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The effects of ethnicity, ethnic salience and ethnic identification on consumers' sources of information and purchase behavior

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**THE EFFECTS OF ETHNICITY, ETHNIC SALIENCE AND
ETHNIC IDENTIFICATION ON CONSUMERS' SOURCES
OF INFORMATION AND PURCHASE BEHAVIOR**

by

Patricia Humphrey, B.S., M.B.A.

**A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Business Administration**

**COLLEGE OF ADMINISTRATION AND BUSINESS
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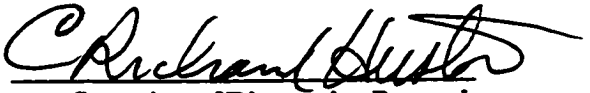
We hereby recommend that the dissertation prepared under our supervision
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On Consumers' Sources of Information and Purchase Behavior

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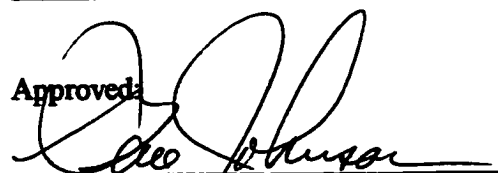

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were any significant differences in the search and purchase behavior between white and black consumers due to ethnicity, ethnic identification, ethnic salience and ethnic situation.

The sample was chosen from two universities, one predominately white, the other predominately black. Of the 360 questionnaires administered, 345 were usable. The sample was representative of the student population of each university with respect to age, gender, and ethnicity. Statistical techniques used were ANOVAs, t-tests and paired comparisons.

The findings indicate that ethnicity plays an important role in an individual's sources of information used for purchase decisions and purchase behavior. Statistically significant differences were found between black and white consumers in the sources of information used for purchase decisions and the products they purchased. Black consumers used different sources of information when making purchase decisions, relying heavily on store-related sources and advertising such as television and newspaper. Differences between black and white respondent's perceptions of each other's expenditures were also reported. The study found that black respondents predicted white respondents' purchase behavior better than white respondents predicted black respondents' purchase behavior. Although, ethnic identification was expected to affect an individual's search and purchase behavior no statistically significant differences were found. The effect of ethnic

situation on ethnic salience was not statistically significant, but was in the right direction, offering partial support for distinctiveness theory. Limited support for the effect of ethnic situation on purchase behavior was reported.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The importance of the black consumer is well documented throughout the marketing and psychological literature. Black consumers represent the largest ethnic minority group in the United States. With the purchasing power of black consumers increasing and estimated to be over \$533 billion dollars in 1999 (Millard, 1998), understanding the black consumer is essential for marketers.

Purpose of the Study

The majority of previous research concerning blacks as consumers suggests real differences do exist between white and black consumers' purchase behavior (Qualls and Moore, 1990; Schmitt and Lappin, 1980; Whittler, 1991; Green, 1995a). These studies suggest blacks have their own subculture, separate and distinct from white subcultures (Pitts, Whalen, O'Keefe, and Murray, 1989).

However, some researchers argue that the differences between black and white consumers are due to factors other than culture (O'Hare, 1987). These researchers contend the differences between black and white consumers are the result of factors such as income and social class (Sexton, 1972; Henry, 1976). A study by Williams and Qualls (1989) found differences between middle-class black and middle-class white consumers

were not significant when factors such as income and education were taken into consideration.

Donthu and Cherian (1992) theorize that the contradictions in previous studies may be caused by the effects of ethnic identification. They argue that members of ethnic groups differ in their strength of ethnic identification. Their study found weak Hispanic identifiers were similar to whites in their use of coupons. Weak Hispanic identifiers and whites were more likely to use coupons when shopping than strong Hispanic identifiers. Donthu and Cherian (1992) stress that researchers need to examine the influence of ethnic identification on consumers' purchase behavior.

Deshpande and Stayman (1994) suggested that the differences in consumers' ethnic identification may be explained by distinctiveness theory. Distinctiveness theory proposes that an individual's distinctive characteristics, rather than his or her common characteristics will be more salient to the individual. For example, when an individual is a minority in a social environment with respect to ethnicity, the more likely the individual will be aware (or salient) of his or her ethnicity. They suggested that the situation influences the consumer's ethnic identification and subsequently his purchase choices. Their study showed that consumers are more likely to evoke their ethnicity in a situation in which they are part of the minority. Consequently, more research is needed to determine if differences in purchase behavior exist between white and black consumers and between high and low ethnic identifiers. Also, research is needed to determine if ethnic identification is influenced by the ethnic situation.

Although previous studies have examined the effect of ethnic identification on consumer responses to celebrity advertising (Williams and Qualls, 1989), advertising

spokespersons' race (Deshpande & Stayman, 1994), information search behavior (Webster, 1992), and reference groups (Webster, 1995), only the study by Williams and Qualls is concerned with the black consumer. The other studies examined the Hispanic subculture. Therefore, the need exists to bring together the streams of research concerning the differences between black and white consumers, distinctiveness theory, and ethnic identification.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this dissertation are:

- (1) To determine if differences exist between white and black consumers' sources of information used for purchase decisions after removing the effects of social class and purchasing involvement.
- (2) To determine if consumers' ethnic identification will influence consumers' search for information.
- (3) To determine if minority or majority status in a situation will influence consumers' ethnic salience.
- (4) To determine if minority or majority status in a situation will influence consumers' ethnic identification.
- (5) To determine if minority or majority status in a situation will influence consumers' search for information.
- (6) To determine if differences exist between white and black consumers' purchase behavior.

- (7) To determine if differences exist in the reference groups used by black and white consumers.

Limitations of the Study

The sample was collected from students attending two universities in a limited geographical area which prevents generalization of the results to the general populace. The instrument used to collect data was a self-reported questionnaire which implies that respondents understood the questions and answered them honestly. The search for information questions were very general and not product specific. Consumers may vary their search for information depending upon the product desired. Purchase behavior was limited by the instrument which used six product categories and three reference groups.

Plan of Study

This dissertation consists of five chapters. Chapter II is a review of the literature investigating the differences between white and black consumers' search behavior, ethnic identification, distinctiveness theory, and purchase behavior. Chapter III describes the research hypotheses, the research design, the operationalization of the variables, and the statistical techniques to be employed. Chapter IV discusses the results of the statistical analyses. Chapter V presents the summary, discussion, and conclusions of the study. In addition, recommendations for future study and marketing implications are discussed.

Definition of Terms

Ethnic salience - awareness of one's ethnicity

Ethnicity - ethnic affiliation to a group of people sharing common racial, national, religious, language or cultural origin and background.

Information sources - the sources used by an individual when searching for information regarding a purchase such as advertising, reference groups, miscellaneous readership and store-related sources.

Purchasing involvement - measured by a scale developed by Slama and Tashchian (1985) consisting of 33 items designed to measure the amount of time and effort spent searching for information before purchasing products.

Reference groups - groups which an individual looks toward when making judgements about his beliefs and behaviors.

Strength of ethnic identification - how strongly an individual identifies with his or her ethnic group.

Social class - measured by education, occupation, residence and income of family (Coleman 1983).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The following studies investigated the differences in black and white consumers' purchase behavior, ethnic identification, distinctiveness theory, and search for information.

Research Concerning Black Consumers

The differences in the perceptions of black and white consumers have been cited in numerous studies. Most of these studies were concerned with the differences in the perceptions of black and white consumers when viewing commercial advertising (Bush, Hair, and Solomon, 1979; Tolley and Goett, 1972; Pitts, Whalen, O'Keefe and Murray, 1989). For example, many studies examined the differences in the perceptions of black and white viewers' responses to advertisements featuring actors of different races (Whittler, 1991; Whittler, 1989; Schlinger & Plummer, 1972). Whittler (1991) reviewed fourteen studies that examined the role of actors' race in commercial advertising during the 1960's and 70's. While these earlier studies suggest black consumers have better recall and more positive attitudes toward advertisements featuring black actors, Whittler concluded the majority of these findings are uncertain due to methodological problems. As Whittler (1991) noted, problems included issues such as "1) demand characteristics, 2) carry-over effects, 3) problems using real advertisements...and 4) the necessity of using a control group" (p.54).

The problems found in the earlier research motivated Whittler and DiMeo (1991) to conduct a study of white consumers' responses to advertisements that featured black and white actors. Their study found white adults have a less favorable attitude toward products and advertisements when advertisements featured black actors. The findings of this study conflicted with the results of an earlier study conducted by Whittler (1989) in which white college students reacted similarly to advertisements containing a white or black actor. Whittler and DiMeo reconciled the differences by suggesting younger whites and blacks have more opportunity for interaction than adult whites and blacks; therefore, younger people are more willing to accept individuals of different races.

Pitts, et al. (1989) examined the perceptions of black and white respondents to advertisements created by black marketers. Their study found that black respondents were more likely than white respondents to perceive the values expressed in the ads. Black respondents exhibited a positive attitude toward a commercial message which was developed by black marketers supporting the idea that "to communicate with maximum skill with a culture, one must be a member of that culture" (p.325).

Ness and Stith (1984) examined the values of middle-class white and black consumers. Respondents were asked to rate the importance of values on a seven-point scale. Values were measured with 36 statements such as "a comfortable life," "a world at peace" and "happiness." They found both white and black middle-class consumers share the same middle-class values. However, blacks consistently were more likely to rate the value items higher than whites. Their study supports Williams' and Qualls' (1989) findings that middle-class blacks identified with middle-class values even more than middle-class white consumers.

LaTour, Henthorne, and Williams (1989) documented the differences between white and black consumers' perceptions when forming an initial impression of retail salespeople. Their findings suggest black and white consumers form initial impressions of salespeople differently. Black consumers were more concerned with the perceived friendliness of the salesperson while white consumers were more concerned with the perceived qualifications of the salesperson. The differences between what each group considered to be an important salesperson characteristic illustrate the need for more research concerning the perceptual differences between white and black consumers.

Schmitt's and Lappin's (1980) examination of race and performance shows the differences of white and black perceptions in a controlled experiment. They examined the way race affects performance ratings between black and white raters and ratees. In their study, black raters inaccurately rated other blacks higher than did white raters, highlighting the importance race can play in the perceptions of both races. (Schmitt and Lappin, 1980).

Purchase Differences

Several studies have examined the purchase differences between white and black consumers (Tat and Bejou, 1994; Bauer and Cunningham, 1970; Sturdivant, 1973). Differences in fashion purchases (Stith and Goldsmith, 1989), media usage (Green, 1995a), and coupon usage (Green 1995b) have been reported.

Previous research suggests blacks spend more on clothing and are more likely to consider themselves fashion-conscious (Alexis, 1962). Stith and Goldsmith (1989) found middle-class blacks are more involved in new fashions than middle-class whites, even when

the effects of socioeconomic differences are controlled. They tested the following hypotheses: (p.251).

- H1: Middle-class women are higher on self-reported fashion innovativeness, opinion leadership, and spending than men.
- H2: Middle-class blacks are higher on self-reported fashion innovativeness, opinion leadership, and spending than whites.
- H3: Gender differences in self-reported fashion innovativeness, opinion leadership, and spending are greater than ethnic differences.

All three hypotheses were supported. Blacks spent more on fashion than whites even though they reported less income.

An even more profound difference is evident in the media usage between black and white consumers. Purchase differences have been reported in readership of news publications between white and black consumers. Green (1995a) found that while 82% of white consumers reported reading the Sunday edition of the local paper, only 45% of black consumers reported reading the local Sunday paper. However, 34% of black consumers did report reading a local black newspaper. Since over 80% of coupons are distributed in the Sunday edition of the local newspaper, readership of the Sunday paper was a significant factor in coupon usage. Her findings stress the importance of understanding cultural differences when marketing to black consumers.

Tat and Bejou (1994) examined black consumers' motives for coupon usage. They compared differences between white and black consumers' motives for using coupons. The motives they identified were self-satisfaction, price-consciousness, interpersonal influence, perceived time and effort, and institutional barriers. They found significant differences between black and white consumers in their coupon usage in two motives:

price-consciousness and interpersonal influence. Black consumers were more price-conscious than white consumers, yet, white consumers agreed more that their relatives, friends, and neighbors used coupons when they shop.

Differences Within the Black Subculture

Not only are there differences between black and white consumers, there are also important differences within the black subculture. This diversity of black consumers has contributed to a controversial hypothesis concerning black acculturation into mainstream American society. Fraizer (1957) maintains that as middle-class blacks assimilated into mainstream American society, their commitment to their race or ethnicity would weaken. Jewell (1985) found support for Fraizer's hypothesis in a study of college students. In his study, black college students were reluctant to identify with people of color outside of North America. However, Williams' and Qualls' (1989) study contradicted Fraizer's hypothesis. Using an intensity of ethnic identification measure, they segmented blacks by how strongly they identified with their ethnic/racial culture. Their study found middle-class blacks identified more strongly with their ethnic/racial culture than did other black groups, yet their responses to celebrity advertising were more similar to middle-class whites. This study highlights the need for more research to determine the factors that influence ethnic identification and the effects of ethnic identification on consumer behavior.

Ethnic Identification

Ethnic identification has been defined in several ways. Webster and Faircloth (1994) defined ethnic identity as being present when "an ethnic group considers itself, part

of, but different from the larger population" (p.458). Ethnicity, according to Deshpande, Hoyer, and Donthu (1986) has several implied dimensions including :

a sense of common descent extending beyond kinship, political solidarity vis-a-via other groups, common customs, language, religion, values, morality, and etiquette (p. 216).

Previous studies have measured ethnicity based on last name (Saegert, Hoover, and Hilger, 1985), country of origin (Wallendorf and Reily, 1983; Gurak and Fitzgerald 1982), language spoken at home (Webster, 1992; Webster and Faircloth 1994; Massey and Mullan, 1984), and religion (Hirschman, 1981). However, as noted by Wooten and Galvin (1993), these measures are inappropriate for groups such as blacks which are not notably different from whites on these characteristics.

Studies concerning ethnic identification have investigated the influence of ethnic identification on a wide variety of consumer behaviors. For example, ethnic identification has been found to influence consumers' responses to advertising (Williams and Qualls, 1989; Deshpande, Hoyer, and Donthu (1986), consumers' search for information (Webster, 1992) and consumers' responses to marketing strategies (Donthu and Cherian, 1992). Donthu and Cherian (1992), asserted consumers who identify strongly with their ethnic group behave differently from consumers who do not identify strongly with their ethnic group. The next section reviews several recent studies examining consumers' ethnic identification.

Strength of Ethnic Identification

Deshpande, Hoyer, and Donthu (1986) examined the intensity of ethnic affiliation of Hispanic consumers. They suggest that purchase-related differences existed between Hispanic consumers based upon how strongly they identified with their ethnic group. Ethnicity was operationalized using a measure of ethnic identification referred to as Strength of Ethnic Identification. The measure consisted of two questions. Consumers were asked to identify the racial or ethnic group to which they belonged. Then they were asked to indicate how strongly they identified with that group. Strong ethnic identifiers were those individuals who identified "very strongly" or "strongly" with their ethnic group. Weak ethnic identifiers were those who did not identify strongly with their self-designated ethnic group. The distribution of responses on a five-point scale showed only a few respondents in the mid-range of the distribution. Most respondents were clearly "Strong" or "Weak" Identifiers. The following hypotheses were tested (Deshpande, Hoyer, and Donthu, 1986, pp. 215-16).

H1: Strong Hispanic Identifiers are more likely to have a positive attitude toward government (and conversely, a negative attitude toward business) than are Weak Hispanic Identifiers.

This hypothesis was supported.

H2. Strong Hispanic Identifiers are more likely to be frequent users of Spanish language media (both broadcast and print) than are Weak Hispanic Identifiers.

This hypothesis was supported.

H3: Strong Hispanic Identifiers are more likely to have a positive attitude toward advertising than are Weak Hispanic Identifiers.

Strong Hispanic Identifiers had a more positive attitude toward advertising than Weak Hispanics, but the finding was not statistically significant.

H4: Strong Hispanic Identifiers are more likely to be brand loyal than are Weak Hispanic Identifiers.

This hypothesis was supported.

H5: Strong Hispanic Identifiers are more likely to buy prestige products than are Weak Hispanic Identifiers.

This hypothesis was supported.

H6: Strong Hispanic Identifiers are more likely to buy products advertised to their ethnic group than are Weak Hispanic Identifiers.

This hypothesis was supported.

H7: Weak Hispanic Identifiers will lie between Anglos and Strong Hispanic Identifiers in terms of attitudes toward business and government, advertising, Spanish-language media usage, brand loyalty, and ethnically advertised and prestige product patronage.

This hypothesis was partially supported. Anglos were significantly different from Strong Hispanic Identifiers only on ethnically advertised brand purchases and prestige product patronage.

The findings by Deshpande, Hoyer, and Donthu (1986) support the use of the strength of ethnic identification as a measure of ethnicity. The results of their study suggest the differences which exist between whites and Weak Hispanic Identifiers to be less than the differences which exist between Weak Hispanic Identifiers and Strong Hispanic Identifiers.

Williams and Qualls (1989) noted the lack of research designed to examine the diversity of black consumers. They measured ethnic identification using three questions. The first question asked the subject to self-report the ethnic group to which they belonged.

The second question asked the subjects to identify how strongly they identified with the self-reported ethnic group using a five-point scale. The third question compared ethnic affiliation to nationality affiliation. The following hypotheses relating to ethnic identification were tested:

H1a: Strong black identifiers will be significantly different from Anglos in their response to celebrity advertising.

H1b: Strong black identifiers will have a more favorable attitude toward celebrity advertising than Anglos.

Hypothesis 1a was supported. There was a significant difference between strong black identifiers and Anglos in their response to celebrity advertising. Hypothesis 1b was also supported. Strong black identifiers were significantly different from Anglos in their favorable attitude toward celebrity advertising .

Their study found college-educated blacks with incomes over \$30,000 (buppies) were more similar to their white counterparts (yuppies) than to other black groups in their responses to celebrity advertising. However, the buppies still retained their strong ethnic identification. Williams and Qualls (1989) suggested multiculturalism as a possible explanation for this apparent inconsistency in their findings. Under multiculturalism, blacks exist in two cultural worlds, adopting both value systems. Multiculturalism suggests black consumers who score high on intensity-of-ethnic-identification scale may in some situations exhibit behavior representative of the black culture and in other situations exhibit behavior representative of the white culture.

Situational Ethnicity and Felt Ethnicity

Stayman and Deshpande (1989) traced situational ethnicity to the work of anthropologist John Paden. They compared Paden's work with that of social psychologist William McGuire's work on the self-concept. Both Paden and McGuire theorized that an individual's perception of their social situation would affect their ethnic identity. An individual's perception of ethnic identity may be defined as self-designated ethnicity or felt ethnicity. Self-designated ethnicity refers to the ethnic group to which an individual will report as belonging, while felt ethnicity is defined as how strongly an individual will identify with that ethnic group. Stayman and Deshpande (1989) contended "the relevant construct to focus on is not self-designated ethnicity as an individual trait, but felt ethnicity as a situationally determined state" (p.362).

Stayman and Deshpande (1989) measured felt ethnicity using a strength of identification measure with a nine-point scale. The following hypotheses were tested.

H1: A combination of self-designated ethnicity, antecedent state, social surroundings, and product type affect behavior.

The hypothesis was supported.

H2: Self-designated ethnicity and antecedent state combine to influence felt ethnicity.

The hypothesis was supported.

H3: Situation-specific felt ethnicity is a better predictor of behavior than either self-designated ethnicity or non-situation-specific felt ethnicity.

The hypothesis was supported.

H4: The felt ethnicity-behavior relationship is moderated by the social surroundings and the product type being considered.

The hypothesis was supported. Their study found the level of felt ethnicity influences consumer behavior. As a predictor of behavior, Stayman and Deshpande (1989) found situation-specific felt ethnicity is better than non-situation-specific felt ethnicity.

Donthu and Cherian (1992) maintained that a key variable in understanding the influence of ethnicity on marketing mixes is the strength of ethnic identification. They proposed that contradictions in the literature concerning whether differences exist between Hispanic and white consumers may be due to differences within the Hispanic subculture and may be explained by using the variable, strength of ethnic identification. They measured strength of ethnic identification by asking the respondents to identify the ethnic group to which they belong and how strongly they identify with that group. They also asked "how important was it to assimilate with the dominate Anglo culture" (Donthu and Cherian, 1992, p. 505) and "how important was it to maintain identity with the Hispanic culture?" (Donthu and Cherian, 1992 p. 505-6). Finally, they asked the respondents how often they spoke Spanish, ranging from never to all the time. The reliability of their four item scale as measured by Cronbach's alpha was 0.79 which is higher than the acceptable .6 criteria of Nunnally (1978) and Churchill (1979).

Donthu and Cherian (1992) hypothesized that Strong Hispanics would be more likely to be brand loyal, to stick to a budget, to stick to a shopping list, to rate pride-related values higher, to use more Spanish magazines and newspapers, to be less influenced by store displays and to be less influenced by salespeople than Weak Hispanics.

All the hypotheses were supported. Donthu and Cherian (1992) concluded that Strong Hispanics used fewer coupons for the following three reasons. First, Strong Hispanics are brand loyal and exhibit ethnic pride. Second, Strong Hispanics may not be exposed to coupons because they use Spanish magazines and newspapers which do not usually offer coupons. Third, Strong Hispanics are less influenced by in-store marketing plans. All of these factors contribute to the use of fewer coupons by Strong Hispanics. This study suggests that the variable - strength of ethnic identification - influences consumer behavior.

Webster (1992), in a study of Hispanics, examined the effects of ethnic identification on consumers' search for information. Ethnic identification was operationalized by which language was spoken in the home; Spanish, English, and Spanish and English equally. The results of her study found language or ethnic identification to have a significant effect on a consumer's search for information. Specifically, the study showed high Hispanic identifiers (Spanish speaking Hispanics) were more likely to be influenced by radio advertisements, billboards, family members, coworkers, coupons, and point-of-purchase displays. In contrast, low-Hispanic identifiers were more likely to be influenced by magazine advertisements, brochure advertisements, *Yellow Pages*, *Consumer Reports*, window shopping and product labels. Generally, bilinguals exhibited search patterns which fell between low-Hispanic identifiers and high-Hispanic identifiers in the areas of billboards, in-store POP displays, family, *Consumer Reports*, product labels, *Yellow Pages*, and window shopping. Bilinguals were more similar to high-Hispanics in the use of newspaper advertisements, magazine advertisements and salespeople when searching for information. However, bilinguals were more similar to low-Hispanics in the

use of radio advertisements, brochure advertisement, and friends (Webster, 1992). Webster's study offers support for the contention that ethnic identification influences consumer search behavior patterns.

Wooten and Galvin (1993) extended Stayman and Deshpande's (1989) study of felt ethnicity by examining felt ethnicity as a context-induced feeling. Using black students attending a Midwestern university as subjects, they manipulated the advertising copy by using two mock newspaper articles. One article was race-related and discussed affirmative action programs. The other article was non-race-related and addressed the issues of trends in television programming. Within both articles, a public-service advertisement showing a black child was embedded. They tested whether the context in which an advertisement appears affects the reader's level of ethnicity and the reader's attitude toward the ad.

Felt ethnicity was measured with two statements on a seven-point scale. The first statement asked the respondent to identify the extent "to which the article made one 'think' about his own racial/ethnic identity" (Wooten and Galvin, 1993, p.255). The second statement asked the respondent to indicate how strongly he or she agreed with the statement "that the article increased ones 'awareness' of his racial/ethnic identity" (Wooten and Galvin, 1993, p.255).

The subjects reading the race-related article reported a higher level of felt ethnicity and viewed the ad more favorably than those who read the non-race-related article. This study stresses the importance of felt ethnicity and offers support that an individual's felt ethnicity can be influenced by the situation.

Distinctiveness Theory

Deshpande and Stayman (1994) introduced distinctiveness theory into the marketing literature. Although new to marketing, social scientists have studied the influence of distinctive traits since the early 1920's. According to McGuire (1984), many early theorists discovered that things get noticed more by what is different about them than by what is similar to them. Numerous studies in the social sciences theorize that the distinctiveness of an object increases the probability of the object being noticed (McGuire, 1984).

Distinctiveness Theory and the Self-Concept

Distinctiveness theory proposes that an individual will be more aware of his or her distinctive traits than his or her common traits. In his studies of the self-concept, McGuire asserted an individual exists, "insofar as he or she is different and that he or she is perceived by self and others in terms of those differences" (McGuire, 1984, p.85). He stated that an individual's perception of oneself is in terms of how different one is from other people. Furthermore, since an individual perceives oneself in ways in which they differ from other people, the individual's perception of self will change as one moves from one social setting to another. For example, a black woman serving on a jury with 11 black men will perceive herself as a woman. However, if she serves on a jury with 11 white women she will perceive herself as black. The characteristics that are more distinctive to the individual in relation to other people will be more likely to be salient than common characteristics. Salience is defined as a person's awareness of a characteristic when defining oneself (Cota and Dion, 1986).

McGuire and his colleagues have tested distinctiveness theory's predictions for salience using numerous characteristics including hair color, weight, and birthplace (McGuire and Padawer-Singer, 1976; McGuire, 1984), wearing eyeglasses and height (McGuire and McGuire, 1981; McGuire, 1984), ethnicity and gender (McGuire, McGuire, and Winton, 1979; McGuire, 1984).

McGuire (1984) reported on several studies designed to test distinctiveness theory using students from first graders to college students. He used a variety of distinctiveness traits such as physical characteristics, ethnicity, and gender. He asked respondents to "tell us about yourself" using both oral and written instruments. A time limit of five minutes to respond was imposed. After the "tell us about yourself" question, respondents were given a structured interview including questions designed to measure the respondent's actual physical characteristics, ethnicity and gender. Physical characteristics such as height, weight, hair color, eye color, birthplace, age, eyeglasses, right or left handedness were examined. Respondents were more likely to mention a physical characteristic that was atypical. For example, very tall or short respondents mentioned height in their description of themselves more than respondents of average height. The results showed that for all eight of the physical characteristics, respondents were more likely to mention atypical characteristics than typical characteristics.

McGuire (1984) examined ethnic salience using students from the first, third, seventh, and eleventh grades. In this study, white students were the majority group (82%), and black students (9%), Hispanic students (8%), and other students (1%) were the minority groups. The study found 14% of the Hispanic students and 17% of the black students mentioned their ethnicity while only 1% of the white students mentioned their

ethnicity. As distinctiveness theory predicts, ethnicity was more salient among minority students than majority students.

McGuire (1984) also tested gender salience in the above student sample. While there was no difference between boys and girls who mentioned their gender, older students were more likely to mention gender than younger students. In order to examine the effect of household composition on the gender salience of the students, data on household composition were gathered by asking if their mother and father (or surrogates) were present in the household and the gender of siblings or other people who actually resided in the household. The students were divided into three groups based on household composition: female-majority, male-majority and households containing equal numbers. The results found that boys who reported they were boys were more likely to live in a female-majority household and less likely to live in a male-majority household. The same held true for girls. Girls were more likely to mention they were girls when they lived in a male-majority household.

Cota and Dion (1986) further tested distinctiveness theory using gender as a distinctive characteristic. The purpose of their study was to discover if an individual group member's awareness of gender depends upon the sex composition of the group. The sample consisted of university students enrolled in an introductory psychology class. Gender salience was assessed employing McGuire's "Tell me about yourself" and "Tell me what you are not" probes. Students were divided into three person, ad-hoc groups consisting of all male, all female, lone male (one male and two females) and lone female. While the experiment lasted only 20 minutes, the sex composition of these groups affected the salience of the individuals within the group. The results support distinctiveness

theory's postulate that gender is more salient depending upon the sex composition of the group. Cota and Dion (1986) concluded that an individual's self concept is fluid and responsive to the situational context.

Nelson and Miller (1995) extended distinctiveness theory beyond the self and to the categorization of others. They hypothesized that people categorized others based on their distinctive characteristics rather than their nondistinctive characteristics. Their study found individuals assumed others with distinctive traits would be more similar to people who shared their distinctive traits. In one of their studies, subjects were asked to describe an individual based upon two characteristics. One characteristic was very distinctive (skydiver, snake owner), the other characteristic was more common (dog owner, tennis player). The results of the study found that the subjects were more likely to describe an individual based upon the most distinctive characteristic. For example, when subjects were told sky divers preferred fiction and dog owners preferred non-fiction, the majority of subjects were more likely to predict that Bob (a sky diver (distinctive category) and a dog owner (nondistinctive category)) would prefer fiction. The subjects were more likely to describe Bob by what was distinctive about him (a sky diver) than by what was common (a dog owner). Their study shows distinctive traits affect not only the individual's self identity, but also affect others around the individual. They concluded that people categorize other people based on their distinctive characteristics and not their nondistinctive characteristics.

Distinctiveness Theory in the Marketing Literature

Deshpande and Stayman (1994) introduced distinctiveness theory into the marketing literature to provide theoretical guidance when using ethnic spokespersons in advertising. Their model proposed that the ethnic situation would affect the ethnic salience of an individual. An individual's ethnic salience is then expected to moderate the influence that a spokesperson's ethnicity would have on the individual's perception of spokesperson trustworthiness.

Deshpande and Stayman (1994) measured the subjects' ethnicity by using the current Census Bureau question which asks subjects to identify the group to which they belong. Using McGuire's (1984) measure of ethnic salience, they asked the subjects to respond to the question "Please tell us about yourself in your own words" (Deshpande and Stayman, 1994, p. 61). For a second measure of ethnic salience, they used Stayman and Deshpande's (1989) strength of ethnic identification scale. After asking respondents to identify the ethnic group to which they belong, they asked how strongly they identified with that ethnic group on a nine-point scale ranging from Very Weak to Very Strong.

Deshpande and Stayman (1994) tested the following hypotheses (p. 59).

- H1: Consumers living in a situation in which their ethnic group is in a numerical minority will be more likely to deem their ethnic identity salient than would members of a group that is in the numerical majority.
- H2: An increase (decrease) in ethnic salience due to minority (majority) status in an ethnic situation will increase (decrease) the influence of spokesperson ethnicity on perceived spokesperson trustworthiness.
- H3: An increase in spokesperson trustworthiness due to ethnic salience and ethnicity of spokesperson will lead to an increase in the positive attitude toward the brand being advertised.

All three hypothesis were supported. Consumers were more likely to mention their ethnic identities when they were in the numerical minority than when they were in the numerical majority. Specifically, Hispanics living in Austin (where they were a minority group) were more likely to mention their ethnicity than Hispanics living in San Antonio (where they were a majority group). The same held true for whites. Whites living in San Antonio (where they were a minority group) were more likely to mention their ethnicity than whites living in Austin (where they are a majority group). Furthermore, members of a minority group (Hispanic or white) found a spokesperson of similar ethnicity to be more trustworthy than did members of the majority group (Hispanic or white).

Consumers' Search for Information

One important decision consumers must make when engaging in the decision-making process is how much effort should be exerted in the search for information. The search for information is an important step in the process of consumer decision-making. Consumers at this stage recognize "a brand as one possibility among several brands that might be selected for purchase" (Webster, 1992, p.55). Therefore, marketers are very interested in the search patterns of their target customers as a means of identifying the types of information that affect purchase behavior.

Five common sources of information that consumers may rely upon include: internal sources, personal sources, marketing sources, public sources, and experimental sources. Internal sources or stored memory is often used because it is easily available and very believable. Personal sources such as friends and relatives are also used because of ease of availability and trustworthiness. Although marketing sources are also widely

available, consumers may not trust advertisers as much as they do their personal sources because advertisers stand to gain from the transaction. Public sources such as *Consumer Reports* are usually believable, but require effort on the part of the consumer. The last source of information is experimental sources such as examining or testing the product, but again effort must be exerted by the consumer (Peter and Olsen, 1994).

Numerous studies in the area of search for information have identified some factors that determine the extent of a consumer's search for information. The types of product, situational factors and individual factors all contribute to the effort a consumer will expend to search for information about a product, store, brand or prices (Bloch, Sherrell, and Ridgway, 1986; Brucks, 1985). Consumers tend to search more when the product is a high-priced, visible product. Search for information may also be influenced by situational factors (time pressure). Individual factors such as ethnicity may also influence the search for information (Beatty and Smith, 1987).

Information Search Behavior and Ethnicity

The influence of ethnicity on a consumer's search for information was investigated by Webster (1992). Her study examined the differences in the search behavior of Hispanics. Ethnic identification was measured using language spoken at home. Three groups were identified; Spanish-speaking, English-speaking, and bilinguals. Spanish-speaking Hispanics were labeled high-Hispanic identifiers and English-speaking Hispanics were labeled low-Hispanic identifiers.

Information search behavior was measured by asking the subject to "carefully think about the extent to which they have relied on or were influenced" by each source (Webster

1992, p.57). Sources were categorized into four groups; advertising, reference groups, miscellaneous readership and store-related sources.

Advertising sources included television commercials, radio advertisements, newspaper and magazine advertisements, billboards and brochures. Reference groups considered were friends, family, and co-workers. Miscellaneous readership included the *Yellow Pages*, *Consumer Reports*, and product labels. Store-related sources were window shopping, in-store coupon usage, in-store point-of-purchase displays and salespersons' advice or information.

Webster's study identified several significant differences among Hispanics in information search behavior. Ethnic identification was found to influence media, reference groups, store-related information and printed material among Hispanics.

Sales Promotion

Differences in responses to sales promotion among white and black consumers were recently examined in a study by Green (1995b). Green examined the differences between African-Americans and Anglo-Americans in their responses to four sales promotion tools: coupons, product displays, feature advertisements and price discounts. The respondents were tracked for a one-year period in their purchases of frozen snacks. Her study found significant differences between African-Americans and Anglo-Americans in coupon usage. Anglo-Americans were more likely to use coupons than African-Americans.

While Webster (1992) examined the differences in consumers' search for information within the Hispanic subculture, research is still needed to examine the search behavior differences within the black subculture.

Conclusion

Previous research suggests differences in purchase behavior exist between black and white consumers. However, whether these differences are due to cultural or socioeconomic factors is unclear. More research is needed to explore the differences not only between black and white consumers, but also the differences among black consumers based on ethnic identification and the ethnic situation.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research methodology used to examine the effect that ethnicity, ethnic identification and the ethnic situation have on an individual's ethnic salience, ethnic identification, search for information and purchase behavior. This chapter presents (1) the research hypotheses, (2) the research design, (3) the operationalization of the variables, and (4) statistical techniques.

Research Hypotheses

Much of the literature concerning blacks as consumers first appeared in the 1960's and investigated the differences between black and white consumers' purchase behaviors. Many of these studies examined the differences between white and black consumers, especially in their responses to advertisements containing black and white models. However, much of this earlier research has been criticized for methodological problems (Whittler, 1991). Many times the differences between the two groups were due to socioeconomic differences. For example, middle-class white children were often compared to low-income urban black children. Therefore, there is a need to determine if differences exist in the purchase behavior of black and white consumers taking into consideration the effects of social class. Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered:

- H1. There are differences between black and white consumers' sources of information used for purchase decisions.**
- H2. There are differences between black and white consumers sources of information used for purchase decision after removing the effects of social class.**
- H3. There are differences between black and white consumers sources of information used for purchase decision after removing the effects of purchasing involvement.**
- H4. There are differences between black and white consumers' purchase behavior.**
- H5. There are differences between black and white consumers' perceptions of each other regarding their purchase behavior.**
- H6. There are differences between black and white consumers in the reference groups they use regarding their purchase behavior.**

Recent research suggests that differences exist not only between black and white consumers, but also within the black subculture based on the level of intensity of ethnic identification (Williams and Qualls, 1989; Manuel, 1982). These studies acknowledge that not all members of an ethnic group share the exact same cultural values. For example, in a study of middle-class black consumers, Williams and Qualls (1989) found an individual may have strong or weak ties to an ethnic group depending upon his or her level of identification with the ethnic group. The results of this study suggest that the intensity or strength of ethnic identification affects consumer behavior. The following hypotheses are posited:

- H7. There are differences between strong ethnic identifiers and weak ethnic identifiers in the sources of information used for purchase decisions.**
- H8. There are differences between strong ethnic identifiers and weak ethnic identifiers in their purchase behaviors.**
- H9. There are differences between strong ethnic identifiers and weak ethnic identifiers in their perceptions of the other ethnic group's purchase behaviors.**

Researchers hypothesize that when blacks are physically separated from other blacks, such as the exodus of middle-class blacks from the ghetto into the suburbs, an attitudinal separation occurs (Williams and Qualls, 1989; Frazier, 1957). As blacks become more middle-class, it is hypothesized that their ethnic commitment becomes weaker. This middle-class loss-of-ethnic-identity hypothesis is supported in a study by Jewell (1985) which found black college students hesitant to identify with their cultural heritage.

Further support is provided in a study by Williams and Qualls (1989). Their study found statistically significant differences between buppies (black, college-educated, and earning over \$30,000 per year) and two other groups of black non-buppies in their responses to celebrity advertising. Middle-class blacks were more similar to middle-class whites in their attitudes toward celebrity advertising. This finding lends support to Frazier's (1957) middle-class loss-of-identity hypothesis that states as blacks move up the socioeconomic ladder, they move away from their black cultural value system. However, in contrast to Frazier's middle-class loss-of-identify hypothesis, buppies were found to be more likely to exhibit strong ethnic identification than non buppies. Middle-class blacks retained their strong ethnic identification, even as they moved into mainstream America.

The social psychology literature offers an explanation for the results of Williams and Qualls (1989) study. Based on the work of William J. McGuire (1984), distinctiveness theory proposes that an individual's distinctive characteristics, rather than common characteristics, will be more salient to the individual. For example, when an individual is a minority in a social environment with respect to ethnicity, the more likely the individual will be more aware (or salient) of his or her ethnicity. Therefore, in accordance with

distinctiveness theory, middle-class blacks living as a minority in mainstream America would retain their strong ethnic identification, even stronger than blacks living in a situation where they are the majority. The following hypotheses are offered:

- H10. Consumers will be more likely to be aware of their ethnic salience when they are in a situation in which their ethnic group is a numerical minority than when they are in a situation in which their ethnic group is in the numerical majority.
- H11. Consumers will be more likely to be strong ethnic identifiers when they are in a situation in which their ethnic group is a numerical minority than when they are in a situation in which their ethnic group is in the numerical majority.
- H12. Minority or majority status will influence the sources of information used for purchase decisions.
- H13. Minority or majority status will influence consumers' purchase behavior.

Research Design

The present study sought to determine if differences exist in ethnic salience, ethnic identification, sources of information used and purchase behavior between students attending a predominately white university and students attending a predominately black university.

The research instrument was a pencil-and-paper self-reported questionnaire. Section A measures ethnic salience using a instrument developed by McGuire (1984). Section B consists of 16 items designed by Webster (1992) to measure the influence of sources of information used by consumers when making purchase decisions. Section C measures purchase behavior using a scenario approach designed by Huston, Abshire, and Simpson (1990). Section D measures purchasing involvement using an instrument designed by Slama and Tashchian (1985) consisting of 33 items. Section E measures strength of ethnic identification, social class and other demographic information. Strength

of ethnic identification was measured using an instrument designed by Stayman and Deshpande (1989) consisting of two items. Social class was measured using education, occupation, residence, and income data to determine social status (Coleman 1983).

The questionnaire was administered to students at two universities, one predominately white, the other predominately black.

Operationalization of the Variables

The purpose of this section is to present the operationalization of the variables. The variables of interest in this study are ethnic salience, strength of ethnic identification, ethnic situation, consumers' search for information behavior, purchase behavior, students' perceptions of purchase behavior, purchasing involvement, demographic information, and social class.

Ethnic Salience

McGuire's (1984) distinctiveness theory suggests an individual's ethnic salience or awareness is more likely to be spontaneously evoked or mentioned when the individual is in a situation where they are part of an ethnic minority. Support for distinctiveness theory is provided by Deshpande and Stayman (1994) who found consumers living in a city where they are a numerical minority are more likely to evoke their ethnic awareness or salience than consumers living in a city where they are a numerical majority. Evidence of ethnic salience was measured by the percentage of respondents that mention their race or ethnicity when responding to McGuire's question, "Please tell us about yourself."

Strength of Ethnic Identification

Ethnic identification was measured using Stayman's and Deshpande's (1989) strength of ethnic identification scale. The first question asks the respondent to indicate to which ethnic group they belong. The second question measures how strongly the respondent identifies with that ethnic group using a nine-point scale.

Ethnic Situation

Two universities, one predominately white and the other predominately black, provided the ethnic situation in which students are assigned majority or minority status.

Consumers' Search for Information

Consumers' search for information was measured using the questions Webster (1992) designed to measure the search behavior of Hispanics. Webster asked respondents about the sources they used when seeking information regarding a purchase. Respondents were asked "to carefully think about the extent to which they have relied on or were influenced by each source" (Webster, 1992, p.57). The sources of information were grouped into four general areas: advertising, reference groups, miscellaneous readership, and store-related sources. The influence of each source was measured on a seven-point scale where one is a low level of influence and seven is a high level of influence.

Purchase Behavior

Purchase behavior was examined by comparing the expenditures of black and white students attending the two universities using a scenario developed by Huston, Abshire, and Simpson (1996). Students were asked to decide which products to "purchase" with the

180 points they are awarded in a TV game show. Students were allowed to choose products from six categories. The categories are televisions, wrist watches, vacations, automobiles, kitchen appliances, and clothing. Each category included four brands, ranging from expensive to inexpensive. The point value assigned each brand reflected their relative prices.

Respondents' Perceptions of Purchase Behavior

Respondents' perceptions of the purchase behavior of students at the other university was measured by asking students to predict how a student at the other university would spend the 180 points in the TV game show among the products listed.

Purchasing Involvement

Purchasing involvement was measured using a scale developed by Slama and Tashchian (1985). The measure consists of 33 statements in which the respondent is asked to indicate on a 7-point scale how strongly they agree or disagree with the statements. The scale is designed to measure the amount of effort and time spent searching for product information before purchase.

Demographic Information

Demographic information collected included age, gender, parents' occupation, parents' education and family income.

Social Class

Social class was measured using education, occupation, residence and income data to determine social class standing (Coleman 1983). Respondents were divided into four social classes: Upper-Class Americans, Middle-Class, Working Class and Lower-Class Americans.

Statistical Techniques

The statistical techniques used in this study are paired comparison, t-tests, and analysis of variance. Paired comparison was used to determine if differences exist in the purchase behavior of black and white students, and strong and weak ethnic identifiers. Also, paired comparison was used to determine if differences existed in the reference groups used by black and white students. Analysis of variance was used to determine if differences exist in the information sources used by black and white students, strong and weak ethnic identifiers, and students with majority or minority status taking into consideration the effects of purchasing involvement, social class, and income. T-tests were employed to analyze differences in students' ethnic identification due to majority or minority status.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analysis of the data. The first section compares the demographic characteristics of black and white consumers. The second section attempts to determine if statistically significant differences exist between black and white consumers in the sources of information used. This section also analyzes the differences in the sources of information used for purchase decisions between the two ethnic groups after removing the effects of social class and purchasing involvement. The influence of ethnic identification and ethnic salience on the sources of information used by two ethnic groups is also examined. The third section analyzes the differences in the purchase behavior of black and white consumers, including the effects of ethnic identification and ethnic salience. Potential reference groups for the two ethnic groups are also examined.

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Of the 360 administered questionnaires, 345 were usable. The final sample consisted of 204 black respondents and 141 white respondents. Of the 204 black respondents, 41 attended a predominately white university and 163 attended a predominately black university. All 141 white respondents attended the predominately white university. The sample was representative of the student population of each school

with respect to gender, age, and ethnicity. Table 4.1 presents the frequency distribution of the demographic variables of the black and white respondents. There was no significant age difference between the two groups. The majority of respondents at both universities were in the 19 to 21 age group. However, there was a significant gender difference between the two groups. Approximately 60% of the white respondents were male, while 60% of the black respondents were female.

Significant differences were also found in the education and occupation of the respondents' parents. Over 39% of the white respondents' fathers had graduated from college versus only 11% of the black respondents' fathers. Similarly, 17.8% of the white respondents' fathers had completed post-graduate work while only 3.9% of the black respondents' fathers completed post-graduate work. In the reported education of the respondents' mothers, twice as many of the white respondents reported their mothers graduating from college as the black respondents. However, post-graduate education was similar among the two groups.

Differences in the occupation of the respondents' fathers were also significant. Forty-six percent of the white respondents reported their father's occupation as middle-managers, teachers, or lesser professionals while thirty percent of black respondents reported their fathers' occupation as average-skill assembly lineworkers, police or firefighters, or bus/truck drivers. A similar pattern was found for the respondents' mothers' occupation.

Differences were also significant in the reported income of the respondents' parents. The mean income of the white respondents' parents was \$74,999, while the mean income of the black respondents' parents was \$49,926.

Table 4.1
Frequency Distribution of Demographic Characteristics

Variable	<u>WHITES</u>		<u>BLACKS</u>	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
<u>Age</u>	(n=141)		(n=203)	
18 and under	11	7.8	7	3.4
19-21	85	60.2	128	63.1
22-23	30	21.3	42	20.6
24 and over	15	10.6	26	12.8
<u>Gender</u>	(n=141)		(n=204)	
Male	87	61.7	85	41.4
Female	54	38.3	119	58.3
<u>Marital Status</u>	(n=141)		(n=204)	
Single/Unmarried	124	87.9	191	93.6
Married	16	11.3	6	2.9
Separated	0	0	2	.9
Divorced	1	0	4	1.9
Widowed	0	0	1	.4
Remarried	0	0	0	0
<u>Father's Formal Education</u>	(n=140)		(n=193)	
Grammar School (8yrs. or less)	3	2.1	7	3.6
Some High School (9 to 11 years)	4	2.8	16	8.2
Graduated High School (12 years)	23	16.4	62	32.1
Some post high school (business, nursing, technical, 1yr. college)	13	9.2	26	13.5
Two, three years of college (possibly Associate of Arts degree)	17	12.1	33	17.1
Graduated four-year college (B.A./B.S.)	55	39.2	22	11.4
Master's or five-year professional degree	18	12.8	20	0.3
Ph.D or six/seven-year professional degree	7	5.0	7	3.6

Variable	<u>WHITES</u>		<u>BLACKS</u>	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
<u>Mother's Formal Education</u>	(n=139)		(n=201)	
Grammar School (8yrs. or less)	2	1.4	2	1
Some High School (9 to 11 years)	2	1.4	10	4.9
Graduated High School (12 years)	31	22.3	47	23.3
Some post high school (business, nursing, technical, 1yr. college)	17	12.3	41	20.4
Two, three years of college (possibly Associate of Arts degree)	28	20.1	40	19.9
Graduated four-year college (B.A./B.S.)	37	26.6	27	13.4
Master's or five-year professional degree	20	14.4	31	15.4
Ph.D or six/seven-year professional degree	2	1.4	3	1.5
<u>Father's Occupation</u>	(n=128)		(n=156)	
Chronically unemployed-unskilled; Semi-skilled jobs; custodians, minimum-pay factory help, service workers	0	0	1	.6
Average-skill assembly line workers, police/firefighters, bus/truck drivers	2	1.5	2	1.2
Skilled craftsman, office workers, small contractors, factory foreman	14	10.9	48	30.7
Owners of small firms (2-4 employees) civil servants, salespeople	9	7	38	24.3
Middle management, teachers, social workers, lesser professionals	26	20.3	39	25
Lesser corporate officials, owners of mid-sized businesses (10-20 employees)	59	46	24	15.3
Top corporate executives, rich business owners "successful" doctors/lawyers	6	4.7	3	1.9
	12	9.3	1	.6
<u>Mother's Occupation</u>	(n=133)		(n=186)	
Chronically unemployed-unskilled; Housewife	0	0	0	0
Semi-skilled jobs; custodians, minimum-pay factory help, service workers	17	12.7	14	7.5
Average-skill assembly line workers, police/firefighters, bus/truck drivers	8	18.8	40	29
	14	10.5	57	30.6

	<u>WHITES</u>		<u>BLACKS</u>	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Skilled craftsman, office workers, small contractors, factory foreman	18	13.5	57	30.6
Owners of small firms (2-4 employees) civil servants, salespeople	45	33.8	32	17.2
Middle management, teachers, social workers, lesser professionals	29	21.8	29	15.6
Lesser corporate officials, owners of mid-sized businesses (10-20 employees)	0	0	0	0
Top corporate executives, rich business owners	2	1.5	0	0
<u>Area of Residence</u>	(n=136)		(n=201)	
Low-income housing, government projects	2	1.4	5	2.5
Working class; not slummy, some houses in very poor condition	11	8	50	25
Predominately blue-collar with some office workers	25	18.4	72	36
Predominately white-collar with some well-paid blue collar	31	22.8	44	22
Better white-collar area; not many executives, but few blue-collar	28	20.6	12	6
Excellent area; professionals and well-paid managers.	26	19.1	13	6.5
"Wealthy" or "society"-type neighborhood	13	9.6	5	2.5
<u>Parent's Income</u>	(n=97)		(n=151)	
Under 20,000	0	0	14	9
20,000 to 34,999	8	8	32	21
35,000 to 49,999	11	11	24	16
50,000 to 74,999	25	26	54	36
75,000 to 100,000	25	26	23	15
Over 100,000	28	29	4	2

Sources of Information Used for Purchase Decisions

Consumers rely on a variety of sources when searching for information about products. Information sources used by consumers include advertising, reference groups, miscellaneous readership and store-related sources. Advertising sources consisted of television commercials, radio advertisements, newspaper advertisements, magazine advertisements, billboards and brochures. Sources for the reference group category were friends, family and coworkers. Miscellaneous readership was comprised of the *Yellow Pages*, *Consumer Reports*, and product labels. Window shopping, in-store coupons, in-store point-of-purchase displays, and salespersons' advice were categorized as store-related sources. Respondents were asked to rate on a seven-point scale the extent they were influenced by each of these sources. Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs) were used to test if there were significant differences in the group means.

Effects of Ethnicity on Sources of Information Used

Table 4.2 shows the comparisons of the two ethnic groups' means and the p values for the F tests for the sources of information used for purchase decisions. The first column shows the means of the white respondents and the second column shows the means of the black respondents. The third column, Ethnic, presents the p values testing for the effects of ethnicity alone. Significant differences between the two groups were found in six of the sixteen sources of information: television commercials, newspaper advertisements, coworkers, coupons, window-shopping and store displays. Blacks were more influenced by television commercials, newspaper advertisements, coupons, window shopping, and store displays while whites were more influenced by their coworkers. Significant

differences were not found in any sources in the miscellaneous readership category. For both groups, family was reported as the most influential source of information followed by friends and coworkers.

Table 4.2
ANOVAs of Information Sources by Ethnic Group after Removing the Effects of Social Class and Purchasing Involvement

Information Sources	White	Black	Ethnic	E/ SC	E/PI
Advertising					
Television	4.28	4.89	.004	.902	.105
Radio	3.15	3.33	.626	.457	.781
Newspaper	3.14	3.70	.008	.240	.056
Magazine	3.82	4.05	.097	.322	.781
Billboards	2.96	3.14	.290	.901	.665
Brochures	3.22	3.28	.994	.561	.287
Reference Groups					
Friends' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	5.69	5.47	.112	.925	.171
Family members' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	6.01	5.80	.182	.610	.260
Coworkers' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	4.91	4.21	.000	.309	.178
Miscellaneous Readership					
<i>Yellow Pages</i>	2.57	2.81	.133	.037	.880
<i>Consumer Reports</i>	2.95	2.96	.930	.003	.007
Product labels	4.05	4.19	.932	.061	.086
Store-related sources					
Window shopping	4.06	4.85	.012	.024	.429
In-store coupons	3.32	4.14	.006	.110	.018
In-store point-of-purchase displays	3.66	4.54	.000	.156	.839
Salespersons' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	3.64	3.71	.557	.111	.720

Adjusting for the Effects of Social Class and Purchasing Involvement

Previous studies that have examined differences between black and white consumers often have been criticized for methodological problems (Williams and Qualls, 1989; Whittler, 1991). One common problem is not considering the effects of social class or income. For example, many studies compared middle-income whites with low-income blacks then suggested the differences between the two groups were due to culture without adjusting for social class or income differences. One way to adjust for the effects of social class is through the use of hierarchical ANOVAs. Hierarchical ANOVAs, also known as nested designs, allow the testing of the effects of ethnicity before removing the effects of other variables that may influence behavior. It also allows the testing of the effects of ethnicity after adjusting for the effects of social class. This is desirable when two factors may be correlated and where unequal cell sizes exist. Table 4.3 shows that ethnicity is correlated with both social class and purchasing involvement. Therefore to remove or adjust for those effects hierarchical ANOVAs were used.

Social Class. As stated previously, research has suggested that many of the differences found between the two groups may be due to social class and not ethnicity. Social class was determined by placing each respondent into one of four categories of social class based on the parents' income, occupation, education and residence. Table 4.4 presents the social class distribution of the total sample. The majority of the white respondents are placed in the Middle Class category and the majority of blacks were placed in the Working Class category. Since so few respondents were in the upper and lower classes, they were combined into the other two categories for statistical purposes.

Lower and Working Class were combined into Social Class I and Upper and Middle Class were combined into Social Class II.

Table 4.3
Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient Matrix of Ethnicity,
Purchasing Involvement and Social Class

	Social Class	Purchasing Involvement
Ethnicity		
r	-.3206	.2111
p	.0001	.0001
n	324	334
Purchasing Involvement		
r	-.1577	
p	.0049	
n	316	

Table 4.4
Social Class Distribution of the Sample

	<u>Whites</u> (n=130)		<u>Blacks</u> (n=194)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Lower American	1	1	9	4
Working Class	34	26	102	53
Middle Class	84	65	80	41
Upper American	11	8	3	1

Hypothesis H2 states that differences would exist between the ethnic groups even after the effects of social class were removed. Column four, E/SC, of Table 4.2 shows the p values of social class nested within the ethnic group. The results show that differences

still exist in the search behavior of the two ethnic groups even after adjusting for the effects of social class. Two changes are evident: 1) the significant differences between the two groups are unchanged in five of the six information sources of television commercials, newspaper advertisements, coworkers, coupons, and store displays, and 2) differences between the two groups in social class are found in the information sources of *Yellow Pages*, *Consumer Reports*, product labels and window shopping.

Purchasing Involvement. Purchasing involvement is the time and effort a consumer spends searching for product information before purchasing a product. A consumer's search for product information is expected to be influenced by how strongly he or she is involved in the purchase process. A consumer's involvement in the purchase process is measured as purchasing involvement. Purchasing involvement is measured using an instrument consisting of 33 statements in which the respondent indicates on a seven-point scale how strongly they agree or disagree with the statements.

According to Churchill (1979), "a measure is reliable to the extent that independent but comparable measures of the same trait or construct to a given object agree." Peter (1979) recommends Cronbach's coefficient alpha for assessing the reliability of a measurement scale with multi-point items. The reliability coefficient for measuring purchasing involvement is .8519, which is higher than the acceptable .6 criteria of Nunnally (1978) and Churchill (1979).

There was a statistically significant difference in the purchasing involvement mean scores of white and black respondents. Table 4.5 shows the purchasing involvement mean scores of black and white respondents. Black respondents' mean score of 5.1 was higher than the white respondents' mean score of 4.7. The results suggest that blacks are more

likely to spend more time and effort searching for information before purchasing a product. Since purchasing involvement was correlated with ethnicity, as shown in Table 4.3, hierarchical ANOVAs were used to test for the effects of ethnicity on information sources used for purchase decision to adjust for the effects of purchasing involvement.

Table 4.5
ANOVA of Purchasing Involvement by Ethnic Group

Ethnic Group	Mean	n	F	p
Blacks	5.10	196	15.47	.0001
Whites	4.79	138		

Hypothesis H3 states that differences in the information sources used for purchasing decisions between the two groups will exist even after removing the effects of purchasing involvement.

Table 4.2 shows that differences still exist in the search behavior of the two groups even after adjusting for the effects of purchasing involvement. The fifth column, E/PI, of Table 4.2 shows the results of the ANOVAs after adjusting for the effects of purchasing involvement. Differences between the groups remained for three of the information sources: television advertising, coworkers, and in-store point-of-purchase displays. Black respondents were more likely to be influenced by television advertising and in-store point-of-purchase displays and white respondents rated coworkers' advice and information as more influential than did the black respondents. The results indicate that these three differences between the two groups are more likely to be due to ethnicity than to purchasing involvement.

Strength of Ethnic Identification

Previous research has suggested that differences in consumer behavior exist not only between ethnic groups, but also within ethnic groups caused by the strength of ethnic identification (Donthu and Cherian, 1992; Deshpande and Stayman, 1994). Hypothesis H7 proposes that there would be significant differences between strong and weak ethnic identifiers in the sources of information used for purchase decisions.

Ethnic Identification was measured by asking respondents to indicate on a nine-point scale how strongly they identified with their ethnic group. Previous research in this area has used the mean score as the breakpoint between strong and weak ethnic identifiers (Deshpande and Stayman, 1989). The mean score was 8.18 and was used as the breakpoint. The results show that 58 whites and 68 blacks were weak identifiers and 76 whites and 130 blacks were strong identifiers.

Ethnic Identification Effects on Sources of Information Used

As shown in Table 4.6, only one significant difference was found between strong and weak white ethnic identifiers. Strong white ethnic identifiers were more likely to be influenced by window shopping than weak identifiers. Table 4.7 shows no significant differences were found between strong and weak black ethnic identifiers.

Ethnic Salience

Ethnic salience is a measure of how aware individuals are of their own ethnicity. Hypothesis H10 predicted consumers would be more aware of their ethnicity when they are in a situation in which their ethnic group is a numerical minority than when they were

Table 4.6
ANOVAs of Information Sources by White Ethnic Identifiers

Information Sources	Weak White Identifiers	Strong White Identifiers	F	p
Advertising				
Television	4.48	4.18	1.23	.2704
Radio	3.15	3.18	.01	.9080
Newspaper	3.08	3.14	.06	.8054
Magazine	3.79	3.96	.40	.5283
Billboards	2.89	2.96	.08	.7825
Brochures	3.27	3.21	.06	.8073
Reference Groups				
Friends' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	5.62	5.68	.12	.7331
Family members' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	6.06	5.94	.42	.5189
Coworkers' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	4.68	5.08	2.68	.1043
Miscellaneous Readership				
<i>Yellow Pages</i>	2.74	2.67	.08	.7799
<i>Consumer Reports</i>	2.98	2.96	.00	.9484
Product labels	4.00	4.13	.25	.6202
Store-related sources				
Window shopping	3.77	4.44	5.58*	.0196
In-store coupons	3.15	3.46	1.16	.2831
In-store point-of-purchase displays	3.55	3.81	.94	.3338
Salespersons' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	3.72	3.61	.04	.8404

*PR>alpha = .05 or less

Table 4.7
ANOVAs of Information Sources by Black Ethnic Identifiers

Information Sources	Weak Black Identifiers	Strong Black Identifiers	F	p
Advertising				
Television	4.85	4.83	.01	.9230
Radio	3.25	3.34	.18	.6711
Newspaper	3.66	3.69	.02	.8893
Magazine	3.91	4.03	.23	.6290
Billboards	2.94	3.19	1.23	.2683
Brochures	3.20	3.22	.01	.9259
Reference Groups				
Friends' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	5.44	5.31	.31	.5789
Family members' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	5.76	5.67	.16	.6857
Coworkers' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	4.04	4.26	.72	.3986
Miscellaneous Readership				
<i>Yellow Pages</i>	2.86	2.83	.02	.8923
<i>Consumer Reports</i>	3.04	2.85	.39	.5310
Product labels	4.10	4.19	.14	.7130
Store-related sources				
Window shopping	4.47	4.88	2.43	.1205
In-store coupons	4.22	3.97	.96	.3284
In-store point-of-purchase displays	4.45	4.52	.09	.7654
Salespersons' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	3.76	3.65	.22	.6361

in a situation in which their ethnic group is in the numerical majority. For example, it would be expected that black students attending a predominately white university would be more likely to mention their ethnicity than black students attending a predominately black university. The hypothesis was only partially supported. Approximately 18.5% of the minority black students at the predominately white university mentioned their ethnicity versus 7.2% of the majority white students. However, 15.5% of the majority black students attending the predominately black university mentioned their ethnicity. Although, chi-square analysis did not indicate a statistically significant difference in the ethnic salience of minority black students and majority black students, a greater percentage of the minority black students mentioned their ethnicity than did majority black students. Additionally, there was a statistically significant difference between majority white students and majority black or minority black students. As predicted white students were less likely to mention their ethnicity than black students.

Ethnic Situation and Ethnic Identification

As mentioned previously, strength of ethnic identification was measured by asking respondents to indicate on a nine-point scale how strongly they identified with their ethnic group. Hypothesis H11 states that consumers are more likely to be strong ethnic identifiers when they are in a situation in which their ethnic group is a numerical minority than when they are in a situation in which their ethnic group is in the numerical majority. Therefore, it would be expected that black students attending a predominately white university would be more likely to be strong ethnic identifiers than black students attending a predominately black university. The hypothesis was not supported. Approximately 61%

of the minority black students were strong ethnic identifiers and 67% of the majority black students were strong ethnic identifiers. There was no significant statistical difference in the strength of ethnic identification between minority and majority students.

Ethnic Situation

Hypothesis H12 states that a consumer's minority or majority status in a situation will influence the sources of information used for purchase decisions. In this section, minority refers to black students attending a predominately white university and majority refers to black students attending a predominately black university.

Ethnic Situation Effects on Sources of Information Used

Table 4.8 shows the results of the t-tests. A statistically significant difference between black minority and black majority students was found in only one source of information, the *Yellow Pages*. Blacks attending the predominately white university relied less on the *Yellow Pages* as a source of information than black students attending the predominately black university. Overall, with the exception of salesperson's advice, minority blacks were less influenced than majority blacks by all information sources.

Further analysis of all three groups (whites, minority blacks and majority blacks) was performed using a Duncan multiple range test. The purpose of the Duncan multiple range test is to determine if differences exist between different levels of the independent variable, as in this case, the three different groups. The Duncan procedure uses a grouping

Table 4.8
T-tests of Sources of Information Used for Purchase Decisions by Ethnic Situation

Information Sources	Min	Maj	t	p
Advertising				
Television	4.75	4.80	-0.50	.6166
Radio	3.21	3.34	-0.46	.6417
Newspaper	3.53	3.74	-0.78	.4329
Magazine	3.65	4.12	-1.64	.1055
Billboards	2.95	3.18	-0.91	.3658
Brochures	3.07	3.28	-0.77	.4430
Reference Groups				
Friends' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	5.09	5.42	-1.09	.2788
Family members' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	5.53	5.74	-0.87	.3845
Coworkers' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	3.90	4.25	-1.14	.2579
Miscellaneous Readership				
<i>Yellow Pages</i>	2.29	3.01	-2.85*	.0054
<i>Consumer Reports</i>	2.65	3.03	-1.07	.2883
Product labels	3.97	4.25	-0.86	.3918
Store-related sources				
Window shopping	4.41	4.84	-1.33	.1883
In-store coupons	3.92	4.15	-0.75	.4521
In-store point-of-purchase displays	4.48	4.53	-0.16	.8677
Salespersons' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	3.78	3.69	0.31	.7573

*PR>alpha = .05 or less

pattern of letters to show group differences. The letter A is assigned to the group with the highest mean. For example, if the groups are not statistically significantly different from one another they will have the same letter, however if they are statistically significantly different ($p < .05$), they will be assigned a different letter. When a group is given both letters, then that group is not statistically significantly different from either of the two groups.

Table 4.9 shows the results of the Duncan multiple range test. In three of these information sources (television advertising, newspaper advertisements, and window shopping), the Duncan multiple range test ($p < .05$) showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the black majority respondents and the white respondents. However, there was no statistically significant difference between the black minority respondents with either the black majority respondents or white respondents because the mean scores for black minority respondents fell between the mean scores for black majority respondents and white respondents.

For two of the three reference group sources (friends and family), the Duncan multiple range test placed black majority respondents between the white respondents and the black minority respondents. The findings indicate that for these information sources there were statistically significant differences between the white respondents and the black minority respondents, but no statistically significant difference between the black majority respondents and either the white respondents or the black minority respondents.

Table 4.9
Duncan Multiple Range Test Groupings by Ethnic Situation

Information Sources	White		Min	Maj
Advertising				
Television	B	AB		A
Radio	A	A		A
Newspaper	B	AB		A
Magazine	A	A		A
Billboards	A	A		A
Brochures	A	A		A
Reference Groups				
Friends' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	A	B		AB
Family members' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	A	B		AB
Coworkers' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	A	B		B
Miscellaneous Readership				
<i>Yellow Pages</i>	AB	B		A
<i>Consumer Reports</i>	A	A		A
Product labels	A	A		A
Store-related sources				
Window shopping	B	AB		A
In-store coupons	B	A		A
In-store point-of-purchase displays	B	A		A
Salespersons' advice/information regarding a purchase decision	A	A		A

Purchase Behavior

Hypothesis H4 stated that differences would exist between the two ethnic groups in their purchase behavior. Using a game show format, the respondents were awarded points and asked to decide which products to "purchase" from six product categories: televisions, wrist watches, vacations, automobiles, kitchen appliances and clothing. They were also asked to predict expenditures of students attending the other university, their parents, a business executive and a television celebrity. The following sections examine the differences between the two groups' purchase behavior, the differences in their predictions of the other group's expenditures with their own expenditures, the accuracy of their predictions of the other group's expenditures, and the reference group potential of the other university students, parents, business executives and television celebrities.

Respondents' Purchase Behavior

As shown in Table 4.10, statistically significant expenditure differences were found between the two groups in the vacation and automobile product categories.

Table 4.10
Frequency Distribution of White and Black Responses by Product Category

Product	White Students' Responses	Black Students' Responses	t	p
Color TV set	06.3	06.1	0.3787	.7082
Wrist Watch	05.6	05.1	0.4594	.6463
Vacation / Trip	18.8	11.3	5.3853	.0001
Clothing	22.5	22.9	-0.2183	.8273
Automobile	37.2	43.9	-2.3602	.0191
Kitchen Appliances	09.3	10.4	-1.5182	.1303

Whites were more likely than blacks to spend their points on vacations, while blacks were more likely than whites to spend their points on automobiles. Additionally, whites spent fewer points on clothing, automobiles, and kitchen appliances, while blacks spent less on televisions, wrist watches and vacations.

To determine if the differences between the two groups in automobiles and vacations were due to ethnicity or income, two-way ANOVAs were performed.

Table 4.11 shows the results of the ANOVAs. Only the main effect of ethnic group was significant, providing support that income was not a factor in the product choices.

Table 4.11
ANOVAs of Product Category by Ethnic Group and Income

Product Category	F	p
Automobile		
Main Effects		
Ethnic Group	7.09	.0083
Income	0.26	.7701
Two-way Interactions		
Ethnic Group and Income	0.64	.5295
Vacation		
Main Effects		
Ethnic Group	21.09	.0001
Income	0.10	.9046
Two-way Interactions		
Ethnic Group and Income	0.06	.9433

Ethnic Identification Effects on
Respondents' Purchase Behavior

Hypothesis H8 stated that there would significant differences between strong and weak ethnic identifiers in their purchase behavior. Strong and weak ethnic identifiers were identified using a nine-point scale to measure how strongly a respondent identified with

their ethnic group. There were 58 weak white ethnic identifiers and 76 strong white ethnic identifiers.

Table 4.12 compares the frequency distribution of responses of weak white ethnic identifiers and strong white ethnic identifiers. Differences between weak and strong white ethnic identifiers were found only in the product category of kitchen appliances. Weak white ethnic identifiers spent more points on kitchen appliances than did strong white ethnic identifiers.

Table 4.12
Frequency Distribution of Weak White and Strong White Responses by Product Category

Product	Weak White Responses	Strong White Responses	t	p
Color TV set	06.2	06.2	-0.0859	.9317
Wrist Watch	03.9	05.9	-1.1165	.2664
Vacation / Trip	18.0	19.3	-0.5302	.5969
Clothing	23.1	22.3	0.2646	.7918
Automobile	38.0	37.8	0.0552	.9560
Kitchen Appliances	10.5	08.2	1.9470	.0538

Table 4.13 compares the responses of weak white ethnic identifiers with the responses of the black respondents. The only statistically significant difference was in the vacation category where weak white ethnic identifiers spent significantly more points.

Table 4.13
Frequency Distribution of Weak White and Black Responses by Product Category

Product	Weak White Responses	Black Responses	t	p
Color TV set	06.2	06.1	0.0927	.9262
Wrist Watch	03.9	05.1	-0.7537	.4518
Vacation / Trip	18.0	11.3	3.4562	.0010
Clothing	23.1	22.9	0.0558	.9555
Automobile	38.0	43.9	-1.6942	.0916
Kitchen Appliances	10.5	10.4	0.1008	.9198

The responses of strong white ethnic identifiers and black respondents are compared in Table 4.14. There were statistically significant differences in two of the product categories: vacations and kitchen appliances. Strong white ethnic identifiers spent less on kitchen appliances and more on vacations than black respondents. The difference between strong white ethnic identifiers and black respondents in the automobile category was significant at the .09 alpha level.

Table 4.14
Frequency Distribution of Strong White and Black Responses by Product Category

Product	Strong White Responses	Black Responses	t	p
Color TV set	06.2	06.1	0.2204	.8258
Wrist Watch	05.9	05.1	0.5853	.5589
Vacation / Trip	19.3	11.3	4.3859	.0001
Clothing	22.3	22.9	-0.2562	.7980
Automobile	37.8	43.9	-1.6640	.0991
Kitchen Appliances	08.2	10.4	-2.7160	.0071

Table 4.15 compares the responses of weak black ethnic identifiers with strong black ethnic identifiers. No statistically significant differences at the .05 level were found between weak black ethnic identifiers and strong black ethnic identifiers.

Table 4.15
Frequency Distribution of Weak Black and Strong Black Responses by Product Category

Product	Weak Black Responses	Strong Black Responses	t	p
Color TV set	06.5	05.8	1.1289	.2605
Wrist Watch	06.3	04.6	1.0873	.2784
Vacation / Trip	12.2	11.1	0.8154	.4160
Clothing	21.3	23.2	-0.6633	.5080
Automobile	41.9	45.2	-0.9599	.3385
Kitchen Appliances	11.5	09.9	1.8723	.0629

However, differences in kitchen appliances was significant at the .06 level. Weak black ethnic identifiers were more likely to spend their points on kitchen appliances than strong black ethnic identifiers. This finding is similar to the white respondents. As shown in Table 4.12, weak white ethnic identifiers also spent more points on kitchen appliances than strong white ethnic identifiers.

Statistically significant differences were found between weak black ethnic responses and white responses in the vacation and kitchen appliance category as shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16
Frequency Distribution of Weak Black and White Responses by Product Category

Product	Weak Black Responses	White Responses	t	p
Color TV set	06.5	06.3	0.3569	.7216
Wrist Watch	06.3	05.6	0.4129	.6801
Vacation / Trip	12.2	18.8	-3.9492	.0001
Clothing	21.3	22.5	-0.4609	.6454
Automobile	41.9	37.2	1.3397	.1824
Kitchen Appliances	11.5	09.3	2.6140	.0098

As shown in Table 4.17, a statistically significant difference was found between strong black responses and white responses in the vacation and automobile categories.

Ethnic Situation Effects on Respondents' Purchase Behavior

Hypothesis H13 stated that consumers' minority or majority status in a situation would influence their purchase behavior. Minority status referred to black students

Table 4.17
Frequency Distribution of Strong Black and White Responses by Product Category

Product	Strong Black Responses	White Responses	t	p
Color TV set	05.8	06.3	-0.8906	.3741
Wrist Watch	04.6	05.6	-0.7816	.4352
Vacation / Trip	11.1	18.8	-5.2755	.0001
Clothing	23.2	22.5	0.3225	.7474
Automobile	45.2	37.2	2.5738	.0107
Kitchen Appliances	09.9	09.3	0.7276	.4676

attending a predominately white university and majority status referred to black students attending a predominately black university. The frequency distribution of each product category by minority or majority status is shown in Table 4.18. Statistically significant differences between majority and minority black respondents were found in three of the product categories: wrist watches, vacations and automobiles. Blacks in a minority situation spent more points on automobiles, while majority blacks allocated more points to vacations and wrist watches.

Table 4.18
Frequency Distribution of Black Minority and Black Majority Responses by Product Category

Product	Black Minority Responses	Black Majority Responses	t	p
Color TV set	05.7	06.2	-0.5947	.5528
Wrist Watch	02.6	05.6	-2.0960	.0397
Vacation / Trip	08.0	12.1	-3.4448	.0009
Clothing	22.7	23.0	-0.0651	.9485
Automobile	51.0	42.0	2.1805	.0306
Kitchen Appliances	09.6	10.6	-0.8918	.3737

As shown in Table 4.19, when black minority responses were compared with white responses, statistically significant differences were found in three of the product categories: wrist watches, vacations, and automobiles. Black minority respondents spent more points on automobiles than either white or black majority respondents, while both black majority and white respondents spent more points on vacations and wrist watches.

Table 4.19
Frequency Distribution of Black Minority and White Responses by Product Category

Product	Black Minority Responses	White Responses	t	p
Color TV set	05.7	06.3	-0.6519	.5154
Wrist Watch	02.6	05.6	-2.0226	.0466
Vacation / Trip	08.0	18.8	-7.0368	.0001
Clothing	22.7	22.5	0.0476	.9623
Automobile	51.0	37.5	2.7625	.0064
Kitchen Appliances	09.6	09.3	0.2310	.8176

Table 4.20 compares black majority responses with white responses. The results show the only statistically significant difference is in the vacation product category which is similar to the differences found between black and white respondents as shown in Table 4.11. Automobiles and kitchen appliances were statistically significant at the .08 level.

Table 4.20
Frequency Distribution of Black Majority and White Responses by Product Category

Product	Black Majority Responses	White Responses	t	p
Color TV set	06.2	06.3	-0.1970	.8439
Wrist Watch	05.6	05.6	0.0051	.9959
Vacation / Trip	12.1	18.8	-4.6759	.0001
Clothing	23.0	22.5	0.2442	.8073
Automobile	42.0	37.5	1.7434	.0825
Kitchen Appliances	10.6	09.3	1.7138	.0878

**Respondents' Perceptions of the
Other Group's Expenditures**

Hypothesis H5 stated that each ethnic group would perceive itself as choosing products different from the other ethnic group. Paired comparisons were used to analyze the data to determine if each group perceived itself as the same or different from the other ethnic group in their selection of products within the six product groups. Table 4.21 shows the results of the paired comparisons. Whites perceived themselves as choosing products different from blacks in four of the six product groups. Paired comparisons found statistically significant differences in the whites' perceptions of the selection of

Table 4.21
Paired Comparisons Between White and Black Respondents' Purchases and Their Perceptions of Students at the Other School's Purchases

	White Respondents	
	t	PR>1
Color TV	-1.02	.3057
Wrist Watch	-4.58	.0001
Vacation/Trip	10.20	.0001
Clothing	1.74	.0833
Automobile	-5.03	.0001
Kitchen Appliances	7.94	.0001
Black Respondents		
Color TV	1.53	.1266
Wrist Watch	-2.18	.0308
Vacation/Trip	-4.20	.0001
Clothing	.68	.4900
Automobile	1.26	.2063
Kitchen Appliances	4.03	.0001

products by blacks in the categories of wrist watches, vacations, automobiles and kitchen appliances. Whites perceived themselves as spending fewer points on wrist watches and televisions, but more on kitchen appliances and vacations. Black respondents perceived differences between the purchase behavior of whites and themselves in three of the product groups: wrist watches, vacations and kitchen appliances. Black respondents perceived themselves as spending less on wrist watches and vacations and more on kitchen appliances.

**Ethnic Identification Effects on
Respondents' Perceptions of
the Other Group's Expenditures**

Hypothesis H9 states that strong and weak ethnic identifiers would differ in their perceptions of the other ethnic group's purchase behavior. Table 4.22 shows there were no statistical differences between the perceptions of weak white ethnic identifiers and strong white ethnic identifiers. Both weak and strong white ethnic identifiers perceived differences in spending between themselves and the students at the other university in the product categories of wrist watches, vacations, automobiles and kitchen appliances. However, as shown in Table 4.23, two statistically significant differences were found between weak black ethnic identifiers and strong black ethnic identifiers. Unlike strong black ethnic identifiers, weak black ethnic identifiers did perceive a difference between their responses and the white students at the other university in the television product category. However, they did not perceive a difference between their responses and the white students at the other university in the wrist watch category, even though strong black ethnic identifiers did perceive such a difference.

Table 4.22
Paired Comparisons Between Weak and Strong White Respondents' Purchases
and Their Perceptions of Students at the Other School's Purchases

Weak White Respondents		
	t	PR>1
Color TV	-0.37	.7129
Wrist Watch	-3.27	.0019
Vacation/Trip	7.09	.0001
Clothing	1.37	.1738
Automobile	-3.84	.0003
Kitchen Appliances	6.70	.0001
Strong White Respondents		
Color TV	-0.88	.3785
Wrist Watch	-3.86	.0003
Vacation/Trip	7.42	.0001
Clothing	1.14	.2258
Automobile	-3.12	.0026
Kitchen Appliances	4.44	.0001

Table 4.23
Paired Comparisons Between Weak and Strong Black Respondents' Purchases
and Their Perceptions of Students at the Other School's Purchases

	Weak Black Respondents	
	t	PR>t
Color TV	2.69	.0098
Wrist Watch	-0.260	.7902
Vacation/Trip	-2.85	.0063
Clothing	0.19	.8495
Automobile	0.15	.8813
Kitchen Appliances	3.31	.0017
Strong Black Respondents		
Color TV	0.29	.7695
Wrist Watch	-2.48	.0149
Vacation/Trip	-2.77	.0068
Clothing	0.57	.5671
Automobile	1.36	.1753
Kitchen Appliances	2.58	.0114

**Accuracy of Predictions of the
Other Group's Expenditures**

The ability of the respondents of one ethnic group to accurately predict the expenditures of the other group is examined in this section. The predictions of black respondents compared to the responses of white respondents are shown in Table 4.24. Black respondents accurately predicted the expenditures of white respondents in five of the six product categories. The wrist watch category was the only product category in which black students incorrectly predicted the white students' responses.

Table 4.24
Frequency Distribution of White Responses and Black Predictions by Product Category

Product	White Students' Responses	Black Students' Predictions	t	p
Color TV set	06.3	05.5	1.4564	.1465
Wrist Watch	05.6	08.4	-2.04990	.0415
Vacation / Trip	18.8	16.9	1.1830	.2379
Clothing	22.5	21.5	0.4980	.6189
Automobile	37.2	39.4	-0.7960	.4269
Kitchen Appliances	09.3	08.0	1.6910	.0920

Table 4.25 shows the predictions of white respondents compared to the responses of the black respondents. White respondents' predictions were correct only in the television set and clothing product categories.

Table 4.25
Frequency Distribution of Black Responses and White Predictions by Product Category

Product	Black Students' Responses	White Students' Predictions	t	p
Color TV set	06.1	06.8	-1.3762	.1698
Wrist Watch	05.1	12.5	-5.2490	.0001
Vacation / Trip	11.3	04.7	8.3866	.0001
Clothing	22.9	19.2	1.7104	.0882
Automobile	43.9	52.6	-2.9239	.0038
Kitchen Appliances	10.4	03.9	10.0786	.0000

Reference Groups

Hypothesis H6 stated that black and whites would use different reference groups when making decisions about their purchases. Parents, business executives and television celebrities were chosen as potential reference groups. Using a game show format, respondents were asked to choose the products they thought they would purchase, their parents would purchase, a business executive would purchase and a television celebrity would purchase. The respondents' own purchases and the purchases they selected for each potential reference group were analyzed using paired comparisons. If a group was considered to be a reference group then there should be no difference in the respondents' purchases and the purchases they chose for the reference groups of parents, business executives and television celebrities. However, if differences do exist then the group would not be considered a reference group for that product.

Parents. As shown in Table 4.26, white respondents considered their parents as a reference group in only the vacation product category. White respondents predicted that their parents would spend more on automobiles and kitchen appliances and less on

color televisions, wrist watches, and clothing. Parents were reference groups for black respondents in the product categories of vacations and kitchen appliances. Black respondents predicted their parents would spend more on automobiles than they would spend, and less in the remaining product categories.

Table 4.26
Paired Comparisons Between Respondents' Purchases and Their Perceptions of Their Parents' Purchases

	White Respondents	
	t	PR>t
Color TV	2.77	.0063
Wrist Watch	2.65	.0089
Vacation/Trip	0.83	.4033
Clothing	2.42	.0166
Automobile	-1.89	.0602
Kitchen Appliances	-2.83	.0053
Black Respondents		
Color TV	3.38	.0009
Wrist Watch	2.58	.0107
Vacation/Trip	0.14	.8856
Clothing	7.70	.0001
Automobile	-4.24	.0001
Kitchen Appliances	0.48	.6253

Both black and white respondents were likely to choose the same vacations for their parents as for themselves. Parents were not considered to be reference groups in the product categories of color television sets, wrist watches or clothing for either group.

Business Executives. Business executives were not a reference group for the white respondents in any product category. The direction of the t statistic shows white respondents predicted business executives would spend more on wrist watches, vacations, and automobiles and less on televisions, clothing and kitchen appliances than they would spend.

Business executives were a reference group for black respondents in the automobile product category. Black respondents predicted business executives would spend more on wrist watches and automobiles and less on televisions, vacations, clothing, and kitchen appliances than they would spend. The results are shown in Table 4.27.

Television Celebrities. Table 4.28 shows that both black and white respondents considered television celebrities a reference group in the television set product category. Television celebrities were also a reference group for white respondents in the vacation product group. White respondents predicted celebrities would spend more on clothing, wrist watches, and vacations while black respondents predicted that television celebrities would spend more on television sets, watches and vacations.

Table 4.27
Paired Comparisons Between Respondents' Purchases and Their Perceptions of a Business Executive's Purchases

	White Respondents	
	t	PR>t
Color TV	3.31	.0012
Wrist Watch	-6.43	.0001
Vacation/Trip	2.33	.0213
Clothing	3.71	.0003
Automobile	-2.34	.0206
Kitchen Appliances	5.81	.0001
Black Respondents		
Color TV	2.80	.0056
Wrist Watch	-7.07	.0001
Vacation/Trip	-2.86	.0046
Clothing	3.80	.0002
Automobile	0.64	.5224
Kitchen Appliances	6.33	.0001

Table 4.28
Paired Comparisons Between Respondents' Purchases and Their Perceptions of a Television Celebrity's Purchases

White Respondents		
	t	PR>t
Color TV	1.21	.2259
Wrist Watch	-6.29	.0001
Vacation/Trip	-1.69	.0929
Clothing	-2.91	.0043
Automobile	4.31	.0001
Kitchen Appliances	7.59	.0001
Black Respondents		
Color TV	-1.19	.2321
Wrist Watch	-8.52	.0001
Vacation/Trip	-5.69	.0001
Clothing	2.10	.0372
Automobile	3.62	.0004
Kitchen Appliances	5.45	.0001

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary and Discussion of the Research Findings

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were any significant differences in search and purchase behavior between black and white consumers due to ethnicity, ethnic identification, ethnic salience, and ethnic situation. The specific objectives were to: (1) determine if differences exist between white and black consumers' sources of information used for purchase decisions after removing the effects of social class and purchasing involvement, (2) determine if consumers' ethnic identification will influence consumers' search for information, (3) determine if minority or majority status in a situation will influence consumers' ethnic salience, (4) determine if minority or majority status in a situation will influence consumers' ethnic identification, (5) determine if minority or majority status in a situation will influence consumers' search for information, (6) determine if differences exist between white and black consumers' purchase behavior, and (7) determine if differences exist in the reference groups used by black and white consumers.

The sample was chosen from two universities, one predominately white, the other predominately black. The sample was representative of the student population of

each university with respect to age, gender, and ethnicity. Differences were found between the two groups in several demographic areas including gender, parent's level of education, and reported income. Approximately 60% of the white respondents were male, while 60% of the black respondents were female. Over 39% of the white respondents fathers had graduated from college versus only 11% of the black respondents. The mean income of white respondents' parents was \$74,999 versus \$49,926 for the black respondents' parents.

Sources of Information Used for Purchase Decisions

Hypothesis H1 states that differences would exist between black and white consumers in the sources of information used for purchase decisions. This hypothesis was partially supported. Statistically significant differences between white and black respondents were found in six of the sixteen sources of information used for purchase decisions. Black respondents were more likely to be influenced by television commercials, newspaper advertisements, coupons, window-shopping and store displays than white respondents. White respondents were more likely to be influenced by their coworkers.

Hypothesis H2 states that differences between black and white respondents in the sources of information used for purchase decisions would still exist after removing the effects of social class. This hypothesis was partially supported. After adjusting for the effects of social class, the results remained unchanged for five of the six information sources.

Hypothesis H3 states that the search behavior of black and white consumers would differ even after removing the effects of purchasing involvement. This hypothesis

was partially supported. The differences between the two groups was reduced to three information sources after adjusting for purchasing involvement: television commercials, coworkers and in-store displays.

Strength of Ethnic Identification. Hypothesis H7 states that differences would exist between strong and weak ethnic identifiers in the sources of information used for purchase decisions. Strength of ethnic identification measures how strongly an individual identifies with his or her ethnic group. Strength of ethnic identification was measured by asking respondents to indicate on a nine-point scale how strongly they identified with their ethnic group. Results showed that 58 whites and 68 blacks were identified as weak ethnic identifiers and 76 whites and 130 blacks were identified as strong ethnic identifiers. This hypothesis was not supported. No differences were found between weak and strong black ethnic identifiers in the sources of information used for purchase decisions. Only one statistically significant difference was found between weak and strong white ethnic identifiers. Strong white ethnic identifiers were more likely to be influenced by window shopping than weak white ethnic identifiers.

Ethnic Salience. Ethnic salience measures how aware individuals are of their own ethnicity. Hypothesis H10 states that an individual would be more aware of their ethnicity when they are in a situation in which their ethnic group is a numerical minority than when they were in a situation in which their ethnic group is in the numerical majority. Therefore, black students attending a predominately white university would be more likely to mention their ethnicity than black students attending a predominately black university. This hypothesis was not supported. Seven percent of the white students mentioned their

ethnicity, 18.5% of the black minority students at the predominately white university mentioned their ethnicity, and 15.5% of the black majority students at the predominately black university mentioned their ethnicity. As expected, more black students attending the predominately white university mentioned their ethnicity than the black students attending the predominately black university. Although the results were in the expected direction, the difference was not statistically significant.

Ethnic Identification and Ethnic Situation. Hypothesis H11 states that consumers would be more likely to be strong ethnic identifiers when they were in a situation in which their ethnic group was a numerical minority. The hypothesis was not supported. There was not a statistically significant difference in the strength of ethnic identification between black minority and majority students.

Ethnic Situation. Hypothesis H12 states that minority or majority status will influence the sources of information used for purchase decisions. The ethnic situation was determined by the university the student attended. A black student attending a predominately black university was identified as a majority black, while a black student attending a predominately white university was identified as a minority black. The hypothesis was not supported. Ethnic situation was hypothesized to influence the respondents' choice of information sources, but the only statistically significant difference in information sources between the two groups was the *Yellow Pages*. Black respondents attending a predominately black university were more influenced by the *Yellow Pages*.

Purchase Behavior

Hypothesis H4 states that differences will exist between black and white consumers in their purchase behavior. A game show format provided the setting to measure the purchase behavior of the two groups. The hypothesis was partially supported. Statistically significant differences between white and black respondents' purchase behavior were found in two of the six product categories. Whites spent more points on vacations, while blacks allocated more points on automobiles.

Strength of Ethnic Identification. Hypothesis H8 states that the strength of ethnic identification would influence purchase behavior. The only statistically significant difference between weak and strong ethnic identifiers was found in the kitchen appliance product category, with weak white and weak black respondents more likely to spend their points on kitchen appliances.

Ethnic Situation. Hypothesis H13 states that there should be differences in the purchase behavior between minority blacks and majority blacks. This hypothesis was partially supported. In the product categories of wrist watches, automobiles and vacations (products that are consumed in public) the differences were greater between minority blacks and whites than between majority blacks or whites. Minority blacks spent less on wristwatches and vacations than majority blacks and whites. Minority blacks spent more on automobiles than majority blacks and whites.

Respondents' Perceptions of the Other Groups' Expenditures. Hypothesis H5 stated that each ethnic group would perceive itself as choosing products different from the other ethnic group. White respondents perceived themselves as choosing products

different from black respondents in four of the six product categories: wrist watches, vacations, automobiles, and kitchen appliances. White respondents perceived blacks as spending more on television sets, wrist watches, and automobiles and less on televisions and clothing.

Black respondents perceived themselves as choosing products different from white respondents in three of the product groups: wrist watches, vacations and kitchen appliances. Black respondents perceived whites as spending more on television sets, clothing, automobiles, and kitchen appliances and less on vacations and wrist watches.

Ethnic Identification Effects on Respondents' Perceptions. Hypothesis H9 states that strong and weak ethnic identifiers would differ in their perceptions of the other group's purchase behavior. This hypothesis was partially supported. There were no statistical significant differences between strong and weak white ethnic identifiers. However, there were two statistically significant differences between weak and strong black ethnic identifiers. Strong black ethnic identifiers responses were the same as all the black respondents. However, weak black identifiers perceived themselves differently in two product categories.

Accuracy of the Predictions of the Other Groups' Expenditures. Black respondents were better able than white respondents to predict the expenditures of the other group. Black respondents were able to accurately predict the expenditures of white respondents in five of the six product categories. The wrist watch category was the only product category in which their predictions were inaccurate. White respondents correctly

predicted black expenditures in only two of the product categories: television sets and clothing.

Reference Groups

Hypothesis H6 states that black and whites would use different reference groups when making decisions about their purchases. Parents, business executives and television celebrities were chosen as potential reference groups. If a group was considered to be a reference group then there should be no difference in the respondents' purchases and the purchases they chose for the reference groups of parents, business executives and television celebrities. However, if differences did exist then the group would not be considered a reference group for that product.

Since the respondents had lived most of their lives with their parents, parents were presumed to be a reference group for all product categories. Both white and black respondents considered parents to be a reference group in the vacation product category. However, parents were not a reference group for white respondents in the other five product categories. For black respondents, parents were a reference group in the kitchen appliance product category, but not the other four product categories.

As business students, the respondents were expected to aspire to emulate business executives. Business executives were a reference group for white respondents in the automobile product category. Business executives were not a potential reference group for black respondents in any product category.

Television celebrities appeared to be a reference group for both groups in the television set product category. For black respondents, television celebrities were also a reference group in the vacation product category.

Implications

One important decision consumers must make when engaging in the decision-making process is which sources should be used in the search for information when making purchase decisions. It is in this stage of the decision-making process that consumers identify which brands they will evaluate and ultimately purchase. Since the sources of information used by consumers affect the final purchase, marketers are interested in the search patterns of their customers as a means of identifying the types of information that affect purchase behavior.

The findings of this study suggest that ethnicity plays an important role in the search behavior of consumers. Black consumers were more influenced by television commercials and in-store point-of-purchase displays than white consumers even after removing the effects of social class and purchasing involvement.

Not all members of a culture are similar in their behavior. Strength of ethnic identification was suggested as an explanation for differences in search and purchase behavior within a group. Little support was found in this study for the effects of ethnic identification. The strength of an individual's ethnic identification did not affect the individual's search or purchase behavior in this study, with two exceptions: weak white ethnic identifiers were more likely to purchase kitchen appliances and less likely to be influenced by window shopping than strong white ethnic identifiers..

Two opposing theories seek to explain the assimilation of minorities into the mainstream dominant culture. Fraizer's (1957) theory of assimilation suggests that as members of a minority group begin to interact with members of the dominant culture they would become more similar to the dominant culture in their behavior. Therefore, assimilation theory states that black students attending a predominately white university would choose products similar to the white students. Distinctiveness theory offers a different viewpoint. Distinctiveness theory proposes that when an individual is in a situation in which they are in the numerical minority, the situation influences the individual's ethnic salience that causes the person to become more aware of their own ethnicity. According to this theory, black students attending a predominately white university should be more aware of their ethnicity which would then influence their product choices.

The findings of this study provide some support for distinctiveness theory. Most notably, black respondents attending a predominately white university were more likely to mention their ethnicity than either white respondents or black respondents attending a predominately black university.

In their product choices, black and white respondents spent their points differently in two product categories: vacations and automobiles. Black respondents attending the predominately white university spent the most points on automobiles, followed by black respondents attending the predominately black university, with the white respondents spending the least points on automobiles. Just the opposite was true with vacations. White respondents spent the most points on vacations, followed by the black respondents attending the predominately black university, with black respondents attending the

predominately white university spending the least points on vacations. This finding offers support for distinctiveness theory's proposition that ethnicity influences the purchase behavior of an individual more when that individual is part of a numerical minority. Black students attending the predominately white university were more aware of their ethnicity and their product choices were more similar to the black students attending the predominately black university than to the white students with whom they interact with every day. The implication for marketers is that members of an ethnic minority group will be more aware of their ethnicity when they are part of numerical minority and therefore in those situations will be more likely to be influenced by their ethnic culture than the mainstream dominant culture.

Another objective of the study was to investigate how each ethnic group perceived the other group's purchase behavior. Although the groups' expenditures were different in only two product categories, both black and white respondents perceived members of the other group as spending their points differently from themselves in three and four product categories, respectively. This finding suggests that the perceptions of members of both groups may be based on stereotypes and not on reality.

The study next addressed the question of how accurate each group's perceptions of the other group were. The findings show that black respondents are better able to predict white respondents' purchase behavior than white respondents are able to predict black respondents' purchase behavior. Black respondents were correct in five of the product categories whereas white respondents were correct in only two of the product categories.

The implication of this finding to marketers is important. The results suggest that blacks living as a minority group in a white-dominated culture are more aware of the spending patterns of whites than whites are aware of the spending patterns of blacks. These results suggest that when developing marketing programs targeting black consumers, an effort should be made to include blacks as part of the marketing team because white marketers may not adequately understand the black consumer. Additionally, since blacks are able to predict the product choices of whites, this study offers support for including blacks on projects that target not only black consumers but on projects that target white consumers.

Suggestions for Future Research

The need for future research is evident in several areas. More research is needed to determine if the factors of age, gender, or ethnicity influence the sources of information used by consumers when making purchase decisions. While this study focused on one age group, 19-23 year olds, and is representative of Generation X, more research is needed to determine the sources of information used by other age groups, such as the Baby Boomers and Generation Y. Gender may also influence which sources of information consumers use, and different ethnic groups may use different sources of information when making purchase decisions. This study examined sixteen sources of information, but future research in this area should include the Internet as a source of information across all ages, ethnic groups, and gender.

Additional research that would be beneficial to marketers is to investigate the influence of various information sources on reducing perceived risk. Previous research in

the area of perceived risk has focused on levels of risk perceived after the consumption decision has been made. A meaningful contribution to the understanding of the consumption process might be to measure perceived risk at the beginning of the search process for a product (e.g. shopping for a new car) and then measure the role of information sources as risk reducers.

Distinctiveness theory was used in this study to explain differences in the search and purchase behavior between members of the same ethnic group. More research is needed to determine if ethnicity influences consumers' decisions more when they are members of a numerical minority. Other factors such as age and gender should also be investigated to determine if they affect consumers' search and purchase behavior when those factors place the consumer as part of a numerical minority. For example, are women in male-dominated professions more aware of their gender and what influence does this awareness have on their product choices? Or are men in women-dominated professions more aware of their gender and what is the impact of this awareness on their product choices?

This study did not find support for ethnic identification as an explanation of differences in the search and purchase behavior among members of either ethnic group. More research in the area of ethnic identification is needed to determine the effect of ethnic identification on consumers' search and purchase behavior and to determine if its' effect is limited to certain cultures and measurements.

APPENDIX



LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

• OFFICE OF EXTRAMURAL PROGRAMS •

Office of Continuing Education
P. O. Box 3182
Ruston, LA 71272

Office of University Research
P. O. Box 7923
Ruston, LA 71272

MEMORANDUM

TO: Human Use Committee Members
FROM: Margaret Nolan
SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW
DATE: April 23, 1996

The following Human Use Research Proposal has been submitted for an expedited review and *has received an expedited approval:*

Patricia Humphrey (Dr. Richard Huston, advisor)

Distinctiveness Theory and Ethnic Identification Effects on
Consumers' Sources of Information and Consumption Behavior
(# 1-FN)

If you have questions or need additional information, please contact Dr. Livingston, Dr. Maxfield or me.

PLEASE RETAIN YOUR COPY FOR THE NEXT COMMITTEE MEETING.

TELEPHONE: (318) 257-3155 • FAX (318) 257-2803

Questionnaire

Checking this box indicates that I have read and agreed to the consent form.

SECTION A. INSTRUCTIONS: Please tell us about yourself in your own words in the space below. This section should only take a minute or two.

SECTION B - INSTRUCTIONS: Please carefully think about the extent to which you have relied on or were influenced by the following sources regarding a purchase decision. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate the level of influence each source has on your purchasing behavior.

Low Level of Influence

High Level of Influence

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

- ___ 1. Television Commercials
- ___ 2. Radio Advertisements
- ___ 3. Newspaper Advertisements
- ___ 4. Magazine Advertisements
- ___ 5. Billboards
- ___ 6. Brochures
- ___ 7. Friends' advice or information
- ___ 8. Family's advice or information
- ___ 9. Co-workers' advice or information
- ___ 10. *Yellow Pages*
- ___ 11. *Consumer Reports*
- ___ 12. Labels on the products
- ___ 13. Window-shopping
- ___ 14. In-store coupon
- ___ 15. Store Display
- ___ 16. Salesperson's advice or information

SECTION C - Assume you have just graduated from college and you are earning \$25,000 per year. While on vacation in California, you participate as a contestant on a TV Game Show where you win 180 "cash points" that must be used to purchase merchandise. How would you allocate the 180 points among the product categories listed below? **It is not required that you make a purchase in each category.**

Note that for "clothing" you may allocate any number of points you wish (1pt. = \$100). Also note that for the selection of an automobile, you must use your winnings to make a down payment of 50% of the list price of the automobile. You must pay the balance over a 48 month period at the rates indicated below. Use the Total column to keep track of the points you "spend". Remember you can't spend over 180 points.

<u>Color TV Set:</u>				Total
Goldstar 13"	Magnavox 19"	Sony 27"	Mitsubishi "Big Screen"	Points
2 pts. _____	4 pts. _____	6 pts. _____	20 pts. _____	_____

<u>Wrist Watch:</u>				
Timex	Pulsar	Seiko	Rolex	
1 pt. _____	2 pts. _____	4 pts. _____	50 pts. _____	_____

<u>Vacation/Trip:</u>				
Las Vegas	Caribbean Cruise	London	Tour of Europe	
10 pts. _____	20 pts. _____	30 pts. _____	50 pts. _____	_____

Clothing: (Write the number of points you wish to "spend" at each store)
 ____ pts. worth of clothing at Wal-Mart ____ pts. worth of clothing at Dillard's
 ____ pts. worth of clothing at J. C. Penny ____ pts. worth of clothing at
 Neiman-Marcus _____

<u>Automobile</u>				
Cadillac	Toyota Camry	Honda Civic	Hyundai	
150 pts. down	110 pts. down	70 pts. down	50 pts. down	
\$375 per month	\$225 per month	\$150 per month	\$100 per month	
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

<u>Kitchen Appliances:</u>				
Hotpoint	Whirlpool	GE	Maytag	
Complete set	15pts. _____	20pts. _____	25pts. _____ 30pts. _____	_____
including				
stove/oven, dishwasher,				
microwave & refrigerator)				TOTAL POINTS _____

SECTION D

How do think **your parents** would spend the 180 "cash points?"

<u>Color TV Set:</u>				Total Points
Goldstar 13"	Magnavox 19"	Sony 27"	Mitsubishi "Big Screen"	
2 pts. _____	4 pts. _____	6 pts. _____	20 pts. _____	_____

<u>Wrist Watch:</u>				Total Points
Timex	Pulsar	Seiko	Rolex	
1 pt. _____	2 pts. _____	4 pts. _____	50 pts. _____	_____

<u>Vacation/Trip:</u>				Total Points
Las Vegas	Caribbean Cruise	London	Tour of Europe	
10 pts. _____	20 pts. _____	30 pts. _____	50 pts. _____	_____

Clothing: (Write the number of points you wish to "spend" at each store)

_____ pts. worth of clothing at Wal-Mart	_____ pts. worth of clothing at Dillards
_____ pts. worth of clothing at J. C. Penny	_____ pts. worth of clothing at Neiman-Marcus

<u>Automobile</u>				Total Points
Cadillac	Toyota Camry	Honda Civic	Hyundai	
150 pts. down	110 pts. down	70 pts. down	50 pts. down	
\$375 per month	\$225 per month	\$150 per month	\$100 per month	
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

<u>Kitchen Appliances:</u>					Total Points
Complete set including stove/oven, microwave, dishwasher, & refrigerator	Hotpoint	Whirlpool	GE	Maytag	
	15pts. _____	20pts. _____	25pts. _____	30pts. _____	_____
					TOTAL POINTS _____

SECTION D

How do think a Grambling student would spend the 180 "cash points?"

Color TV Set:
 Goldstar 13" 2 pts. _____ Magnavox 19" 4 pts. _____ Sony 27" 6 pts. _____ Mitsubishi "Big Screen" 20 pts. _____ Total Points _____

Wrist Watch:
 Timex 1 pt. _____ Pulsar 2 pts. _____ Seiko 4 pts. _____ Rolex 50 pts. _____ _____

Vacation/Trip:
 Las Vegas 10 pts. _____ Caribbean Cruise 20 pts. _____ London 30 pts. _____ Tour of Europe 50 pts. _____ _____

Clothing: (Write the number of points you wish to "spend" at each store)
 _____ pts. worth of clothing at Wal-Mart _____ pts. worth of clothing at Dillards
 _____ pts. worth of clothing at J. C. Penny _____ pts. worth of clothing at Neiman-Marcus _____

Automobile
 Cadillac 150 pts. down \$375 per month _____
 Toyota Camry 110 pts. down \$225 per month _____
 Honda Civic 70 pts. down \$150 per month _____
 Hyundai 50 pts. down \$100 per month _____ _____

Kitchen Appliances:
 Complete set including stove/oven, microwave, dishwasher, & refrigerator
 Hotpoint 15pts. _____ Whirlpool 20pts. _____ GE 25pts. _____ Maytag 30pts. _____ _____

TOTAL POINTS _____

SECTION D

How do think a business executive would spend the 180 "cash points?"

<u>Color TV Set:</u>				Total
Goldstar 13"	Magnavox 19"	Sony 27"	Mitsubishi "Big Screen"	Points
2 pts. _____	4 pts. _____	6 pts. _____	20 pts. _____	_____

<u>Wrist Watch:</u>				
Timex	Pulsar	Seiko	Rolex	
1 pt. _____	2 pts. _____	4 pts. _____	50 pts. _____	_____

<u>Vacation/Trip:</u>				
Las Vegas	Caribbean Cruise	London	Tour of Europe	
10 pts. _____	20 pts. _____	30 pts. _____	50 pts. _____	_____

Clothing: (Write the number of points you wish to "spend" at each store)

_____ pts. worth of clothing at Wal-Mart	_____ pts. worth of clothing at Dillards
_____ pts. worth of clothing at J. C. Penny	_____ pts. worth of clothing at Neiman-Marcus

<u>Automobile</u>				
Cadillac	Toyota Camry	Honda Civic	Hyundai	
150 pts. down	110 pts. down	70 pts. down	50 pts. down	
\$375 per month	\$225 per month	\$150 per month	\$100 per month	
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

<u>Kitchen Appliances:</u>				
Complete set including stove/oven, microwave, dishwasher, & refrigerator	Hotpoint	Whirlpool	GE	Maytag
	15pts. _____	20pts. _____	25pts. _____	30pts. _____
				TOTAL POINTS

SECTION D

How do think a TV celebrity would spend the 180 "cash points?"

<u>Color TV Set:</u>				Total Points
Goldstar 13"	Magnavox 19"	Sony 27"	Mitsubishi "Big Screen"	
2 pts. _____	4 pts. _____	6 pts. _____	20 pts. _____	_____

<u>Wrist Watch:</u>				Total Points
Timex	Pulsar	Seiko	Rolex	
1 pt. _____	2 pts. _____	4 pts. _____	50 pts. _____	_____

<u>Vacation/Trip:</u>				Total Points
Las Vegas	Caribbean Cruise	London	Tour of Europe	
10 pts. _____	20 pts. _____	30 pts. _____	50 pts. _____	_____

Clothing: (Write the number of points you wish to "spend" at each store)

_____ pts. worth of clothing at Wal-Mart	_____ pts. worth of clothing at Dillards	
_____ pts. worth of clothing at J. C. Penny	_____ pts. worth of clothing at Neiman-Marcus	_____

<u>Automobile</u>				Total Points
Cadillac	Toyota Camry	Honda Civic	Hyundai	
150 pts. down	110 pts. down	70 pts. down	50 pts. down	
\$375 per month	\$225 per month	\$150 per month	\$100 per month	
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

<u>Kitchen Appliances:</u>					Total Points
Complete set including stove/oven, microwave, dishwasher, & refrigerator	Hotpoint	Whirlpool	GE	Maytag	
	15pts. _____	20pts. _____	25pts. _____	30pts. _____	_____
					TOTAL POINTS _____

SECTION E - INSTRUCTIONS: Using the scale as a guide, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

- ___ 1. On most purchase decisions the choice I make is of little consequences.
- ___ 2. Usually reading about products or asking people about them won't really help you make a decision.
- ___ 3. I have little or no interest in shopping.
- ___ 4. *Consumer Reports* is not very relevant to me.
- ___ 5. I am not interested in bargain seeking.
- ___ 6. I am not interested in sales.
- ___ 7. You can't save a lot of money by careful shopping
- ___ 8. I often take advantage of coupon offers in the newspapers.
- ___ 9. Because of my personal values, I feel that "smart-purchasing" ought to be important to me.
- ___ 10. I am usually not annoyed when I find out I could have bought something cheaper than I did.
- ___ 11. Being a smart shopper is worth the extra time it takes.
- ___ 12. Even with inexpensive products like shampoo, I will often evaluate a recent purchase and become annoyed because the product doesn't adequately meet my needs.
- ___ 13. Sales don't excite me.
- ___ 14. I am not really committed to getting the most for my money.
- ___ 15. For expensive items I spend a lot of time and effort making my purchase decision, since it is important to get the best deal.
- ___ 16. Consumerism issues are irrelevant to me.

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

- ___ 17. I view the purchasing of goods and services as a rather petty activity, not relevant to my main concerns in life.
- ___ 18. It is important to me to be aware of all the alternatives before buying an expensive item.
- ___ 19. It is important to me to keep up with the special deals being offered by the grocery stores in my area.
- ___ 20. I am too absorbed in more personally relevant matters to worry about making smart purchases.
- ___ 21. It is part of my value system to shop around for the best buy.
- ___ 22. The consumer and business sections of the newspaper are highly relevant to me.
- ___ 23. If I were buying a major appliance it wouldn't make much difference which brand I chose.
- ___ 24. The brands of goods I buy make very little difference to me.
- ___ 25. It is not worth it to read *Consumer Reports* since most brands are about the same.
- ___ 26. You can save a lot of money by clipping coupons from the newspaper.
- ___ 27. Thinking about what you are going to buy before going shopping make much difference in your long run expectations.
- ___ 28. It doesn't make much sense to get upset over a purchase decision since most brands are about the same.
- ___ 29. I am willing to spend extra time shopping in order to get the cheapest possible price on goods of like quality.
- ___ 30. I pay attention to advertisements for products I am interested in.

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

___ 31. Shopping wisely is rather a petty issue compared to thinking about how to make more money.

___ 32. I don't like worrying about getting the best deal when I go shopping; I like to spend money as I please.

___ 33. I don't like to waste a lot of time trying to get good deals on groceries.

SECTION F - INSTRUCTIONS: The purpose of this section is to obtain some demographic information about you which will only be used to categorize the results.

1. How old are you? _____ years

2. Are you: ___ Male ___ Female

3. Are you: ___ Single/Unmarried ___ Married ___ Separated
 ___ Divorced ___ Widowed ___ Remarried

4. With which ethnic group do you identify?

- ___ White
- ___ Black
- ___ Hispanic
- ___ Asian/Pacific Islander
- ___ American Indian/Alaskan National ___
- Other, please specify _____

5. How strongly do you identify with this group?

Very Strong 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 Very Weak

6. What is your annual income? _____.

7. What is your occupation? _____.

8. Please indicate your father's highest level of education.

- Grammar school (8 yrs. or less)
 Some high school (9 to 11 years)
 Graduated high school (12 years)
 Some post high school (business, nursing, technical, 1 yr. college)
 Two, three years of college--possibly Associate of Arts degree
 Graduated four-year college (B.A./B.S.)
 Master's or five-year professional degree
 Ph.D. or six/seven-year professional degree

9. Please indicate your mother's highest level of education.

- Grammar school (8 yrs. or less)
 Some high school (9 to 11 years)
 Graduated high school (12 years)
 Some post high school (business, nursing, technical, 1 yr. college)
 Two, three years of college--possibly Associate of Arts degree
 Graduated four-year college (B.A./B.S.)
 Master's or five-year professional degree
 Ph.D. or six/seven-year professional degree

10. Please describe your father's occupation.

11. Please describe your mother's occupation.

12. Please indicate which of the following statements best describes your parents' neighborhood.

- Low-income housing, government projects
 Working class; not slummy but some houses in very poor condition
 Predominately blue-collar with some office workers
 Predominately white-collar with some well-paid blue collar
 Better white-collar area; not many executives, but hardly any blue-collar
 Excellent area; professionals and well-paid managers
 "Wealthy" or "society"-type neighborhood

13. What do you estimate is your parents' total income per year? _____

14. What percentage of your educational expenses are paid for by:

Your parents	_____ %
Scholarships	_____ %
Grants	_____ %
Student Loans	_____ %
Your part-time job	_____ %
Your full-time job	_____ %
Your spouse	_____ %
Your employer	_____ %
Other, please specify _____	_____ %
<u>Total</u>	<u>100 %</u>

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

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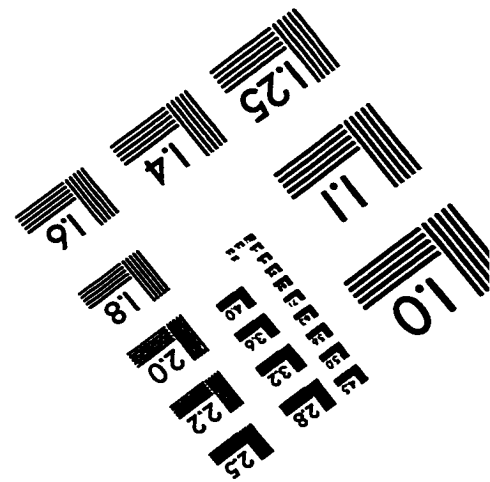
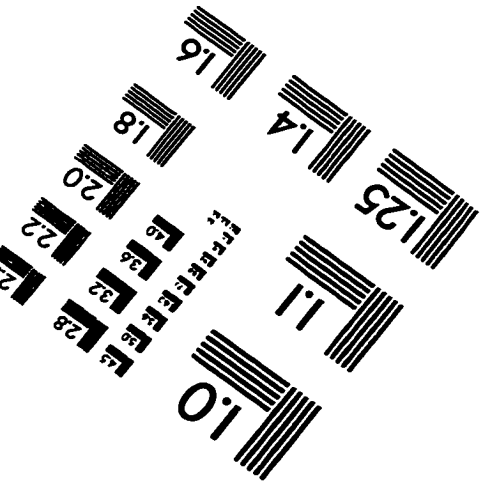
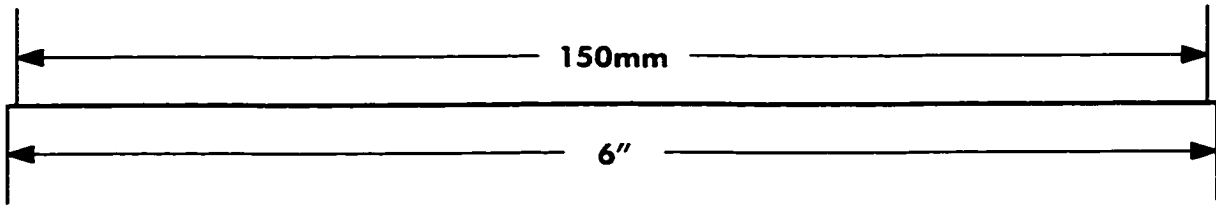
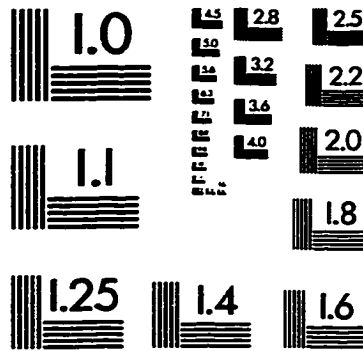
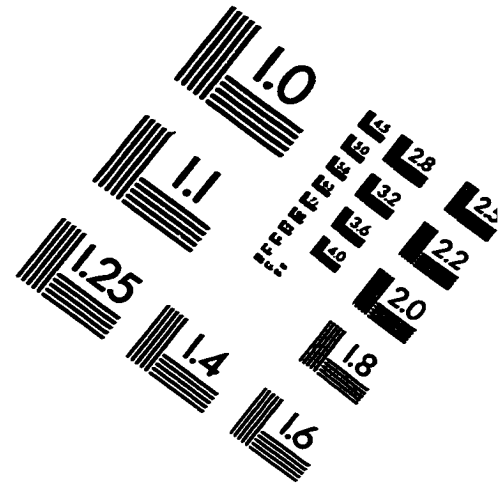
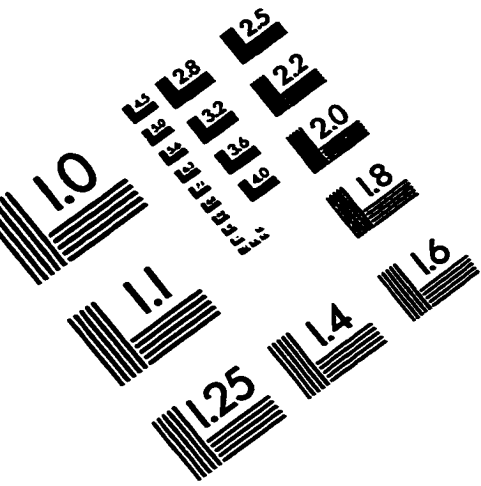
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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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