RELIABILITY (7 ITEMS)	
Coefficient Alpha - Study	.8283
Coefficient Alpha - Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990)	.80

item, purification of the scale was not undertaken.

A confirmatory factor analysis of the value-consciousness measure was conducted in order to evaluate the dimensionality or factor structure of this application of the value-consciousness scale. The unidimensional nature of the construct that was identified in its original application (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990) was confirmed.

Examination of the confirmatory factor analysis results indicated that the one-factor solution provided better interpretability and reliability than did a two-factor solution. Specifically, the confirmatory factor analysis, which specified that one factor be extracted, provided initial statistics which indicated that one factor (eigenvalue of 3.505) explained 50.1% of the variation in the data.

In order to examine how closely Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton's (1990) value consciousness scale correlated with a theoretically related construct, price-consciousness, convergent validity was assessed via a correlation analysis between value consciousness and the four-item price-consciousness measure used by Dickerson and Gentry (1983) and the single-item measure utilized by Douglas (1976). Evidence of convergent validity was established in that the correlation between value consciousness and Dickerson and Gentry's (1983) price-consciousness scale was .667 ( $p=.000$ ). The correlation between Douglas' (1976) price-consciousness measure and value consciousness was .395 ( $p=.000$ ) and also

provided evidence of convergent validity.

Credit Usage: This study also seeks to provide further tests of the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) credit-usage scale. The reliability of scale was assessed using reliability analysis, the same way Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) assessed the original. The two items contained in the scale were "I buy many things with a credit card or a charge card," and "It is good to have charge accounts." Reliability analysis of the scale in its present application indicated a Coefficient Alpha of .4122. This reliability is low compared with Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) who reported .655 and Lumpkin (1985) who reported .764 and falls below the .70 threshold established by Nunnally (1978). Given that the scale is comprised of only two items, removal of items with low correlations was not an option. Indeed, the low corrected item-to-total correlation of .264, and the low Coefficient Alpha, call for caution when using this scale. The alpha of this scale may have been influenced by either the extent of covariation among the items or the number of items in the scale, with shorter scales tending to be less reliable (DeVellis 1991). It is also possible that the items in the scale may not have been clearly written or may not be measuring the same underlying construct (Nunnally 1978). The results of this reliability assessment cast doubt on any further analysis with this scale. Interpretation of this scale as a reliable measure of the credit usage construct would be suspect. Use of measures with low reliability also

reduces statistical power for a given sample size, relative to more reliable measures, and introduces relatively more error in any subsequent statistical analysis (DeVellis 1991).

With respect to the validity of the credit usage scale, previous researchers indicated that the content (face) validity was determined to be adequate and that in factor analysis, the scale items loaded together (Hawes and Lumpkin 1984; Lumpkin 1985). A confirmatory factor analysis of the measure was conducted in order to determine if this result would be confirmed. Examination of the factor analysis results indicated that the two items loaded together. One factor had an eigenvalue greater than one (1.264) and it explained 63.2% of the variation in the data.

Thus while these factor analysis results provide some evidence of factorial validity, the low level of internal consistency of the two-item scale may indicate problems with content validity and therefore construct validity. Churchill (1991) pointed out that proper construction of a measurement instrument requires that the domain of a construct be adequately sampled and that there be internal consistency among the items of the domain. This may not have been accomplished by the scale developers. Further, Churchill (1991) has asserted that internal consistency is an issue in determining content validity, such that the lack of reliability provides negative evidence of the validity of a measure. "[A]s a matter of fact, negative evidence of the

content validity of a measure also provides negative evidence about its construct validity" (Churchill 1991, p. 492). Nunnally (1978) has also pointed out that "consistency is a necessary but not sufficient condition for construct validity" (Nunnally 1978, p. 109).

Due to the reliability and validity issues surrounding the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) credit-usage scale, use of the items as a scale measuring the credit-usage construct should be undertaken with care. Until issues of content and construct validity can be addressed through further refinement and testing of the scale, the items were treated as individual statements of behavior and attitude with respect to credit cards, charge cards or charge accounts, and were not interpreted as reflective of a latent construct. Thus, for the purposes of further analysis, the credit-usage variable was replaced with the sub-variables "credit behavior" or CRED1 and "credit attitude" or CRED2.

Convenient Service Orientation ("CSO"): Due to the importance of the CSO expenditure variable in the current investigation, the convergent validity of the CSO measure was assessed through a multiple-measures technique. Churchill (1991) argued that if a construct exists, different independent measurement methods should be able to measure it, and that a high level of correlation between the two measures would provide evidence of convergent validity. To assess the validity of the CSO expenditure measure, a purchase frequency



index of convenient services was incorporated into the questionnaire. The extent to which the purchase frequency index score correlated with dollar expenditures for convenient services (CSO) was .544 ( $p=.000$ ). In that households may perceive their purchase frequency to be high (very often) or low (very seldom) considering their income, a partial correlation analysis was conducted controlling for the effect of total household income. The correlation between the CSO expenditure measure and the purchase frequency index of convenient services increased to .679 ( $p=.000$ ) when controlling for income. Such a strong correlation between CSO and the purchase frequency index provides evidence of convergent validity via independent measurement procedures.

#### Assessment of Assumption Violations

In order to assess the fit of the data to the assumptions of multiple regression analysis, the data were examined for normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity. The data were also examined for the presence of multicollinearity. The normality assumption requires that the residuals be normally distributed about the predicted dependent variable scores (Tabachnick and Fidell 1989). The first step in the assessment of the normality of the error term distribution was an examination of a histogram of the standardized residuals. As Figure 4.1 indicates, this visual check for a distribution approximating the normal distribution provided evidence of a

non-normal distribution of the model's error terms. Further visual evidence of problems with normality were apparent with an examination of the normal probability plot of the model's residuals (see Figure 4.2). This examination indicated that the data did not meet the criteria of being normally distributed. The visual analysis of non-normality was supported by the statistical values of the distribution's level of skewness (2.067) and kurtosis (6.302). The skewness and kurtosis exhibited by the standardized residuals indicated a strong positive skew with a more peaked distribution than normal.

In order to overcome the limitations that non-normality can place on inference and in order to lessen the effect that non-normality can have on contributing to heteroscedasticity, the offending variable(s) had to be detected and corrected. An examination of the distributions of the individual variables indicated that a transformation of the CSO variable was necessary. Various types of data transformations were attempted, and it was determined that the logarithmic transformation held the most promise for reducing the effects of non-normality of the type exhibited. The logarithmic transformation of the CSO variable (LOGCSO) produced skewness and kurtosis values nearest to zero (skewness  $-.238$ ; kurtosis  $-.291$ ) and provided graphical evidence of data approaching normality (see Figures 4.3 and 4.4). It is important to point out here, that the use of a logarithmic transformation

FIGURE 4.1

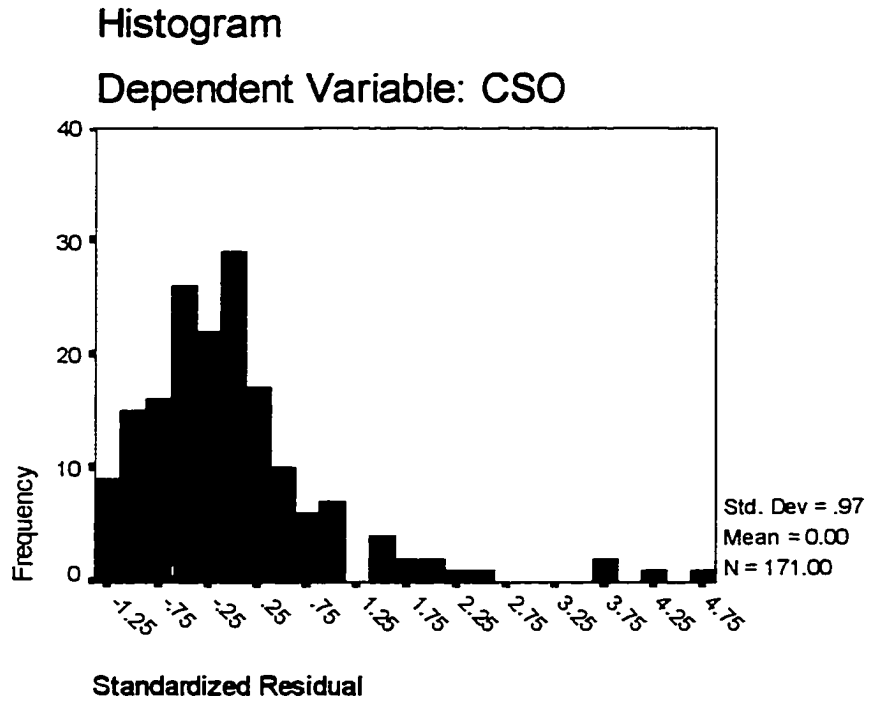


FIGURE 4.2

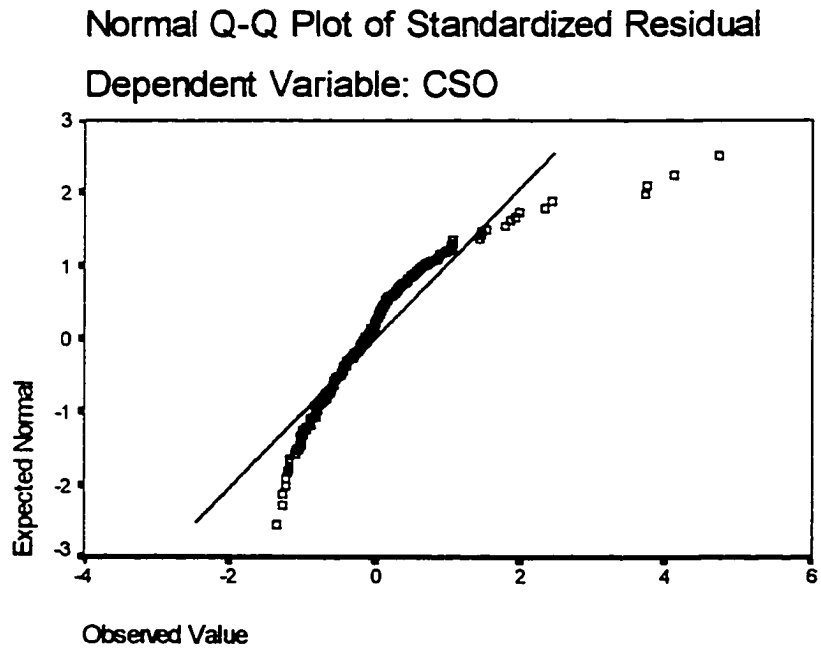


FIGURE 4.3

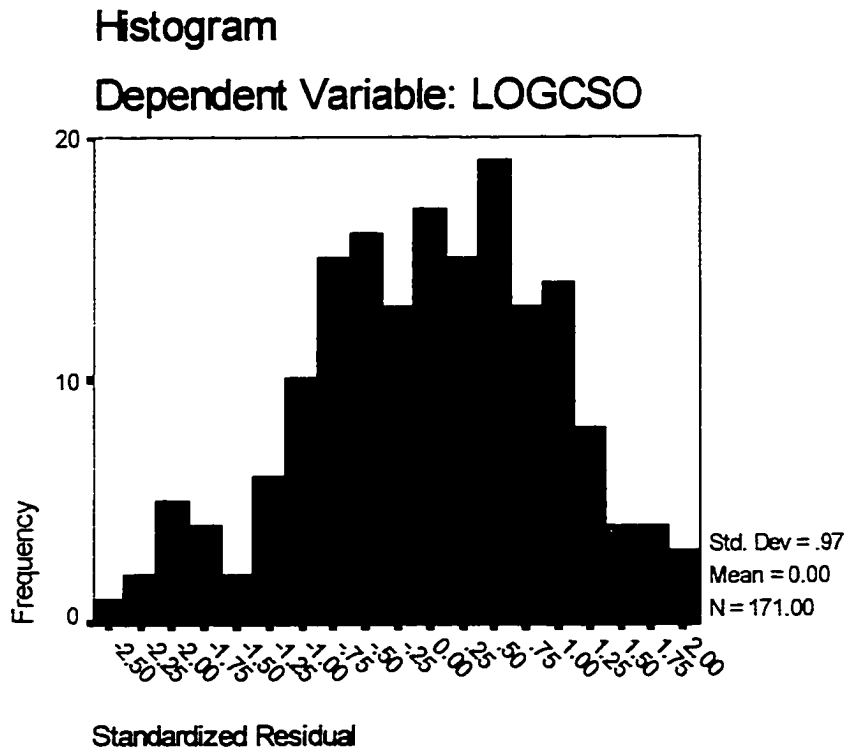
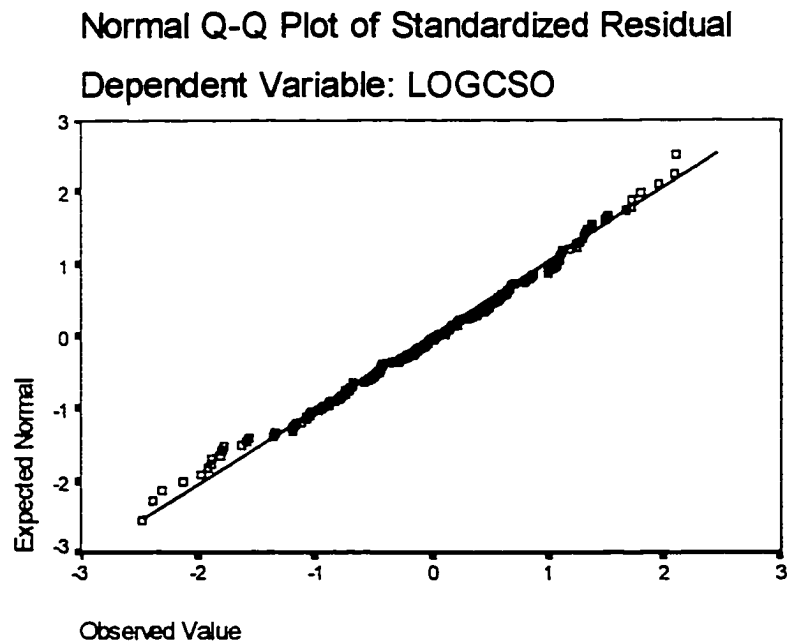


FIGURE 4.4



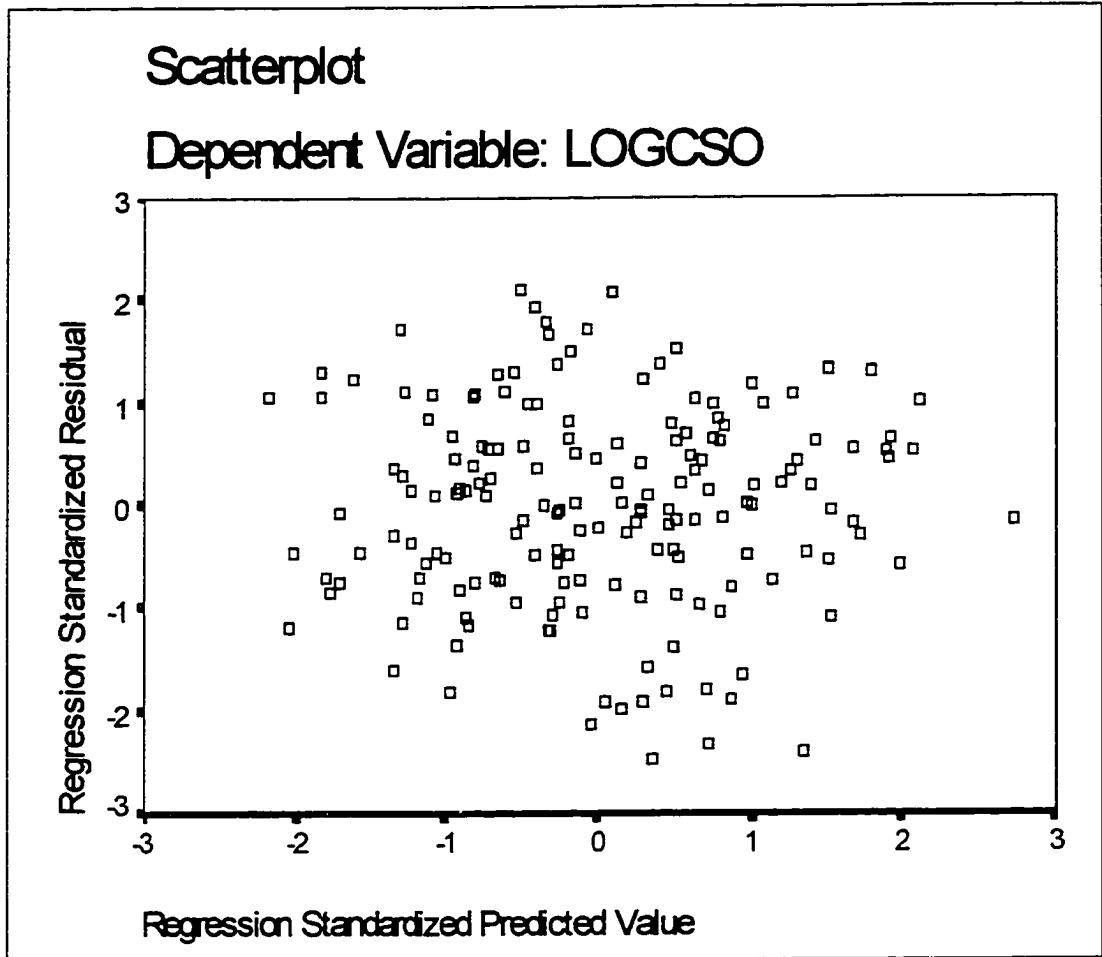
has its limitations in that such a transformation increases the difficulty of interpretation of the LOGCSO variable.

The next step in the assessment of assumption violations, was to examine the data for homoscedasticity. The assumption of homoscedasticity requires that the variance of the residuals about predicted dependent variable scores be roughly the same for all predicted scores (Tabachnick and Fidell 1989). In order to test for the assumption of homoscedasticity, an examination of the residuals was undertaken to determine if there was constancy of the residuals across values of the predictor variables. An examination of the residuals (Figure 4.5) showed no pattern of increasing or decreasing residuals, thus indicating homoscedasticity in the multivariate case (Hair et. al. 1992, p. 71).

Another important assumption of multiple regression is the linearity of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. In order to assess linearity, it is useful to examine the residuals for any consistent curvilinear pattern. Examination of the residual plot contained in Figure 4.5 provided no evidence of a nonlinear relationship between the dependent variable (LOGCSO) and the independent variables, when considering the combined effects of the independent variables as a group. This pattern of the residuals thus assured that the overall equation was essentially linear.

For multiple regression with more than one independent

FIGURE 4.5



variable, however, it is also advised that the researcher look for linearity not only with respect to the combined effects of the independent variables, but also with respect to each independent variable separately (Hair et. al. 1992). This was achieved by examining partial plots which explored the relationships of each independent variable with the dependent variable. The partial plots depicted in Figures 4.6 through 4.15 indicated that the relationships between LOGCSO and each of the independent variables were essentially linear. Although some of the variables, such as HOURH, ACTIV, VALUE, and HHINC, exhibited slightly better defined relationships than the other variables, in terms of the slope and scatter, no variables exhibited a distinctly nonlinear pattern. Thus, the assumption of linearity for each independent variable was considered to be met.

Another important consideration with respect to multiple regression is the issue of multicollinearity. In order to detect the presence of an association among the independent variables, the correlation matrix was examined for high correlations (.90 or over) as recommended by Hair et. al. (1992). None of the independent variables investigated by the multiple regression model exhibited a high correlation (.90 or over) with any of the other independent variables. The variables which exhibited the highest level of collinearity were HOURH and HOURW at .523 ( $p=.000$ ).

FIGURE 4.6

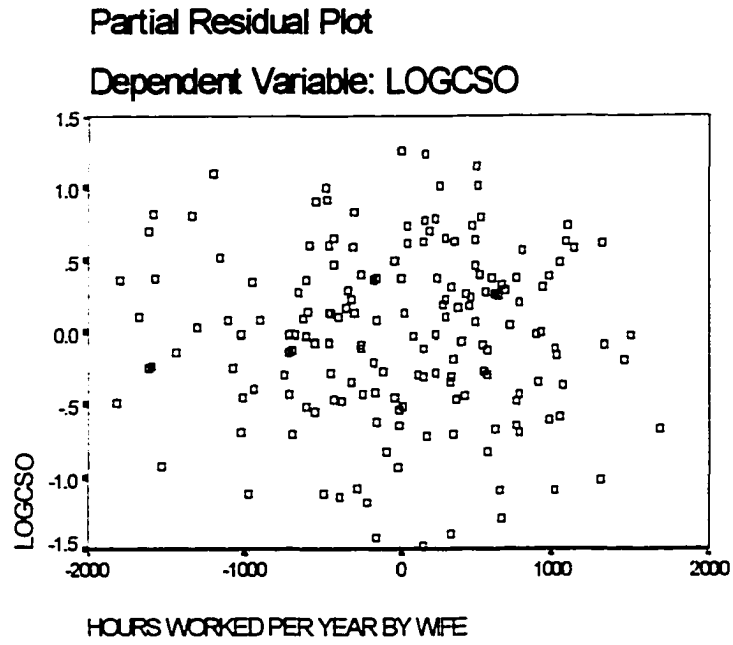


FIGURE 4.7

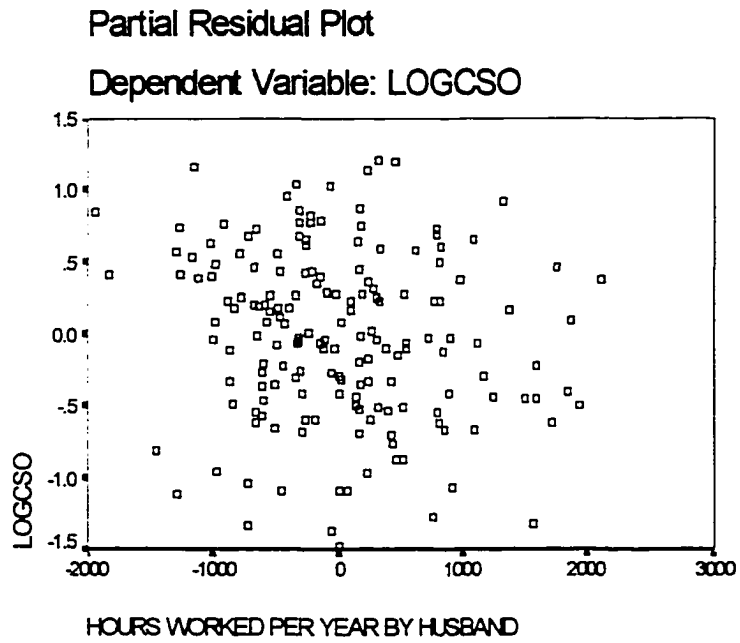




FIGURE 4.8

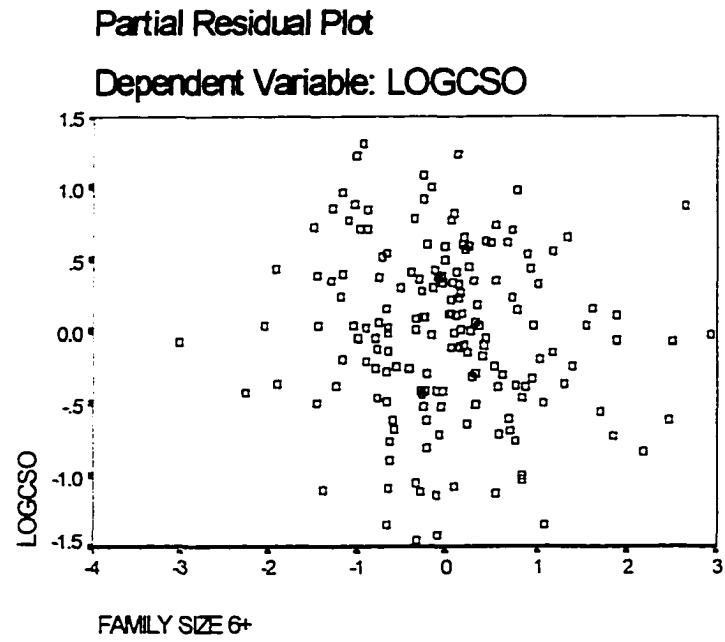


FIGURE 4.9

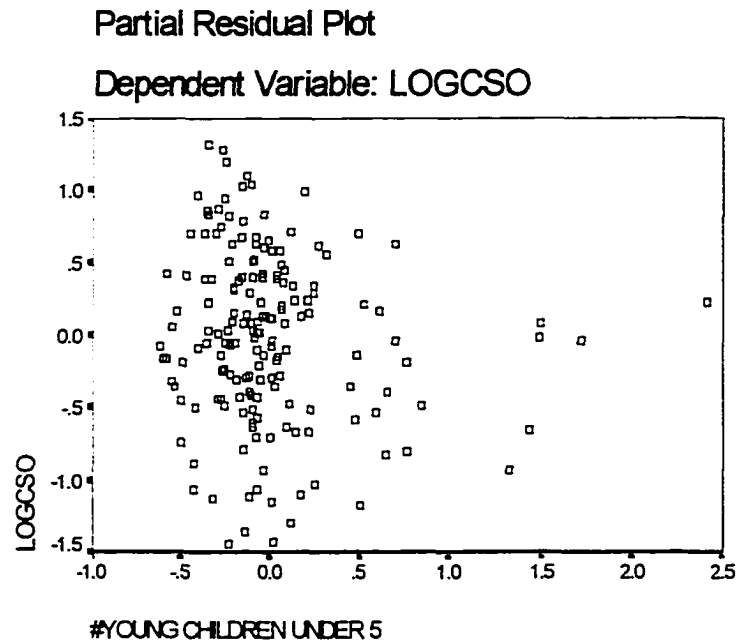


FIGURE 4.10

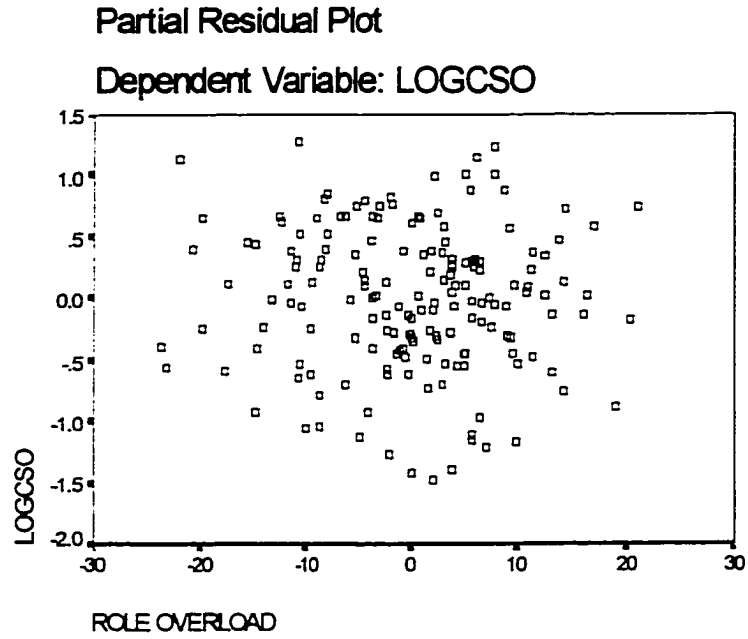


FIGURE 4.11

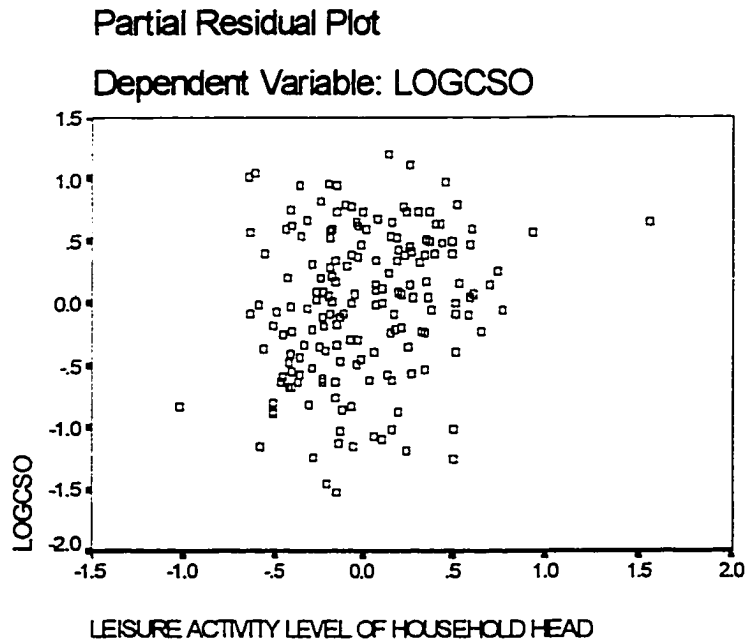


FIGURE 4.12

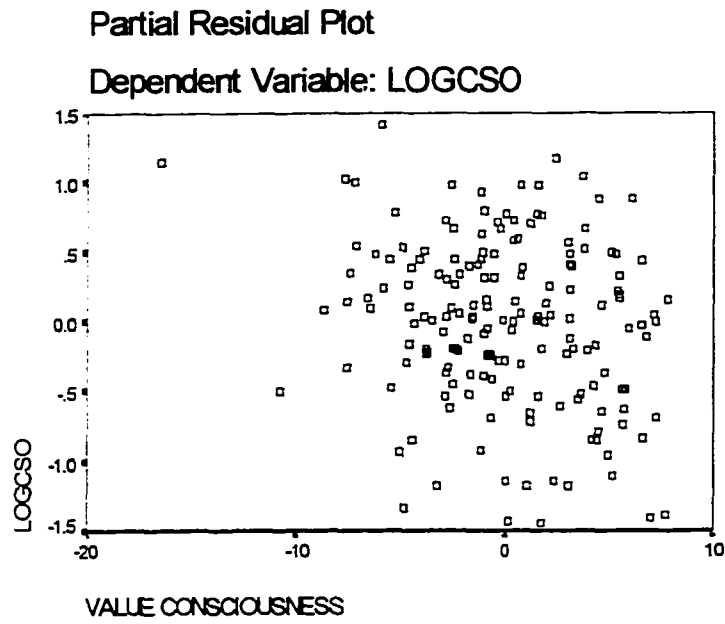


FIGURE 4.13

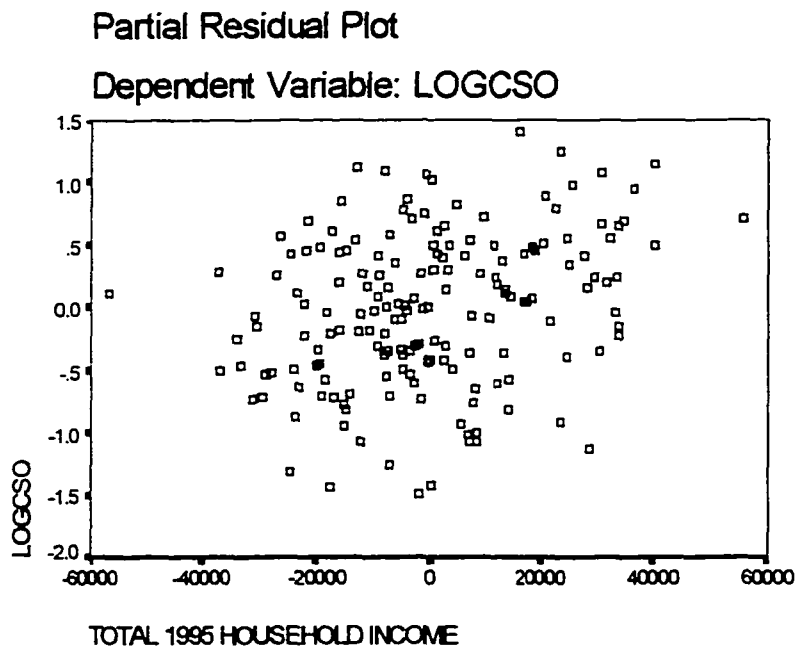


FIGURE 4.14

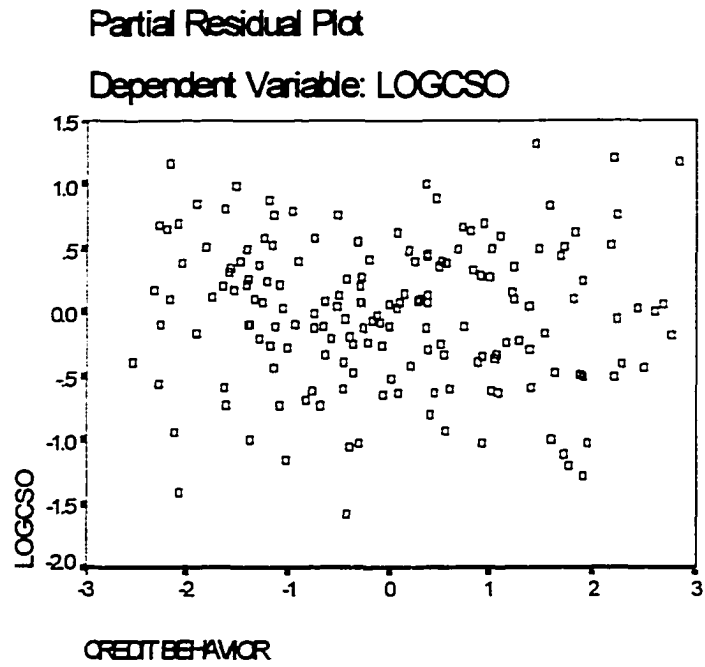
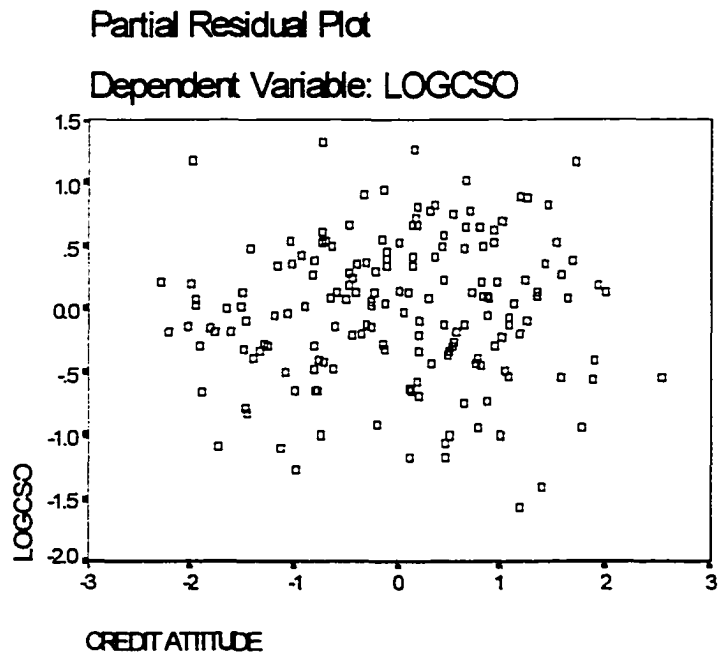


FIGURE 4.15



In order to explore the issue of multicollinearity further, the tolerance values of each independent variable were measured. "Tolerance is the amount of variability of the selected independent variable not explained by the other independent variables. Thus very small tolerance values denote high collinearity" (Hair et. al. 1992). None of the independent variables had tolerances below .499 and thus, all variables fell well above the generally accepted tolerance cutoffs of .10 and .19 (Hair et. al. 1992). Thus, all the assumptions of multiple regression were considered to be satisfied and multicollinearity was not deemed to be an issue in the current investigation.

The variable codings, operational definitions, statistics, and tolerances are presented in Tables 4.6 and 4.7.

### Regression Results

Previous research has indicated that many variables influence the convenience consumption of American consumers. In order to contribute to the development of a relatively comprehensive profile of the convenience-oriented services consumer, this study examined the association of nine separate demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff variables with the convenient service orientation of married, home-owning, services consumers ("LOGCSO"). These variables

TABLE 4.6

## VARIABLE CODINGS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>OPERATIONAL DEFINITION</u>
LOGCSO	Logarithmic transformation of total household expenditures on six convenient services (clothing care, auto cleaning, domestic services, lawn care, residence maintenance, carpet cleaning) over a six month period. Descriptions of each service were contained in Section II of the questionnaire (see appendix for questionnaire), data were captured by summing numerical (\$) responses to questions 1 through 6 of Section II of the questionnaire.
HOURW	Total number of hours worked in 1995 by the wife. Captured by multiplying the average number of hours worked per week in 1995 by the number of weeks worked in 1995, as indicated by the numerical responses to questions 9 and 10 (for female respondents) or questions 11 and 12 (for male respondents) of Section IV of the questionnaire.
HOURH	Total number of hours worked in 1995 by the husband. Captured by multiplying the average number of hours worked per week in 1995 by the number of weeks worked in 1995, as indicated by the numerical response to questions 9 and 10 (for male respondents) or questions 11 and 12 (for female respondents) of Section IV of the questionnaire.
FAMSZ	Number of persons in the household aged six and over. Captured by summing numerical responses to: "including yourself, how many persons reside in your household who are: ages 6 to 12 years; ages 13 to 17 years; ages over 18 years," as contained in question 3 in Section IV of the questionnaire.
YCHLD	Number of persons in the household aged zero to five. Captured by summing numerical responses to: "including yourself, how many persons reside in your household who are: ages 0 to 2 years; ages 3 to 5 years," as contained in question 3 in Section IV of the questionnaire.

TABLE 4.6 (Cont.)

## VARIABLE CODINGS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>OPERATIONAL DEFINITION</u>
ROLE	Role Overload scale score of household head. Captured by summing responses to a 13-item scale, developed by Reilly (1982), contained in questions 1 through 13 in Section I of the questionnaire. Measured on a five-point Likert-type summated ratings scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.
ACTIV	Leisure activity level of household head. Captured by averaging the responses to a 30-item leisure activity index of 30 common leisure and recreational activities contained in questions 1 through 30 in Section III of the questionnaire. Measured on a six-point summated rating scale for frequency of participation over a six month period, which included (1) not at all; (2) less than once a month; (3) about once a month; (4) several times a month; (5) several times a week; (6) almost every day.
VALUE	Value consciousness scale score of the household head. Captured by summing responses to a 7-item scale, developed by Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990), contained in questions 22 through 28 in Section I of the questionnaire. Measured on a five-point Likert-type summated ratings scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.
HHINC	Total household income from all sources, before taxes, in 1995. Coded as the midpoint of the category indicated in response to a checklist containing 11 interval income categories: (1) Less than \$9,999; (2) \$10,000 to \$19,999; (3) \$20,000 to \$29,999; (4) \$30,000 to \$39,999; (5) \$40,000 to \$49,999; (6) \$50,000 to \$59,999; (7) \$60,000 to \$69,999; (8) \$70,000 to \$79,999; (9) \$80,000 to \$89,999; (10) \$90,000 to \$99,999; (11) Over \$100,000. The checklist is contained in question 13 in Section IV of the questionnaire.

TABLE 4.6 (Cont.)

VARIABLE CODINGS

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>OPERATIONAL DEFINITION</u>
CRED1	Credit behavior of the household head. Captured by using item one of a 2-item scale, developed by Hawes and Lumpkin (1984), contained in question 20 in Section I of the questionnaire. The behavior statement was stated as: "I buy many things with a credit card or charge card." Measured on a five-point Likert-type summated ratings scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.
CRED2	Credit attitude of the household head. Captured by using item two of a 2-item scale, developed by Hawes and Lumpkin (1984), contained in question 21 in Section I of the questionnaire. The attitude statement was stated as: "It is good to have charge accounts." Measured on a five-point Likert-type summated ratings scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

NOTE: See Appendix for Questionnaire



TABLE 4.7

VARIABLE STATISTICS  
(MARRIED HOMEOWNERS WITH EXPENDITURES ON CONVENIENT SERVICES)

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>TOLERANCE</u>
CSO (\$)	181	398.32	--
LOGCSO	181	2.13	--
HOURW	176	1,165.19	.627
HOURH	177	1,570.99	.499
FAMSZ	181	2.49	.728
YCHLD	181	.16	.791
ROLE	180	42.23	.734
ACTIV	181	2.23	.875
VALUE	181	27.96	.940
HHINC	176	56,420.50	.744
CRED1	181	2.82	.885
CRED2	181	3.10	.825

included: wife's employment; husband's employment; family size; number of young children; role overload of household head; household head leisure activity level; value consciousness; total household income; and credit usage (credit behavior and credit attitude).

As depicted in Exhibit 3.5 ("Hypothesized Relationships Within the Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption"), the predicted effects of the variables proposed to be related to married, home-owning consumers' convenient service orientation ("LOGCSO") are that households with higher expenditures on convenient services (households having higher levels of LOGCSO) would have: a greater number of hours worked per year by the wife; a greater number of hours worked per year by the husband; a lesser number of persons in the household aged six and over; a greater number of young children aged zero to five; a greater role-overload score of the household head; a greater leisure activity level of the household head; a greater value-consciousness score of the household head; a greater total household pre-tax 1995 income; and a greater credit-usage score of the household head.

Regression analysis was selected as the technique to be employed in order to test the hypotheses presented in this framework. This method of statistical analysis is useful in examining the relationship between a single metric dependent variable and a set of metric independent variables (Hair et. al. 1992). This strategy was chosen as the most suitable

approach to examining the relationships between the various demographic, lifestyle, and price-convenience tradeoff variables and consumers' convenient service orientation.

The findings of the initial multiple regression analysis of the variables influencing the convenient service orientation of married, home-owning, services consumers are presented in Table 4.8. This table displays the coefficients, Anova table, and model summary results. The regression model was significant ( $F=5.973$ ,  $p=.000$ ) and explained .272 of convenient service expenditures ( $R\text{-square}=.272$ ,  $\text{Adjusted } R\text{-Square}=.226$ ).

Four of the nine independent variables contributed significantly to the prediction of amount of convenient service expenditures by married, home-owning, services consumers. Specifically, the number of hours worked per year by the husband, the leisure activity level of the household head, the value-consciousness score of the household head, and total household pre-tax 1995 income had a statistically significant relationship with LOGCSO at a  $p<.05$  level.

Given that the number of hours worked per year by the husband (HOURH) was significant ( $t=-1.998$ ,  $p=.047$ ), further examination of the model was undertaken. As mentioned in Chapter Three, previous researchers have suggested the importance of controlling for other factors which influence labor force participation (Bellante and Foster 1984). In order to determine if, indeed, explanatory power was being

TABLE 4.8

CONVENIENT SERVICE ORIENTATION OF MARRIED, HOME-OWNING,  
SERVICES CONSUMERS ("LOGCSO") INITIAL REGRESSION RESULTS

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta				Part	Tolerance
1	(Constant)	2.173	.467		4.657	.000			
	HOURW	-1.9E-05	.000	-.027	-.314	.754	-.021	.627	1.595
	HOURH	-1.2E-04	.000	-.191	-1.998	.047	-.135	.499	2.003
	FAMSZ	-6.5E-02	.049	-.104	-1.316	.190	-.089	.728	1.373
	YCHLD	-.169	.106	-.121	-1.597	.112	-.108	.791	1.265
	ROLE	-2.5E-03	.005	-.039	-.493	.623	-.033	.734	1.363
	ACTIV	.340	.123	.199	2.764	.006	.186	.875	1.143
	VALUE	-3.0E-02	.011	-.190	-2.734	.007	-.184	.940	1.063
	HHINC	9.3E-06	.000	.302	3.859	.000	.260	.744	1.343
	CRED1	-2.6E-02	.035	-.053	-.741	.460	-.050	.885	1.130
	CRED2	2.7E-02	.044	.045	.609	.544	.041	.825	1.212

a. Dependent Variable: LOGCSO

ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21.273	10	2.127	5.973	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	56.989	160	.356		
	Total	78.262	170			

a. Dependent Variable: LOGCSO\$

b. Independent Variables: (Constant), ROLE, HHINC, VALUE, CRED1, YCHLD, ACTIV, CRED2, FAMSZ, HOURW, HOURH

TABLE 4.8 (Cont.)

CONVENIENT SERVICE ORIENTATION OF MARRIED, HOME-OWNING,  
SERVICES CONSUMERS ("LOGCSO") INITIAL REGRESSION RESULTS

Model Summary <sup>a,b</sup>

Model	Variables		R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
	Entered	Removed				
1	ROLE, HHINC, VALUE , CRED1, YCHLD, ACTIV, CRED2, FAMSZ, HOURW <sup>c,d</sup> HOURH		.521	.272	.226	.5968

a. Dependent Variable: LOGCSO

b. Method: Enter

c. Independent Variables: (Constant), ROLE, HHINC, VALUE, CRED1, YCHLD, ACTIV, CRED2, FAMSZ, HOURW, HOURH

d. All requested variables entered.

attributed to the husband's labor force participation that ought properly be attributed to the husband's education or age, these two additional variables were added to the model.

The equation was re-estimated including husband's age and education. The re-estimated equation indicated that while education of the husband did not have a statistically significant relationship with convenient service expenditures, the husband's age did ( $t=3.120$ ,  $p=.002$ ). Given these results, the equation was once again re-estimated, dropping the education of the husband from the model, but retaining the husband's age. The results of this model, presented in Table 4.9, provided some important insights. Although three of the original, previously significant independent variables remained statistically significant (the leisure activity level of the household head, the value-consciousness score of the household head, and total household pre-tax 1995 income), hours worked per year by the husband (HOURH) no longer had a statistically significant relationship with LOGCSO when the husband's age was added to the equation ( $t=.508$ ,  $p=.612$ ). The model overall remained significant ( $F=6.694$ ,  $p=.000$ ). Examination of the model from an adjusted R-square basis, which considers the number of variables in the model, also indicated that the expanded model explained more of the variation in convenient service expenditures (R-square=.317, Adjusted R-Square=.269).

TABLE 4.9

CONVENIENT SERVICE ORIENTATION OF MARRIED, HOME-OWNING,  
SERVICES CONSUMERS ("LOGCSO") REGRESSION RESULTS

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.568	.673		.844	.400			
	HOURW	-1.1E-05	.000	-.015	-.177	.860	-.012	.626	1.598
	HOURH	3.8E-05	.000	.062	.508	.612	.033	.292	3.428
	FAMSZ	-4.7E-02	.048	-.075	-.969	.334	-.064	.718	1.392
	YCHLD	-3.1E-02	.112	-.022	-.280	.780	-.018	.674	1.483
	ROLE	3.5E-04	.005	.005	.070	.944	.005	.711	1.407
	ACTIV	.412	.122	.241	3.385	.001	.222	.846	1.182
	VALUE	-2.6E-02	.011	-.167	-2.456	.015	-.161	.930	1.075
	HHINC	8.2E-06	.000	.266	3.471	.001	.228	.729	1.371
	CRED1	-2.1E-02	.034	-.044	-.627	.532	-.041	.883	1.132
	CRED2	2.5E-02	.042	.043	.591	.555	.039	.825	1.213
	AGEHUS	1.8E-02	.005	.387	3.225	.002	.211	.299	3.347

a. Dependent Variable: LOGCSO

ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	24.773	11	2.252	6.694	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	53.489	159	.336		
	Total	78.262	170			

a. Dependent Variable: LOGCSO

b. Independent Variables: (Constant), AGEHUS, CRED1, VALUE, ACTIV, HHINC, CRED2, FAMSZ, ROLE, HOURW, YCHLD, HOURH

TABLE 4.9 (Cont.)

CONVENIENT SERVICE ORIENTATION OF MARRIED, HOME-OWNING,  
SERVICES CONSUMERS ("LOGCSO") REGRESSION RESULTS

Model Summary<sup>a,b</sup>

Model	Variables		R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
	Entered	Removed				
1	AGEHUS, CRED1, VALUE, ACTIV, HHINC, CRED2, FAMSZ, ROLE HOURW, YCHLD, HOURH <sup>c,d</sup>		.563	.317	.269	.5800

a. Dependent Variable: LOGCSO

b. Method: Enter

c. Independent Variables: (Constant), AGEHUS, CRED1, VALUE, ACTIV, HHINC, CRED2, FAMSZ, ROLE, HOURW, YCHLD, HOURH

d. All requested variables entered.



It was therefore determined that some explanatory power that appeared to have been attributed to the husband's labor force participation (HOURH) ought more properly be attributed to the husband's age. Thus, due to the influence that husband's age had on HOURH and the demonstrated effect of husband's age on convenient services expenditures, the husband's age (AGEHUS) was retained in the expanded model.

It should be noted here that an examination of the influence of the wife's education and age was also undertaken. No significant relationship was found between the wife's education or age and convenient service expenditures. The addition of these variables to the model also did not influence the non-significance of the relationship between the wife's hourly employment and the dependent variable (LOGCSO). Consequently, the wife's age and education were not included in the expanded model.

Thus, using the newly expanded regression model for hypotheses testing, it is evident that with the addition of the age of the husband (AGEHUS), three of the nine independent variables contributed significantly to the prediction of amount of convenient service expenditures by married, home-owning, services consumers. Specifically, the leisure activity level of the household head (ACTIV), the value-consciousness score of the household head (VALUE), and total household pre-tax 1995 income (HHINC) had statistically significant relationships with LOGCSO at a  $p < .05$  level. In

the case of VALUE, however, the relationship was not in the direction hypothesized. The findings with respect to each hypothesis are detailed below.

Hypothesis One -- Wife's Hourly Employment: The first research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO) and the demographic variable, number of hours worked per year by the wife:

H1: The greater the number of hours worked per year by the wife (HOURW), the higher the level of LOGCSO.

No relationship between the number of hours worked per year by the wife and expenditures on convenient services was uncovered ( $t=-.177$ ,  $p=.860$ ). This hypothesis was not confirmed. As mentioned above, further examination and re-estimation of the regression equation to include the wife's age and education as variables which contribute to the wife's labor force participation was conducted. This operation did not change the non-significance of HOURW in the regression equation, nor did these variables themselves have any statistically significant association with LOGCSO.

Hypothesis Two -- Husband's Hourly Employment: The second research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO)

and another demographic variable, number of hours worked per year by the husband:

H2: The greater the number of hours worked per year by the husband (HOURH), the higher the level of LOGCSO.

The multiple regression results indicated that there was not a significant relationship between the hourly employment of the husband and the purchase of convenient services, when husband's age was included in the model ( $t=.508$ ,  $p=.612$ ). This hypothesis was not confirmed. As mentioned above, when husband's age was not included in the model, HOURH had a negative and statistically significant relationship with convenient service expenditures ( $t=-.1.998$ ,  $p=.047$ ). The differences between these two models indicated that some explanatory power that appeared to be attributed to the husband's labor force participation (HOURH) is more properly attributed to the husband's age (AGEHUS). The husband's age, which had a strong negative Pearson correlation with HOURH ( $-.772$ ,  $p=.000$ ), had a positive and statistically significant relationship with convenient service expenditures ( $t=3.225$ ,  $p=.002$ ).

Hypothesis Three -- Family Size: The third research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO) and a demographic variable relating to family composition, family

size:

H3: The greater the family size (FAMSZ), the lower the level of LOGCSO.

The relationship between "family size," (defined as the number of persons in the household aged six and over) and LOGCSO was not significant ( $t=-.969$ ,  $p=.334$ ). This finding contradicts the notion that as family size increases, more workload may be spread among the family members (aged over six years) thus lessening the motivation to acquire time and/or effort-saving services from firms. This hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis Four -- Number of Young Children: The fourth research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO) and another demographic variable relating to family composition, the number of young children aged zero to five:

H4: The greater the number of young children aged zero to five (YCHLD), the higher the level of LOGCSO.

The relationship between the number of young children in the household aged zero to five and LOGCSO was not significant ( $t=-.280$ ,  $p=.780$ ). This finding does not support the expectation that the presence of infants and young children has a tendency to influence the time demands of the family and thus influence the extent to which households purchase time-

saving services (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983). This hypothesis was not confirmed.

Hypothesis Five - Role Overload: The fifth research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO) and a lifestyle variable, role overload:

H5: The greater the role-overload level of the head of the household (ROLE), the higher the level of LOGCSO.

The relationship between the role overload of the head of the household and LOGCSO was not significant ( $t=.070$ ,  $p=.944$ ). The proposition that individuals high in role overload would also be high in their expenditures for time-saving and/or effort-reducing services, as tested by hypothesis five, was not supported.

Hypothesis Six - Household Head Leisure Activity Level:

The sixth research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO) and another lifestyle variable, leisure activity level:

H6: The greater the leisure activity level of the head of the household (ACTIV), the higher the level of LOGCSO.

The proposed relationship between the leisure activity level of the head of the household and LOGCSO was confirmed. There was a significant positive association between ACTIV and the purchase of convenient services ( $t=3.385$ ,  $p=.001$ ). This finding supports the notion that involvement in leisure or outside activities may contribute to time scarcity and convenience consumption (Etgar 1978; Reilly 1982; Strober and Weinberg 1980). The relationship between household head leisure activity level and expenditures for convenient services was expected to be positive and significant, and that hypothesis was confirmed.

Hypothesis Seven - Value Consciousness: The seventh research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO) and a price-convenience tradeoff variable, value consciousness:

H7: The greater the value-consciousness score of the head of household (VALUE), the higher the level of LOGCSO.

There was a significant negative relationship between the value-consciousness score of the head of the household and LOGCSO ( $t=-2.456$ ,  $p=.015$ ). These results indicated as the value consciousness score increased, household expenditures on convenient services decreased. However, while the association was a significant one, it was not in the direction

predicted, thus H7 was not confirmed.

Hypothesis Eight - Total Household Income: The eighth research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO) and another price-convenience tradeoff variable, income:

H8: The greater the level of total household income (HHINC), the higher the level of LOGCSO.

The proposed relationship between the total household income level and LOGCSO was confirmed. There was a significant positive association between HHINC and the purchase of convenient services ( $t=3.471$ ,  $p=.001$ ). This finding is consistent with the majority of previous convenience consumption research.

Hypothesis Nine - Credit Usage: The ninth and last research hypothesis under investigation examined the relationship between a convenient service orientation (LOGCSO) and another price-convenience tradeoff variable, credit usage:

H9: The greater the level of credit usage (CRED) of the head of household, the higher the level of LOGCSO.

Given the reliability and validity concerns identified with the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) credit-usage scale, discussed previously in this chapter, use of this scale as a measure of

an underlying construct would be extremely suspect. Consequently, an examination of the association between expenditures for convenient services and each of the items contained in the credit usage scale was undertaken in order to determine if any meaningful insights could be obtained. Thus, H9 was tested by decomposing the scale, and examining the credit behavior statement (CRED1) and the credit attitude statement (CRED2) for the association that each statement had with convenient service expenditures. Such an examination does not permit interpretation with respect to the credit usage construct.

The first item from the scale, "I buy many things with a credit card or charge card," (CRED1), was not significantly associated with LOGCSO ( $t=-.627$ ,  $p=.532$ ). The second item, "It is good to have charge accounts," (CRED2), was also not significantly associated with LOGCSO ( $t=.591$ ,  $p=.555$ ). These findings indicated that there was not a significant association between CRED1 or CRED2 and household expenditures for convenient services. Thus, no evidence of the proposed relationship between credit usage, as it was measured using the separate credit usage items, and LOGCSO was uncovered. This hypothesis was not confirmed.

Nomological Validity: In that nomological validity refers to the "extent to which a scale correlates in theoretically predicted ways with measures of different but related constructs," (Malhotra 1993, p. 310), the nomological



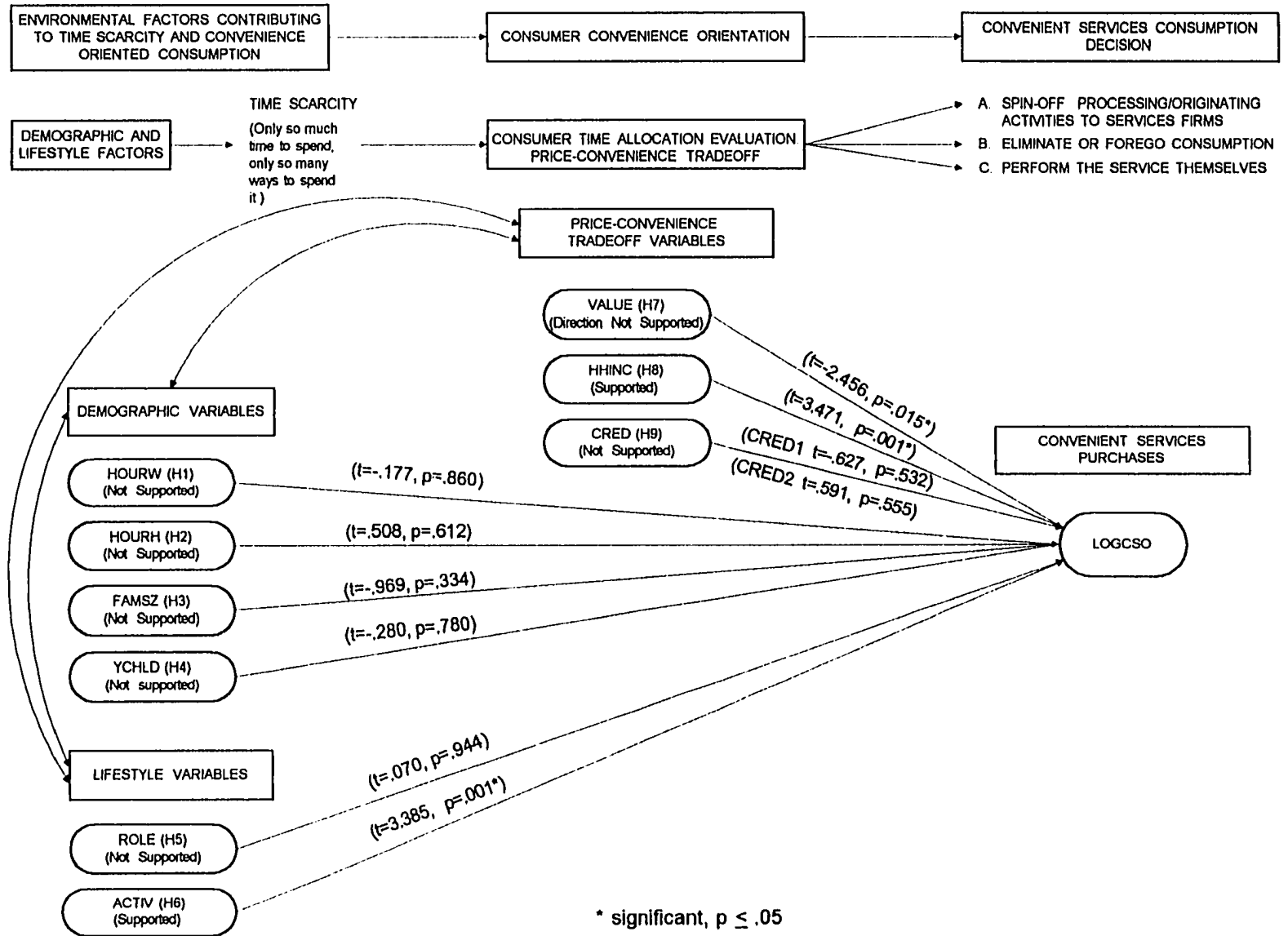
validity of the Reilly (1982) role-overload scale, the Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) value-consciousness scale, and the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) credit-usage scale were assessed through the tests of the research hypotheses. Given that the hypotheses related to these scales were not confirmed, no additional evidence of this type of construct validity was provided.

### Summary of Findings

It is apparent that while some of the hypothesized relationships depicted in "The Conceptual Framework of Convenient Services Consumption" (Exhibit 3.5) were supported, others were not. Some of the results support the findings or propositions presented by previous convenience consumption studies, yet some of the unexpected results contradict previous research. The findings of the current research examining the convenient service orientation of married, home-owning, services consumers are summarized below and explored further in Chapter Five.

The results of the multiple regression analysis provided evidence that certain variables are related to married, home-owning consumers' convenient service orientation ("LOGCSO"). "The Framework of Convenient Services Consumption" (Exhibit 4.1) summarizes the findings of the multiple regression analysis. This framework illustrates that married, home-

**EXHIBIT 4.1**  
**FRAMEWORK OF CONVENIENT SERVICES CONSUMPTION**  
 (Outcomes of hypotheses tests, controlling for husband's age)



\* significant,  $p \leq .05$

INDICATES UNANALYZED RELATIONSHIPS      INDICATES HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIPS

owning households with higher expenditures on convenient services (households having higher levels of LOGCSO) had: a greater leisure activity level of the household head; a lower value-consciousness score of the household head; and a greater total household pre-tax 1995 income. No significant association was demonstrated between convenient service orientation and: the number of hours worked per year by the wife; the number of hours worked per year by the husband; the number of persons in the household aged six years and over; the number of persons in the household aged five and younger; the role overload score of the household head; and the individual statements of behavior and attitude with respect to household use of credit cards, charge cards or charge accounts.

It is also worthy of note that the age of the husband proved to be an important variable which not only had a significant relationship with convenient service expenditures, but also affected the relationship between the husband's hourly employment and convenient service expenditures. The nature of this relationship indicates that the husband's hourly employment is much less influential in explaining convenient service expenditures than was the husband's age.

THE CONVENIENCE ORIENTATION OF SERVICES CONSUMERS:  
AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION  
CHAPTER FIVE  
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter incorporates five sections: Summary and Conclusions, Contributions and Implications, Limitations, and Implications for Future Research.

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this current research was to examine a proposed series of relationships involving household expenditures for "convenient services." It is apparent, from the results presented in Chapter Four, that while some of the hypothesized relationships proposed in this research were supported, others were not. At the same time, some of the results support the findings of other convenience consumption studies, yet some of the unexpected results contradict previous research. Some of the contrary or non-significant results could be because this examination of convenient service orientation is not a strict replication of previous studies. In that this examination of convenient service orientation is not a strict replication, contrary findings could be attributed to differences in the type of population investigated. Certainly, measurements utilized in the current investigation also differ from those employed in previous

investigations of convenience services. It is believed that the types of services utilized in the current investigation differ enough from those used by previous researchers so as to provide new perspectives into convenience consumption. The findings and conclusions from the current research examining the convenient service orientation of married, home-owning, services consumers are explored more fully below.

Although a positive and significant relationship was predicted between the wife's hourly employment and convenient service expenditures, no relationship was found, thus H1 was not supported. As discussed in the literature review, much of the convenience research has examined the connection between the wife's employment and convenience product usage (see Exhibit 2.6). Although previous research has often indicated that no association exists, some research has found differentially positive associations, depending on the good or service examined (e.g., Nickols and Fox 1983; Bellante and Foster 1984; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). It was due to these differentially positive findings, that the relationship was again explored in the current study.

Finding no association between the wife's employment and the purchase of convenient services may be explained by the unwillingness of households to substitute purchased services for the amount of the wife's time spent in the labor force. Previous researchers who have found similar results with purchased services have argued that working wives may reduce

leisure time in order to perform household chores, curtail the amount of chores performed, defer household chores to weekends, or use services of other family members (Bellante and Foster 1984, Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991).

The relationship between the husband's hourly employment and convenient service consumption was predicted to be a positive one in the current investigation, however no relationship was found, thus H2 was not supported. Previous research which has considered the husband's employment or occupation and convenience consumption has had mixed results ranging from either no significant association to a positive association, depending on the goods or services examined (e.g., Foxman and Burns 1987; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991), for example, found a positive association between the husband's employment and food away from home, clothing care, personal care and total services, but they also found that the husband's employment was not significant with respect to child care or domestic services expenditures.

An important consideration with regard to the Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) study is that although the researchers controlled for wife's age and education, they did not control for the age and education of the husband. Given the nature of the findings reported in this current investigation, the age of the husband proved to be an

important variable which not only had a significant relationship with convenient service expenditures, but also affected the relationship between the husband's hourly employment and convenient service expenditures. The nature of this relationship indicates that the husband's hourly employment is much less influential in explaining convenient service expenditures than was the age of the husband.

With respect to H3, although the relationship between family size and expenditures for convenient services was expected to be negative and significant, that hypothesis was not confirmed. The negative relationship between family size and the purchase of convenient services was not significant, thus H3 was not confirmed.

A negative relationship was expected given previous research findings. Previous research which has considered family composition in relation to convenience and service consumption has done so based on the premise that family size and the presence of young children will impact family time pressures, activity patterns and consumption. In addition, the size of the family and the presence, absence and age of the children is expected to influence the tendency of households to either utilize the labor of spouses and children (that is, to do it themselves) or to purchase time-saving services (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983).

Based on the premise that larger households would tend to utilize their own labor to perform household chores,

previous research and theory suggested that households with more members would have lower expenditures for convenient services. This premise has been supported by some of the more recent services research (e.g., Bellante and Foster 1984; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991), but was not supported here.

Thus, the number of persons in the household did not significantly impact the amount of convenient services expenditures by that household. Though the data suggested that the direction of the relationship was negative, indicating that the greater the family size, the lower the expenditures on convenient services, the relationship was not a statistically significant one. Thus, family size appears not to be a determining factor in the decision to have certain service activities performed by paid service providers.

Interestingly, the belief that the greater the number of young children present, the more time and effort is consumed in tending to their demands, hence a greater need for convenience consumption, was also not borne out from the data. The results of the current investigation indicated that there was not a significant relationship between the number of young children and expenditures for convenient services, thus H4 was not confirmed.

As stated above with respect to family size, previous research which considered family composition in relation to convenience and service consumption has done so based on the premise that the presence of young children impacts family



time pressures, activity patterns and consumption. The presence of infants and young children was particularly expected to influence time demands of the family and thus influence the tendency of households to purchase time-saving services (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983).

Nickols and Fox (1983), for example, found that the age of the younger child was an important predictor of the use of disposable diapers, restaurant meals and child care. Similar results were reported by Bellante and Foster (1984) who found that young children (under aged six) were negatively associated with food away from home and personal care, but positively associated with child care, domestic services and total services. They reported that the number of children under six explained more of services expenditures than did the size of the family and proposed that the greater monetary outlay on domestic services indicated "that among families with children under six, substitution of paid services of others was a strategy used to compensate for reduced household production time because of the requirements of caring for young children" (p. 705). Again, more recently, Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis (1991) found that young children were positively associated with child care and total services.

With respect to the current investigation, the number of young children had no impact on the amount of spending for convenient services. It is still uncertain if families with young children performed these services themselves, or if

these service activities went unperformed. It is worthy of note, however, that 159 households (87.8%) reported having no children aged zero to five. Thus, examination of differences among such a small segment of households is somewhat constrained.

The fifth hypothesis was not supported. While it was anticipated that role overload would be positively associated with LOGCSO, that is, that heads of households who were higher in role overload, would also be higher in their expenditures in LOGCSO, this relationship was not confirmed. The results of the present investigation do not provide evidence that this is the case. Evidently, the conflict that occurs when the sheer volume of behavior demanded by the number of roles that an individual occupies exceeds available time and energy, (Reilly, 1982), does not have a significant impact on the purchase of convenient services. This result was particularly surprising.

Reilly's (1982) examination of methods families employ to reduce the time and energy demands of the wife, indicated that role overload of the wife was positively associated with ownership of time-saving durables and that ownership of time-saving durables was negatively associated with the number of convenience foods served. Though, he also found that role overload was not significant with respect to the amount of convenience foods served, Bellizzi and Hite (1986) found that role overload of women was significantly related to interest

in convenience products.

Reilly (1982) proposed that further research into other types of convenience consumption (such as domestic services) was warranted on the grounds that such behaviors represented alternative work-load reducing strategies. Consequently, the role overload variable was examined in the current study. Contrary to expectations, this investigation indicated that household purchases of convenient services are not a work-load reducing strategy employed by role overloaded individuals. Role overload, when considered in the context of the other variables investigated, does not significantly influence household expenditures for convenient services.

The sixth hypothesis, which dealt with household head leisure activity level, was supported. These results demonstrated that, as the leisure activity level increased, household expenditures for convenient services increased. Previous research and theory have suggested that an increasing emphasis on leisure activities and physical and mental well-being influence consumers' quest for convenience (Berry 1979; Etgar 1978; Fram and DuBrin 1988). However, early research which specifically addressed the relationship between convenience consumption and activities outside the home had been contradictory and thus inconclusive (Marple and Wissmann 1968; Anderson 1969).

The more recent research which examined leisure or outside activities, tended to focus more on the connections

between the wife's employment, time pressures and outside activities, rather than the consumption impacts. Strober and Weinberg (1980), for example, cited evidence that employment tends to diminish volunteer work among married women, possibly as a conscious strategy pursued more often by working women, than non-working women to reduce time pressures. This proposition was tested by Nickols and Fox (1983), who found that working women did not tend to decrease time spent in volunteer and community work, but did decrease the time spent in social and recreational activities.

Given that such "leisure" or outside activities have been proposed contributors to time scarcity and convenience consumption, this presented the possibility that when volunteering or other outside activities are not curtailed, (that is, when the strategy of reducing outside activity time is not chosen as response to increasing time pressures), then convenience services may be purchased as an alternate time-saving strategy (Etgar 1978; Strober and Weinberg 1980). The premise of the current research was suggested by this previous research and by Reilly (1982) who proposed, but never tested the proposition, that the inability (or unwillingness) to decrease time in volunteer and other outside activities may contribute to role overload, and thus increase convenience consumption. It was therefore expected that both role overload and leisure activity level would be related to convenient service expenditures.

Interestingly, although role overload and leisure activity level were both expected to be related to convenience oriented services expenditures, no significant association with role overload was demonstrated. Thus, the nature of the relationship found here indicates that the role overload score of the household head is much less influential in explaining convenient service expenditures than was the leisure activity level of the household head. The implication of this is that when volunteering or other outside activities are not curtailed, convenience services are purchased as an alternate time-saving or effort-reducing strategy, but perhaps not a result of perceived time pressure or role overload conditions.

Thus, the finding that heads of households who had higher levels of participation in leisure activities, also had higher levels of expenditures for convenient services, provides evidence in support of the previously untested notion that involvement in leisure or outside activities may contribute to time scarcity and consequently convenience consumption (Etgar 1978; Reilly 1982; Strober and Weinberg 1980).

The seventh hypothesis was designed to examine part of the price-convenience tradeoff process that consumers undertake when assessing value and maximizing utility. This hypothesis, which examined the relationship between value consciousness and convenient service orientation, was not supported. While a significant relationship between these two

variables was found, it was not in the direction predicted. Previous research and theory dealing with convenience-related consumption, price-related consumption behaviors, and a willingness to pay, have suggested that the consumer's willingness to pay for convenience and the value-consciousness construct (a specific concern for 'value' received, defined in terms of need-satisfying properties of the product, for price paid (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990, p. 55)) would be positively associated (Anderson 1972; Bellizzi and Hite 1986; Douglas 1976; Morganosky 1986; Schaninger and Allen 1981). However, the evidence found in this study indicated that increased value consciousness is associated with decreased convenient service consumption. This suggests that value-conscious consumers maximize their utility by performing services themselves or by eliminating or foregoing consumption activities, rather than purchasing services from others.

In order to capture the price-convenience tradeoff process, whereby consumers must compare the monetary cost of the service with the time and effort costs of "doing it themselves," it is necessary that the measurement instrument capture the outcome of the price-convenience deliberation and the weighing of the various costs (money, time and effort) involved in making a final value judgment and the subsequent expenditure decision. The developers of the value-consciousness scale proposed that value consciousness was more

closely aligned with acquisition utility, that is, concern for the inherent need-satisfying properties of the product, rather than with transaction utility or a primary concern over financial terms and a "good deal" (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990). However, while a theoretical distinction can be made, it is unclear as to whether such a distinction can be made by the consumer, and be accurately captured by the scale. In that the value-consciousness scale is still in its formative stages of development, further refinement may provide more evidence of the type of utility reflected (transaction vs. acquisition), and the extent of its association with value consciousness.

An important underlying assumption of the current research was that value-consciousness, as examined with the Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) value-consciousness scale, is a construct that is related to, but distinct from, monetary cost consciousness, or price consciousness. If the value-consciousness scale does not truly capture such a distinction, it is not possible to make a relational argument about how value-conscious consumers value money, time and effort. It can only be argued that value-conscious consumers value money. This argument would certainly help explain the direction of the negative relationship between value consciousness and convenient service expenditures that was found in this study. This argument is further strengthened by the evidence of convergent validity between value

consciousness and price-consciousness that was provided earlier in this chapter. The correlation between these two constructs was .667 ( $p=.000$ ).

Another possible explanation of the contrary findings is that to date, value-consciousness has been examined with respect to coupon redemption behavior, but not service purchase behavior. (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990). The relationship between value-consciousness and services purchases represents an important, but unexplored area of research. The negative direction of this relationship, although unexpected, may be due to the perishable nature of services. Services are consumed as they are produced, and in the case of the services examined here, they will need to be performed repeatedly. Thus, because these services are continuous in nature of service delivery, and must be purchased frequently, they may not appeal to value-conscious consumers. If indeed, "value-conscious consumers are concerned about the product's value in use over time, which is a stable characteristic of the product" (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990, p. 57, emphasis added), then we might anticipate that the relationship would be a negative one. From this perspective, value-conscious consumers may not identify with a service's value "over time."

Similarly, value-conscious consumers may also have difficulty identifying and judging a service's quality. Value-consciousness captures a concern for price, subject to



some quality constraint (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990). Services are performances in which the consumer plays a role and there are many intangible aspects to services which make quality judgments difficult and subjective. It is possible that, due to the nature of services, quality assessments are too abstract to permit their simple assessment relative to price. This would make value consciousness with respect to services a more problematic area of study. When simple quality judgments pose difficulties for services consumers, it is possible that price becomes a surrogate indicator of quality. In such instances, the distinction between value consciousness and price consciousness, with respect to services, may be less evident. If, indeed, services consumers rely more on price than quality in making value judgments with respect to service purchase decisions, then we might anticipate that the relationship would be a negative one. From this perspective, value-conscious consumers may not be identifying with a service's quality, per se, but rather with the service's price.

As with the value consciousness variable, utility theory represented an important premise underlying the incorporation of other price-convenience tradeoff variables in the present study. Given that rational people will allocate their resources to maximize their utility given their time and income constraints, a relevant economic resource to be considered in services purchases, therefore, was income. With

respect to H8, the positive relationship between total household income and expenditures for convenient services was significant, thus H8 was confirmed. This finding was consistent with previous research which has consistently found income to be an important consideration in resource allocation, utility maximization, and household expenditures for convenience. Almost without exception, total household income has been found to be positively associated with consumption of convenience goods, foods or durables (Anderson 1969, 1971a, 1971b; Bellante and Foster 1984; Douglas 1976; Morganosky 1986; Nickols and Fox 1983; Reilly 1982; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991; Strober and Weinberg 1980). Similar positive results have been found with respect to income and the consumption of convenience services (Bellante and Foster 1984; Nickols and Fox 1983; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). The relationship between total household income and expenditures for convenient services was expected to be positive and significant, and that hypothesis was confirmed.

The ninth and last hypothesis under investigation in this study examined the association between credit usage and convenient service expenditures. The concerns regarding the validity and reliability of the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) credit-usage scale, detailed in Chapter Four, made this application of the scale and any subsequent interpretations regarding the credit-usage construct problematic. Consequently, an examination of the association between

expenditures for convenient services and each of the items contained in the credit-usage scale was undertaken in order to determine if any meaningful insights could be obtained. Although hypothesized to be positively associated, no significant association was demonstrated between either the credit-behavior statement or the credit-attitude statement and convenient service expenditures. Hypotheses nine was not supported by the data.

Previous research indicated that the use of credit has been associated with convenience-related purchase behaviors and individuals with high opportunity costs of time which result from time scarcity (Baxter, Cootner and Scott 1977; Kinsey 1981; Murphy and Ott 1977). Additionally, past research has indicated that in-home shoppers are generally convenience oriented in their lifestyles (Gillett 1970, 1976) and that such convenience-oriented consumers have a more positive attitude toward the use of credit (Cunningham and Cunningham 1973).

Nevertheless, while it is possible that future studies using more valid, reliable measures of the credit-usage construct may provide evidence to the contrary, the link between credit attitude, time scarcity and convenient shopping behavior, found by previous researchers, does not appear to extend to the current inquiry. Given the disappointing results of current investigation, with respect to the reliability and validity of the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984)

credit-usage scale and the analysis of its individual items, any importance attached to credit as an economic resource impacting convenient service expenditures, appears unwarranted.

In conclusion, the results of multiple regression analysis provided evidence that certain variables are related to married, home-owning consumers' convenient service orientation ("LOGCSO"). "The Framework of Convenient Services Consumption" (Exhibit 4.1) summarizes the findings of the regression analysis. As this framework illustrates, married, home-owning households with higher expenditures on convenient services (households having higher levels of LOGCSO) had: a greater leisure activity level of the household head; a lower value-consciousness score of the household head; and a greater total household pre-tax 1995 income. No significant association was demonstrated between convenient service orientation and: the number of hours worked per year by the wife; the number of hours worked per year by the husband; the number of persons in the household aged six years and over; the number of persons in the household aged five and younger; the role overload score of the household head; and the individual statements of behavior and attitude with respect to household use of credit cards, charge cards or charge accounts. It is also worthy of note that the age of the husband proved to be an important variable which not only had a significant relationship with convenient service

expenditures, but also affected the relationship between the husband's hourly employment and convenient service expenditures. The nature of this relationship indicates that the husband's hourly employment is much less influential in explaining convenient service expenditures than was the age of the husband.

### Contributions and Implications

As stated at the outset of this research, previous examinations of convenience consumption have often treated convenience as a unidimensional construct, applied primarily toward convenience goods. Thus, marketing knowledge has been advanced by recognizing more than one dimension of convenience and examining it in the area of services. An important element of this research has been the integration of previous convenience research with economic choice theory, recreation and leisure literature, services marketing and sociological literatures, in application to a services marketing problem. Building upon this existing knowledge and theory, a conceptual framework of convenient services consumption has been proposed. Based on this framework, nine research hypotheses were developed to empirically test previous relationships and to examine new research questions and potential relationships. The variables that have been examined in the current research go beyond the economic/household production-based variables that have been examined in prior research. This study

examined nine demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff variables that had been suggested by the literature or demonstrated to be significant with respect to convenience goods, which had not yet been examined with respect to services. By examining these variables in a services context, this research makes another important contribution by providing a more detailed profile of the convenience-oriented services consumer and contributes to the existing body of knowledge examining services marketing issues.

Several particularly significant findings have resulted from this research undertaking. First, this study is one of the only studies to shed light on the relationship between outside activity participation and convenience consumption. Specifically, the current investigation provided evidence that convenient service expenditures are positively associated with leisure activity level. The implication of this is that when volunteering or other outside activities are not curtailed, convenience services are purchased as an alternate time-saving or effort-reducing strategy. This finding provides evidence in support of the previously untested notion that involvement in leisure or outside activities may contribute to time scarcity and convenience consumption (Etgar 1978; Reilly 1982; Strober and Weinberg 1980).

A second important finding of this research is the significance of another variable that had not been explicitly tested in connection with convenience consumption, value

consciousness. The current research investigation found that value consciousness was negatively associated with convenient service expenditures. While the direction of this relationship was unexpected, this finding nonetheless makes an important contribution to understanding consumers' convenient service orientation. It was expected that convenience-oriented services consumers would recognize the convenience attributes of services, ascribe higher values to their time and effort rather than their money, and maximize their utility by having services performed by others. Given that the value-consciousness construct pertains to "a specific concern for 'value' received (defined in terms of need-satisfying properties of the product) for price paid" (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton 1990, p. 55), it was expected that value-conscious consumers would make a price-convenience tradeoff decision in favor of spinning-off processing/originating activities to services firms. Specifically, it was expected that value-conscious consumers would be convenience-oriented.

Surprisingly, this proposition was not supported. The negative association found between value consciousness and convenient service expenditures suggests that the value judgment that is undertaken by value-conscious heads of households tends to be in the direction of a decision not to purchase convenient services. The implication of this finding is that value-conscious heads of households do not recognize or ascribe enough value to the need-satisfying properties

(convenience attributes) of convenient services to make them willing to pay for convenience. Thus, value-conscious consumers may be willing to eliminate or forego consumption. Or, they may be willing to expend their time and effort in order to perform the service themselves, rather than pay a monetary price for service performance. In essence, the implication of this finding is that value-conscious consumers, in making their quality assessments and value judgments, were not willing to pay for convenience.

A third important, but not surprising finding, was that income is a significant contributor to convenient service expenditures. As proposed at the outset, income is an important economic resource that impacts consumer consumption patterns. This finding provides additional support for the body of research which has consistently found a strong association between income and convenience consumption. Further, this study indicates that when considered together, income was more influential than credit attitude or behavior in predicting convenient service expenditures.

In addition to the variables expressly examined during hypothesis testing, the role of the age of husband in this analysis of convenient service consumption is worthy of note. When considered together, the age of the husband had a more influential impact on convenient service consumption than did the hours of employment of either the husband or the wife. Employment commitment has long been studied for its impacts on



consumption. As reported in Chapter Three however, previous research that has addressed employment and convenience consumption has had conflicting results. The findings of the current research underscore the importance of considering other influencing variables, such as age, when examining relationships between labor force participation and convenience consumption. An important implication of the current research is that researchers must consider additional demographic factors in their examinations involving employment and consumption behaviors in order to be sure not to attribute explanatory power to labor force participation that ought more properly be attributed to other influencing forces.

#### Limitations

Despite the contributions of this study, a number of limitations exist. First, due to the use of a consumer household panel for data gathering, only one geographic area (Arkansas) was examined. From this panel, only married, home-owning, services consumers were used. Given this limitation, external validity concerns may be raised and generalizations based on the results of this research must be restricted to the area and household type investigated.

Another limitation of this study is that a number of variables were included which required the use of scales. While an effort was made to use scales with proven validity and reliability, error may be introduced into the analysis.

Particularly problematic were the issues surrounding the validity and reliability of the Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) credit-usage scale. Given the concerns outlined in Chapter Four, it was not possible to use the scale, as a scale, or make any interpretations regarding the credit-usage construct. Although an examination of the individual items of the scale was undertaken, this examination proved disappointing and yielded no significant evidence of a link between credit attitude or behavior and convenient service orientation.

Another limitation of the current study revolves around the differences found between the responding sample and the non-responding members of the panel. As indicated in Chapter Four, significant differences were found between the respondents and non-respondents with respect to race, birth year of male head of household, and birth year of female head of household. Caution should be exercised regarding interpretations in light of these factors.

In previous services-related research, race has been considered to affect services expenditures (Bellante and Foster 1984; Soberon-Ferrer and Dardis 1991). Although the relationship between race and convenient service orientation was not directly examined in this current investigation, it is important to note that non-whites made up a larger percentage of the non-respondent sample than they did the respondent sample, thus indicating that non-whites may have been underrepresented in the current investigation.

Caution should also be exercised due to the differences found between respondents and non-respondents in terms of age. As indicated in Chapter Four, male and female respondents tended to be older than non-respondents, suggesting that younger consumers may have been underrepresented. Given the significant effect that age of the husband had on convenient service expenditures and on the relationship between husband's hourly employment and convenient service expenditures, some caution should be exercised in generalizing about the effects of age beyond the current research context.

It is also important to point out that although the relationship between geographic residence (in terms of urban, suburban, or rural) and convenient service orientation was not expressly examined during hypothesis testing, an ANOVA examination indicated that rural residents had significantly lower convenient service expenditures than did urban ( $p=.001$ ) and suburban ( $p=.013$ ) residents. There was no significant difference between urban and suburban residents with respect to convenient service expenditures.

As suggested by this finding, although a number of demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff variables are included in the current inquiry, other variables, that have not been included in this study, may impact the convenient service orientation of consumers. In particular, the significance of variables such as value-consciousness and leisure activity level, that had until now

been left virtually unexplored, suggests that other, additional demographic, price-convenience tradeoff, and lifestyle variables may prove to be important indicators of convenient service orientation.

#### Implications for Future Research

Although this study has made some important contributions toward profiling the convenience oriented services consumer, clearly more research into the consumption of convenient services is called for. One area of research that has been particularly neglected is the price-convenience tradeoff for services. To more fully examine the relationship between value maximization and consumption, inclusion of a price variable would be in order. It is possible that paying for services would maximize consumer utility, if the price paid is not too high. Thus, service price, from an absolute basis, should be examined in relation to convenient service consumption.

In addition, the Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) value-consciousness scale is still in its formative stages of development. Its application to services purchases may require further refinement. For example, it still remains somewhat unclear if value-conscious consumers identify with a service's value over time. It is also possible that simple quality judgments, that are inherent to the value-consciousness construct, may pose difficulties for services

consumers. Indeed, the role that price plays as a surrogate indicator of quality in services decision making should also be explored. It may be that the distinction between value consciousness and price consciousness, with respect to services, may be less clear-cut. Further research into the distinction between price-consciousness and value-consciousness as they relate to convenient service consumption, would thus be valuable. In particular, it would be useful to determine if, indeed, services consumers rely more on price than quality in making value judgments with respect to convenient service purchase decisions. In order to pursue such a research question, it may be prudent to modify the value-consciousness scale. Given the number of items contained in the scale that deal with grocery purchases, rather than general purchases, tailoring of the scale for a particular type of purchase may be necessary. For example, framing the value consciousness scale in terms of service purchase behaviors, rather than grocery purchases, may provide a more valid understanding of value consciousness as it relates to service purchase behaviors.

There may also be some issues worthy of further exploration that involve the enduring involvement associated with value-consciousness. Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990) suggest that enduring involvement is associated with value-consciousness. Future research might also examine the relationship between value-consciousness, involvement, and

convenient service purchases. Such an exploration may shed light on the notion proposed above, that consumers may have trouble identifying a service's value over time.

The research results with respect to credit and convenient service expenditures were disappointing. Further research examining the possibility of a link between consumers' use of credit and convenience consumption, however, should not be discouraged. Although the association between credit and convenience, that had been suggested by the work of previous researchers, was not borne out in the current inquiry, further examination may prove otherwise. The use of more valid, reliable measures of credit attitude and behavior, rather than the credit-usage scale and its individual items, may provide evidence of a significant association. Indeed use of better measures may substantiate and extend the work of previous researchers who have found that certain types of convenience-oriented consumers have a more positive attitude toward the use of credit (Cunningham and Cunningham 1973).

Family life cycle variables and household convenience consumption is another area of research that deserves further exploration. Although family size and number of young children variables proved insignificant in the current investigation, it is possible that an investigation of a sample consisting of only households with children might provide interesting insights into familial convenient service consumption. Given that the current inquiry included 159

households (87.8%) that reported having no children aged zero to five, an examination of differences among such a small segment of households was somewhat constrained. In future research, families with young children should be considered separately, as a sample of its own, in order to understand their particular consumption patterns.

The current inquiry found that, when considered together, leisure activity level of the household head was more influential than role overload in predicting convenient service expenditures. Given the significance of leisure activity level in the current inquiry, the contributions of this variable should be explored in future investigations of services consumption. This study specifically examined the impact of the household head's leisure activity level. Future investigations should identify the impact of all family members' levels of participation in outside activities.

Additional research examining the relationship between role overload, leisure activity level, and convenience consumption would also be meaningful. Previous leisure research has suggested that high levels of leisure involvement often come with high levels of other commitments, implying that certain time-constrained individuals somehow "make time" to participate in leisure activities (e.g., Hultsman 1995; Kay and Jackson 1991). The premise of the current research was suggested by this previous research and by Reilly (1982) who proposed, but never tested the

proposition, that the inability (or unwillingness) to decrease time in volunteer and other outside activities may contribute to role overload, and thus increase convenience consumption. Thus, the current investigation examined role overload and leisure activity level for their individual contributions to explaining convenient service expenditures. What is left unclear, however, is the connection between leisure activity, role overload or time pressure, and convenience consumption. Specifically, does increased leisure activity level lead to role overload and thus convenience consumption?

Given that role overload, a measure related to time pressure, was not found to be significantly related to convenient service expenditures, but leisure activity was, one implication can be made. That is, when volunteering or other outside activities are not curtailed, convenient services are purchased as an alternate time-saving or effort-reducing strategy, but perhaps not as a direct result of perceived time pressure or role overload conditions.

Future research should also consider the distinctions or range of intensities that may exist with respect to time availability and time pressure. Desiring to "save time" (or effort), or even being time-scarce or recognizing time-constraints, may not necessarily equate with feeling role-overloaded or feeling time-pressured. Indeed, such a distinction is more than semantic in that it may explain the lack of significance demonstrated here between role overload



and convenient service expenditures. Consumers do not have to consider themselves role-overloaded to purchase convenient services. Further examination of the dynamics between role overload, time pressure, time scarcity, leisure activity participation and convenient service consumption is warranted.

In conclusion, any ongoing effort to profile the convenience oriented services consumer should reach beyond the economic/household production-based variables that have been examined in prior research. The research presented here represents only one of the first steps in that direction. The profile of the convenience oriented services consumer which emerged here is that married, home-owning households with higher expenditures on convenient services (households having higher levels of LOGCSO) had older husbands; a greater leisure activity level of the household head; a lower value-consciousness score of the household head; and a greater total household pre-tax 1995 income. It is just as valuable to note that expenditures by these convenience oriented households were not significantly associated with the number of hours worked per year by the wife; the number of hours worked per year by the husband; the number of persons in the household aged six years and over; the number of persons in the household aged five and younger; the role overload score of the household head; or the individual statements of behavior and attitude with respect to household use of credit cards, charge cards or charge accounts.

This study examined nine demographic, lifestyle and price-convenience tradeoff variables. All three categories of variables are important in explaining convenient service expenditures and profiling consumers with a convenient service orientation. Future research should continue to move in the direction of providing richer detail to the profile which has emerged here and explore in more depth the meaning and various dimensions of convenience. The implications for services management and strategy will be strengthened by such future research endeavors. Market segmentation, target marketing, service positioning, and services promotion are all areas that benefit from recognizing customer wants and needs and developing customer profiles. Indeed, understanding the customer and recognizing their wants and needs remains a source of competitive advantage and is of strategic importance for participants in the growing services segment of our economy.

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APPENDIX

# CONSUMER SERVICES QUESTIONNAIRE

## (TO BE COMPLETED BY THE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD)

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this questionnaire. Section I below asks a number of questions involving consumer opinions and attitudes. Section II asks a series of questions pertaining to a variety of consumer services and your household's buying habits. Section III contains questions about your leisure activities and Section IV contains questions regarding your household characteristics necessary for classification purposes. Please answer all of the questions in this survey. Your input in all of the sections is vital, and please be assured that your identity will remain anonymous.

SECTION I - CONSUMER OPINIONS AND ATTITUDES
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This section contains a number of statements which represent commonly held opinions. There are no right or wrong answers. You will probably disagree with some of the statements and agree with others. We are interested in the extent to which you agree or disagree. Read each statement carefully. Then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by circling the number at the end of each sentence. The numbers and their meaning are indicated below.

- If you *agree strongly*, circle 5
- If you *agree somewhat*, circle 4
- If you *neither agree nor disagree*, circle 3
- If you *disagree somewhat*, circle 2
- If you *disagree strongly*, circle 1

First impressions are usually best. Give your opinion on every statement. If you find the numbers do not adequately indicate your own opinion, use the one which is closest to the way you feel.

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>				<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>
1. I have to do things that I don't really have the time and energy for.	1	2	3	4	5
2. There are too many demands on my time.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I can't ever seem to get caught up.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
6. There are times when I cannot meet everyone's expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sometimes I feel as if there are not enough hours in the day.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Many times I have to cancel my commitments.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I seem to have to overextend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the other people I know.	1	2	3	4	5

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>				<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>
11. I find myself having to prepare priority lists (lists which tell me which thing I should do first) to get done all the things I have to do. Otherwise, I forget because I have so much to do.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I feel I have to do things hastily and maybe less carefully in order to get everything done.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I just can't find the energy in me to do all the things expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I have more spare time than I need.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am very careful about the amount of money I spend.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I shop a lot for "specials."	1	2	3	4	5
17. I find myself checking prices even for small items.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I usually watch the advertisements for announcements of sales.	1	2	3	4	5
19. A person can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I buy many things with a credit card or a charge card.	1	2	3	4	5
21. It is good to have charge accounts.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I am very concerned about low prices, but I am equally concerned about product quality.	1	2	3	4	5
23. When grocery shopping, I compare the prices of different brands to be sure I get the best value for the money.	1	2	3	4	5
24. When purchasing a product, I always try to maximize the quality I get for the money I spend.	1	2	3	4	5
25. When I buy products, I like to be sure that I am getting my money's worth.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I generally shop around for lower prices on products, but they still must meet certain quality requirements before I will buy them.	1	2	3	4	5
27. When I shop, I usually compare the "price per ounce" information for brands I normally buy.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I always check prices at the grocery store to be sure I get the best value for the money I spend.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION II - SERVICES USED

Below are descriptions of six services that are available to households who are willing to pay for them. Underneath these descriptions are some questions relating to the services that you and members of your household have purchased during the last six months. Please refer to these service descriptions as you answer these questions.

1. Paid Clothing Care Services: This includes commercial laundry services such as laundry sent out and minor clothing repairs (it does not include coin-operated/Laundromat/self-service laundry or chemical dry cleaning).
2. Paid Auto Cleaning Services: This includes simple, routine auto cleaning services such as car washes/waxes (hand and machine) and interior cleaning/vacuuming (not including auto painting, engine maintenance or engine repair).
3. Paid Domestic Services: This consists of services are that provided inside your home. Domestic services include house cleaning/maid services, clothes washing/ironing, cooking and other routine domestic services (it does not include carpet cleaning services).
4. Paid Lawn Care Services: This includes mowing grass, raking and bagging of clippings, and other regular, routine grounds-keeping and gardening services.
5. Paid Residence Maintenance Services: This includes services that are performed on your home such as gutter cleaning, house painting (interior/exterior), caulking and other simple or routine (non- specialty) home maintenance or repair services (not including specialties such as electrical or plumbing repairs).
6. Paid Carpet Cleaning Services: This includes rug shampooing and furniture upholstery cleaning services (it does not include renting equipment to perform the job yourself).

INSTRUCTIONS: Based on the above descriptions please indicate in the space provided, your household's purchasing habits regarding these services during the last six months. Please try to be as accurate as possible in your estimation of these service purchases. Please feel free to consult your household records or other members of your household.

- If you *very seldom* purchase this service, circle 1  
 If you *seldom* purchase this service, circle 2  
 If you *sometimes* purchase this service, circle 3  
 If you *often* purchase this service, circle 4  
 If you *very often* purchase this service, circle 5

	<u>Household Purchase Habit</u>					<u>In total, over the last 6 months, how much has your household spent for this service?</u>
	Very Seldom	2	3	4	Very Often	
1. Clothing Care	1	2	3	4	5	\$ _____
2. Auto Cleaning	1	2	3	4	5	\$ _____
3. Domestic Services	1	2	3	4	5	\$ _____
4. Lawn Care	1	2	3	4	5	\$ _____
5. Residence Maintenance	1	2	3	4	5	\$ _____
6. Carpet Cleaning	1	2	3	4	5	\$ _____



SECTION III - LEISURE ACTIVITIES

Below are a number of common leisure and recreational activities. Please indicate how frequently you have participated, over the last 6 months, in each activity by circling the number at the end of each activity. Your overall participation includes time spent alone and with spouse, children, friends, etc. The numbers and their meaning are indicated below.

- If you participated: *not at all*, circle 1  
*less than once a month*, circle 2  
*about once a month*, circle 3  
*several times a month*, circle 4  
*several times a week*, circle 5  
*almost every day*, circle 6

First impressions are usually best. Give your opinion on every statement. If you find the numbers do not adequately indicate your own opinion, use the one which is closest to the way you feel.

<u>ACTIVITY</u>	YOUR OVERALL PARTICIPATION						IF YOU HAVE PARTICIPATED, WITH WHOM DID YOU PARTICIPATE <u>MOST OFTEN?</u> (Check all that apply)		
	Not at All	1	2	3	4	5	6	by yourself	with your spouse
1. Went to a concert	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
2. Watched TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
3. Went to the movies	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4. Attended a sporting event	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
5. Participated in team sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6. Visited museum/art gallery/library	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
7. Exercise (aerobics/machine)	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
8. Went skiing	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
9. Jogged	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
10. Went swimming	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
11. Went hiking/back packing	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
12. Went hunting/fishing	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
13. Went for a walk	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
14. Went boating	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
15. Went camping	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
16. Went bicycling	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
17. Went bowling	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
18. Played tennis/racquetball	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
19. Played golf	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
20. Went to a club meeting	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
21. Attended church	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
22. Visited relatives/friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
23. Entertained people in my home	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
24. Did volunteer work	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
25. Worked on a community project	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
26. Went on a trip, travelled	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
27. Gave or attended a dinner party	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
28. Went out to dinner at a restaurant	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
29. Went out to dance, drink	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
30. Read a book	1	2	3	4	5	6	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

SECTION IV - HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

Finally, we would like some information about you and your household. Please answer these questions as accurately as possible. These questions are very important for classification purposes and will not be used to identify you in any way. As with all the information in this questionnaire, your answers will remain completely confidential.

1. Please indicate the category which best describes your household and residence:

<u>HOUSEHOLD</u>	<u>PRIMARY RESIDENCE</u>	<u>LOCATION OF RESIDENCE</u>
<input type="checkbox"/> married couple (includes remarriages)	<input type="checkbox"/> Rent Apartment	<input type="checkbox"/> Urban
<input type="checkbox"/> unmarried couple living together	<input type="checkbox"/> Rent Home	<input type="checkbox"/> Suburban
<input type="checkbox"/> single, never married	<input type="checkbox"/> Own Home	<input type="checkbox"/> Rural
<input type="checkbox"/> single by divorce or separation	<input type="checkbox"/> Own Condominium	
<input type="checkbox"/> widowed	<input type="checkbox"/> Other	

2. How old is your residence (in years)? \_\_\_\_\_

3. Including yourself, how many persons reside in your household who are :

- ages 0 to 2 years? \_\_\_\_\_ (enter number)
- ages 3 to 5 years? \_\_\_\_\_ (enter number)
- ages 6 to 12 years? \_\_\_\_\_ (enter number)
- ages 13 to 17 years? \_\_\_\_\_ (enter number)
- ages over 18 years? \_\_\_\_\_ (enter number)

4. In what year were you born? \_\_\_\_\_

5. What is your sex? Male  Female

6. In what year was your current spouse or other household head born? \_\_\_\_\_ (if not applicable, enter N/A)

7. What is their sex?  Male  Female  Not applicable

8. Please indicate the highest level of education that you and your current spouse have achieved:

<u>YOU</u>	<u>YOUR SPOUSE (if married)</u>
<input type="checkbox"/> Completed grammar school	<input type="checkbox"/> Completed grammar school
<input type="checkbox"/> Some high school	<input type="checkbox"/> Some high school
<input type="checkbox"/> High School graduate	<input type="checkbox"/> High School graduate
<input type="checkbox"/> Some college	<input type="checkbox"/> Some college
<input type="checkbox"/> College graduate (4-year degree)	<input type="checkbox"/> College graduate (4-year degree)
<input type="checkbox"/> Some post graduate work	<input type="checkbox"/> Some post graduate work
<input type="checkbox"/> Post graduate degree (Master's, Ph.D., Law, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> Post graduate degree (Master's, Ph.D., Law, etc.)

9. On average, how many hours per week were you employed in 1995? \_\_\_\_\_ hours per week.
10. How many weeks did you work in 1995? \_\_\_\_\_ weeks in 1995.
11. On average, how many hours per week was your spouse employed in 1995? \_\_\_\_\_ hours per week.  
(If zero, enter '0'; if not married enter N/A)
12. How many weeks did your spouse work in 1995? \_\_\_\_\_ weeks in 1995. (If zero, enter '0';  
if not married, enter N/A)
13. Please indicate your total household income from all sources, before taxes, in 1995 (check one):
- |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than \$ 9,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 to 49,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 to 89,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$10,000 to 19,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000 to 59,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$90,000 to 99,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 to 29,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000 to 69,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> Over \$100,000     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 to 39,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$70,000 to 79,999 |   |

14. What percentage of your household's total pre-tax 1995 income was contributed by you? By your spouse?

- | <u>YOU</u>                                 | <u>YOUR SPOUSE (if married)</u>            |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> less than 10%     | <input type="checkbox"/> less than 10%     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10 to 19 percent  | <input type="checkbox"/> 10 to 19 percent  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20 to 29 percent  | <input type="checkbox"/> 20 to 29 percent  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30 to 39 percent  | <input type="checkbox"/> 30 to 39 percent  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 40 to 49 percent  | <input type="checkbox"/> 40 to 49 percent  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 50 to 59 percent  | <input type="checkbox"/> 50 to 59 percent  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 60 to 69 percent  | <input type="checkbox"/> 60 to 69 percent  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 70 to 79 percent  | <input type="checkbox"/> 70 to 79 percent  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 80 to 89 percent  | <input type="checkbox"/> 80 to 89 percent  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 90 to 100 percent | <input type="checkbox"/> 90 to 100 percent |

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY.

CURRICULUM VITA

PATRICIA KRAMER VOLI

Home Address  
1518 Portsmouth Place  
Wilmington, North Carolina 28405  
(910) 686-0548

EDUCATION

Doctor of Philosophy, Business Administration

Old Dominion University  
Norfolk, Virginia  
Major Field: Marketing  
Minor Field: International Business  
Conferred: 1998  
Major Field GPA: 4.0  
Minor Field GPA: 4.0  
Overall GPA: 3.92  
Phi Kappa Phi

Masters of Business Administration

Xavier University  
Cincinnati, Ohio  
Area of Concentration: Marketing  
Conferred: 1989  
Overall GPA: 3.8

Bachelor of Arts

Douglass College  
Rutgers University  
New Brunswick, New Jersey  
Majors: Political Science and History  
Conferred: 1982  
Overall GPA: 3.7  
Cum Laude Graduate  
Phi Beta Kappa  
Pi Sigma Alpha (Political Science Honor)  
Phi Alpha Theta (History Honor)

ACADEMIC EXPERIENCE

- 1995 - 1996      University of North Carolina at Wilmington  
Cameron School of Business Administration  
Adjunct Professor of Marketing  
Courses Taught: Consumer Behavior  
Principles of Marketing
- 1992 - 1993      Old Dominion University  
The College of Business and Public  
Administration  
Instructor of Marketing  
Courses Taught: Principles of Marketing
- 1991 - 1994      Old Dominion University  
The College of Business and Public  
Administration  
Graduate Research Assistant  
Assistant To: Professor John B. Ford
- 1989 - 1991      University of North Carolina at Wilmington  
The Cameron School of Business Administration  
Lecturer in Marketing - Full Time (12 Credits)  
Academic Advising: 25 students  
Courses Taught: Consumer Behavior  
Promotions  
Principles of Marketing  
Internships in Marketing (2)

INDUSTRY EXPERIENCE

- 1983 - 1988      Cincinnati Bell Inc.  
Cincinnati, Ohio  
Title: Strategic Planner  
Researched and analyzed potential business  
opportunities for the corporation.  
Responsible for market analysis in the form of  
product/market potential, attractiveness and  
strategic fit. Developed and presented  
business cases/plans to corporate executives  
for merger, acquisition and new venture  
opportunities. Primary strategic business  
unit responsibilities: business-to-business  
marketing and information systems.

OTHER EXPERIENCE

- 1995 Graduate Instructor's Manual Contributor  
Harcourt Brace & Company  
"Managing Services Marketing:Text and Readings" by John E.G. Bateson.
- 1993 Paper Reviewer  
Southern Marketing Association  
Advertising, Consumer and Trade Promotion and Sales Management Track  
Atlanta meeting, November 1993.
- 1990 Text (Chapter) Reviewer  
Houghton Mifflin Company  
Promotions Management Text.
- 1990 Focus Group Moderator  
Sanco Realty of Wilmington  
Identified needs and motivations of new home buyers.

TEACHING INTERESTS

Consumer Behavior	Principles of Marketing
Advertising/Promotions	International Marketing

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Marketing/Promotion Strategy (Domestic/International)  
Services, Not-for-Profit, and Leisure Marketing Strategy  
Individual and Family Decision Making and Consumption

PUBLISHED RESEARCH

Voli, Patricia K., John B. Ford, Earl D. Honeycutt, Jr., and Susan L. Casey (1997), "An Examination of Gender Role Portrayals in Japanese Advertising: A Magazine Content Analysis," Journal of Advertising. (Forthcoming, Spring 1998).

Ford, John B., Michael S. LaTour, Earl D. Honeycutt, Jr. and Patricia K. Voli (1994), "Consumer Perceptions of Sex Role Portrayals in Advertising: A Comparison of Business Students in the United States, Japan, Thailand and New Zealand," Asian Journal of Marketing, 2 (2) (December), 21-36.

PUBLISHED RESEARCH (Cont.)

Voli, Patricia Kramer and Tammy Hunt (1994), "Risk Taking as a Prerequisite to Innovation: Toward a Conceptual Model of Risk Taking Propensity," Proceedings of the 1994 Southeast Region of the Decision Sciences Institute, Williamsburg, VA, March 3-5, 101-103.

Ford, John B., Michael S. LaTour, Earl D. Honeycutt Jr., Patricia K. Voli and Mathew Joseph (1993), "A Comparison of American and Japanese Consumer Perceptions of Sex Role Portrayals in Advertising," Proceedings of Sixth Bi-Annual World Marketing Congress, Istanbul, Turkey. July 15-19.

Ford, John B., Earl D. Honeycutt, Jr., Michael S. LaTour, Mathew Joseph, Patricia K. Voli and Jennifer Job (1993), "Perceptions of Sex Role Portrayals in Advertising: A Comparison of Australian and New Zealand Students," Topics in Advertising, Academy of International Business-West SE Asia Conference, Hong Kong. June, p. 1-14.

Ford, John B., Earl D. Honeycutt, Jr., Michael S. LaTour, Mathew Joseph, Patricia K. Voli and Jennifer Job (1993), "A Cross Cultural Comparison of Business Student Perceptions of Sex Role Portrayals in Advertising," 1993 Proceedings of the Academy of Marketing Science Annual Conference, Miami, FL, May 26-29.

Bojanic, David C. and Patricia K. Voli (1992), "Customer Interchange of Tourist Attractions: A Look at the 'Locals'," Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing, 1 (2) (Summer), 45-58.

Roberts, Scott D., Patricia K. Voli and KerenAmi Johnson (1992), "Beyond the Family Life Cycle: An Inventory of Variables for Defining the Family as a Consumption Unit," in Developments in Marketing Science, 15, Victoria L. Crittenden, ed. Coral Gables, FL: Academy of Marketing Science, April 22-25, 71-75.

Ford, John B., Earl D. Honeycutt, Patricia K. Voli and Mathew Joseph (1992), "Are Japanese Students As Critical of Their Role Portrayals in Advertising as New Zealand Students?" in Problems & Prospects in International Business: Perspectives from Asia and the Pacific, Oliver H. M. Yau and William F. Shepherd, eds., Brisbane, Australia: Proceedings of the Academy of International Business Southeast Asia Region Annual Conference, June 21-24, 275-279.

PUBLISHED RESEARCH (Cont.)

Bojanic, David C., Patricia K. Voli and L. Vincent Howe (1992), "Pricing in Public Institutions: An Empirical Examination," Proceedings of the 1992 Southeast Region of the Decision Sciences Institute, Savannah, GA, February 19-21, 98-101.

Bojanic, David C., Patricia K. Voli and James Hunt (1991), "Can Consumers Match Celebrities and the Products They Endorse?" 1991 Proceedings of the Academy of Marketing Science, Ft. Lauderdale, FL.

Bojanic, David C. and Patricia K. Voli (1990), "An Examination of Consumers' Ability to Match Celebrities and Brands," 1990 Proceedings of the Southeastern Chapter of the Institute of Management Sciences, Myrtle Beach, SC, 204-206.

DISSERTATION RESEARCH

Voli, Patricia Kramer (1998) "The Convenience Orientation of Services Consumers: An Empirical Examination." Doctoral Dissertation Research, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA.

PRESENTATIONS

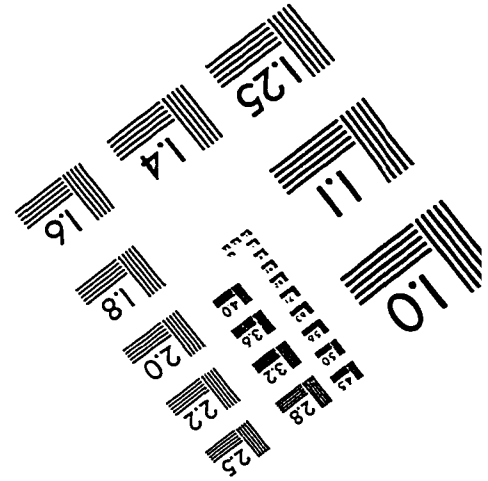
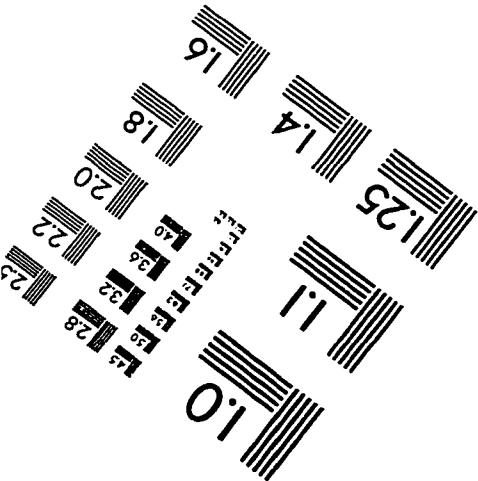
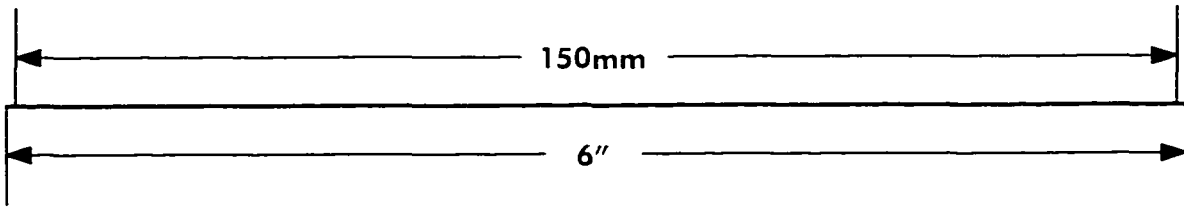
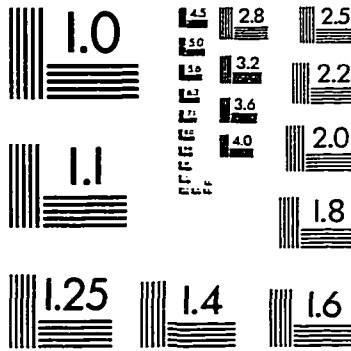
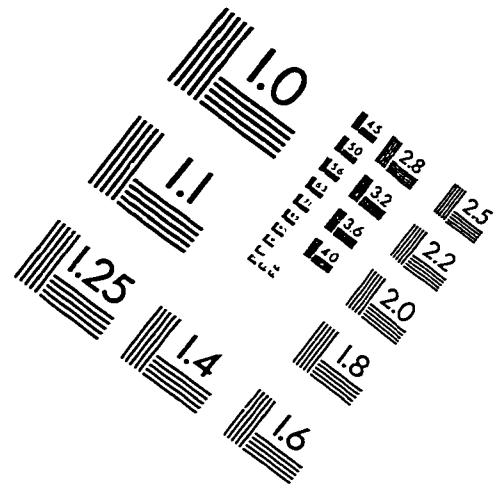
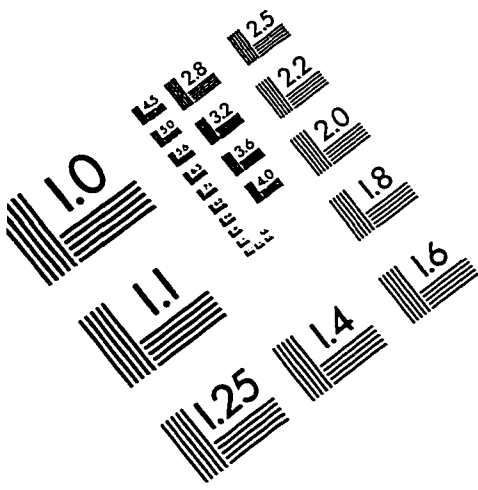
Voli, Patricia K. (1991), "Corporate/Institutional Identity: Name, Logo and Design Considerations," Wilmington, NC: New Hanover County Museum Board.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT/PUBLIC SERVICE

Membership:       Wilmington Country Day School, 1997-present  
                          Vice-President, Board of Directors  
  
                          Cape Fear Museum Foundation, 1990, 1991.  
                          Public Relations Committee  
                          Membership Committee



# IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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