

Carmine Franco De Vita

**“The Market Maven,
A New Ally In The Diffusion Of Innovations Process”**

**Submitted for the award
of
Ph.D.**

**Department of Management and Marketing
Silsoe College
Cranfield University**

Cranfield University

Silsoe College

Department of Management and Marketing

Submitted for the award

of

Ph.D.

1997

Carmine Franco De Vita

“The Market Maven,
A New Ally In The Diffusion Of Innovations”

Supervisor

Professor R.W. Hill

March 1997

Acknowledgements

Special thanks go to the following people, without whose help and encouragement, this work would not have been possible.

Professor Roy Hill, Keith Thompson, the late Brian Beharrell,
Professor Lawrence Feick, Professor Linda Price, Professor Stephen Parkinson,
Professor Stephen Brown, Toby McManus, David Kilburn, Peter Higginbottom and
Dr Brian Mathews.

For my parents Mario and Gaetanina.

Abstract

The initial motive for undertaking this research, was a desire to better understand those factors which were said to affect the diffusion of ethnic foods. In attempting to develop the general methodology for this study, the author revisited seminal studies on diffusion of innovations, word-of-mouth, opinion leadership, and innovator / early adopter influence. During this process, the author discovered Feick and Price's (1987), emergent "*Market Maven*", theory. Said to be distinctly different from opinion leaders and early adopters, *market mavens* were not only believed to have a higher awareness of general marketplace information, but also more source credibility than other word-of-mouth influencers. Employing a replication study approach, a telephone survey of 400 households in urban, suburban and rural north Bedfordshire was undertaken. The author found that the *market maven* construct was not a purely US phenomenon, but was also present in the UK. Developing further Feick and Price's (1987) preliminary investigations, this study confirmed that (in common with related opinion leadership studies), it had not been possible to identify *market mavens* using demographic / socio-economic variables. Whilst classifying *market mavens* remained problematic, the author was nonetheless able to confirm Feick and Price's (1987) earlier findings, that *market mavens* had an inherently increased propensity for general marketplace information gathering. As this behaviour was considered by the author to be unique to *market mavens*, the construct was employed to test those factors, said to affect ethnic food diffusion, with interesting, if largely inconclusive results.

The author concluded, that the potential of the *market maven* construct in the diffusion of innovations process was significant, particularly as a conduit for internal word-of-mouth information in the business-to-business / industrial marketing context. In that situation, *market mavens*' heightened *awareness* of, and active *search* for, general marketplace information, would make them ideal targets for the type of marketing communication message that innovators and opinion leaders alike, reputedly ignore.

Contents

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. An Introduction To The Research Study | 1 |
| 1.1 Re-discovering Diffusion Theories | 2 |
| 1.2 Feick and Price's (1987) Market Maven Construct..... | 2 |
| 1.3 General Research Approach..... | 5 |
| 1.4 The Thesis Structure..... | 6 |
| | |
| 2. Research Aims And Objectives | 8 |
| 2.1 General Research Aims | 8 |
| 2.2 The Research Objectives | 9 |
| 2.3 The Thesis Statement | 10 |
| 2.4 The Research Scope and Constraining Factors | 10 |
| | |
| 3. Diffusion Of Innovations, Word-Of-Mouth Communications And The Market Maven - A Literature Review | 11 |
| 3.1 A Definition of Diffusion | 11 |
| 3.2 A Definition of Innovation | 12 |
| 3.3 Origins and Development of Diffusion Theory..... | 12 |
| 3.3.1 Rogers..... | 13 |
| 3.3.2 The Bass Model of New Product Diffusion..... | 16 |
| 3.4 Factors Affecting the Diffusion of Innovations..... | 17 |
| 3.4.1 Product Cost and Pricing Issues..... | 21 |
| 3.4.2 Product Complexity | 22 |
| 3.4.3 Visibility | 23 |
| 3.4.4 Divisibility | 24 |
| 3.4.5 Compatibility | 24 |
| 3.4.6 Utility / Relative Advantage | 26 |
| 3.4.7 Innovation Decision-Making and Collective Action | 26 |
| 3.5 Developments in Diffusion of Innovation Theory | 27 |
| 3.5.1 Recent Empirical Studies Employing Diffusion of Innovation Theory..... | 32 |
| 3.6 Parallel Developments in Diffusion of Innovation Theory | 35 |
| 3.7 The Role of Personal Influence in Diffusion of Innovations..... | 38 |
| 3.7.1 Opinion Leadership Theory | 39 |
| 3.7.2 Opinion Leadership Measurement - The Self -Designation Method..... | 42 |
| 3.7.3 Innovators/Early Adopter (Purchaser) Theory | 44 |
| 3.7.4 General Marketplace Influencer Theory -The Market Maven Construct | 45 |
| 3.8 Summary | 49 |
| | |
| 4. The Growth And Development Of Ethnic Foods - A Literature Review | 51 |
| 4.1 An Overview of the UK Ethnic Food Market | 52 |
| 4.1.1 An Overview of the UK Pasta Market..... | 53 |
| 4.2 The US Ethnic Food Market..... | 54 |
| 4.2.1 US Market Trends..... | 55 |
| 4.3 Problems With Defining Ethnic Foods..... | 56 |
| 4.4 Salient Factors in the Diffusion of Ethnic Foods..... | 59 |
| 4.4.1 Risk Aversion Theory of Ethnic Food Diffusion..... | 59 |
| 4.4.2 The Immigrant Factor | 60 |
| 4.4.3 The International Travel Factor | 62 |
| 4.5 Success and Failure in the Ethnic Food Business..... | 63 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 4.5.1 Authenticity Versus Acceptability - Striking a Balance | 64 |
| 4.6 Critique of the Literature | 66 |
| 4.7 Ethnic Food Diffusion and the Role of the Change Agent..... | 68 |
| 4.8 Concluding Remarks | 70 |
| 5. An Analysis Of Feick And Price's Original Market Maven Research..... | 72 |
| 5.1 Research Propositions | 72 |
| 5.2 Methodology Employed..... | 74 |
| 5.2.1 Survey Method and Sampling Issues..... | 74 |
| 5.3 Survey Administration..... | 75 |
| 5.4 Measurement Scales and Construct Validation | 75 |
| 5.5 Opinion Leadership and its Relationship to the Market Maven. | 77 |
| 5.6 The Early Adopter and its Relationship to the Market Maven. | 80 |
| 5.7 The Interrelationship of the Three Influencer Categories..... | 81 |
| 5.8 Analysis of Results | 82 |
| 5.8.1 Introduction | 82 |
| 5.8.2 Analysis methods..... | 82 |
| 5.8.3 P ₁ Possession of Market Information | 82 |
| 5.8.4 P ₂ Provision of Market Information | 83 |
| 5.8.5 P ₃ General Market Information Seeking Activities..... | 83 |
| 5.8.6 P ₄ Coupon Use, Enjoyment of Shopping and Attention to Advertising..... | 84 |
| 5.8.7 Demographic Variables | 84 |
| 5.8.8 General Media Patterns..... | 85 |
| 5.9 Summary | 85 |
| 6. Empirical Research Design And Methodology..... | 87 |
| 6.1 Methodological Approach..... | 88 |
| 6.2 Research Problem, Propositions and Hypotheses..... | 90 |
| 6.2.1 Investigating a Specific Product Category..... | 91 |
| 6.2.2 Investigating Factors Said to Influence Ethnic Food Adoption..... | 92 |
| 6.2.3 The Broad Research Problem | 92 |
| 6.2.4 Propositions, Hypotheses and the Examination of Relationships..... | 93 |
| 6.2.5 Research Propositions..... | 94 |
| 6.2.6 Operationalized Aims - Specific Hypotheses to be Tested..... | 95 |
| 6.3 The Pilot Study | 99 |
| 6.3.1 Introduction | 99 |
| 6.3.2 Administering the Pilot Study..... | 99 |
| 6.3.3 The Use of a Panel of Experts | 100 |
| 6.3.4 Testing Market Mavenness for Construct Validity..... | 101 |
| 6.3.5 Available Tests of Construct Validity..... | 102 |
| 6.3.6 Testing Market Mavenness Using Convergent Validity..... | 102 |
| 6.3.7 Examining the Discriminant Validity of the Market Maven Measures | 103 |
| 6.4 The Questionnaire Design | 103 |
| 6.4.1 Opening Statement..... | 104 |
| 6.4.2 Questions 1 and 2..... | 104 |
| 6.4.3 Question 3 | 104 |
| 6.4.4 Question 4, 5, 6 and 7 | 104 |
| 6.4.5 Question 8 to 11 | 105 |
| 6.4.6 Question 12..... | 105 |
| 6.4.7 Questions 13 to 17 | 105 |
| 6.4.8 Questions 18 and 19..... | 106 |
| 6.4.9 Question 20..... | 106 |
| 6.4.10 Question 21 | 107 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 6.4.11 Questions 22 to 25 | 107 |
| 6.4.12 Question 26..... | 107 |
| 6.4.13 Question 27..... | 107 |
| 6.4.14 Question 28 and 29 | 108 |
| 6.4.15 Question 30 and 31 | 108 |
| 6.4.16 Question 32..... | 108 |
| 6.4.17 The Final Section..... | 109 |
| 6.4.18 Major Modifications to the Feick and Price Questionnaire | 109 |
| 6.4.19 Not Employing the Two Sub-Set Approach..... | 110 |
| 6.4.20 Deleting the Question Regarding Types of Magazines | 110 |
| 6.5 Sampling Procedure | 110 |
| 6.5.1 Introduction | 110 |
| 6.5.2 Population Definition..... | 111 |
| 6.5.3 The Sampling Frame and Sampling Procedure | 113 |
| 6.5.4 Telephone Survey Issues | 114 |
| 6.6 Determining Sample Size..... | 116 |
| 6.6.1 Estimating Sample Size Using Standard Error as a Guide | 117 |
| 6.6.2 Sample Size Determination When Estimating Proportions | 117 |
| 6.6.3 Cost Versus Sample Size - A Trade - Off..... | 119 |
| 6.7 The Full Survey - Implementation Issues..... | 119 |
| 6.7.1 Introduction | 119 |
| 6.7.2 Data Collection - Practical Issues | 120 |
| 7. Survey Results And Critical Discussion | 122 |
| 7.1 Measurement Scales and Acceptable Significance Levels | 122 |
| 7.1.1 Ordinal / Interval Versus Nominal Scales..... | 123 |
| 7.1.2 Significance Levels..... | 123 |
| 7.2 Demographic / Classification Results..... | 123 |
| 7.2.1 Gender | 124 |
| 7.2.2 Age..... | 125 |
| 7.2.3 Country Of Birth..... | 126 |
| 7.2.4 Ethnicity..... | 126 |
| 7.2.5 Marital Status..... | 127 |
| 7.2.6 Household Size | 128 |
| 7.2.7 Household Members Under the Age of 18 | 129 |
| 7.2.8 Highest Level of Education | 130 |
| 7.2.9 Income Level | 130 |
| 7.3 Testing The Market Maven Construct..... | 131 |
| 7.3.1 Comparing Market Maven Scale Item Results and Reliability Measures..... | 131 |
| 7.3.2 Using Factor Analysis to test for Market Maven Construct Validity | 134 |
| 7.3.3 Results of Factor Analysis Test for Construct Validity | 135 |
| 7.3.4 Comparing Opinion Leadership Results..... | 137 |
| 7.3.5 Comparing Innovative Measure Results..... | 137 |
| 7.3.6 Summary..... | 138 |
| 7.4 Identifying Market Mavens in a UK Context..... | 138 |
| 7.5 Consumers' Identification of Others as Market Mavens | 140 |
| 7.6 Market Mavens' Possession of Market Information | 141 |
| 7.6.1 Market Mavens' Early Awareness of General Product Categories..... | 141 |
| 7.6.2 Market Mavens' Early Awareness of Specific New Products | 143 |
| 7.6.3 Reported Awareness of Non - Existent Brands | 145 |
| 7.7 Market Mavens' Provision of Market Information | 146 |
| 7.8 Market Mavens' Search Activities | 148 |
| 7.8.1 Which Magazine Readership | 149 |
| 7.8.2 Information Source Importance..... | 150 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| 7.9 Market Mavens' Marketplace Attentiveness | 152 |
| 7.10 Market Maven's Demographic Characteristics | 154 |
| 7.10.1 Age..... | 155 |
| 7.10.2 Gender and the Market Maven | 157 |
| 7.10.3 Employment / Education Status..... | 159 |
| 7.10.4 Marital Status..... | 161 |
| 7.10.5 Household Size | 163 |
| 7.10.6 Number of Children..... | 164 |
| 7.10.7 Education..... | 166 |
| 7.10.8 Country of Birth..... | 167 |
| 7.10.9 Ethnic Background | 169 |
| 7.10.10 Total Annual Household Income..... | 171 |
| 7.10.11 Geographical Location..... | 172 |
| 7.11 Importance of Sources of New Food Product Information | 174 |
| 7.11.1 Importance of Free Samples | 175 |
| 7.11.2 Importance of Television..... | 176 |
| 7.11.3 Importance of Relatives / Friends..... | 177 |
| 7.11.4 Importance of Browsing / Shopping..... | 177 |
| 7.11.5 The Association Between Search Activity Measures and Market Maven Categories | 178 |
| 7.11.6 Search Activity Measures Summary..... | 179 |
| 7.12 Comparing Market Maven, Opinion Leader and Innovator Constructs | 180 |
| 7.13 Ethnic Food Influencing Factor Results | 183 |
| 7.13.1 The Importance of Ethnic Food Influencing Factors..... | 184 |
| 7.13.2 The Relationship Between Market Maven Category and the Ethnic Food Influencing Factors | 186 |
| 7.13.3 Summary of Market Maven Versus Influencing Factor Results..... | 189 |
| 8. Summary And Conclusions..... | 190 |
| 8.1 Replication / Comparative Study Issues | 190 |
| 8.1.1 Comparing General Demographic Results | 190 |
| 8.1.2 Market Maven Scale and Construct Validity Result Comparisons..... | 192 |
| 8.1.3 The Key Market Maven Attributes..... | 194 |
| 8.1.4 Market Maven Categories - Contrasting Demographic Characteristics..... | 196 |
| 8.1.5 Examining Market Maven Personality | 196 |
| 8.2 Hypothesis Results | 199 |
| 8.2.1 Demographic / Classification Findings..... | 200 |
| 8.2.2 Market Maven Search Activity Behaviour | 200 |
| 8.2.3 Comparing the Market Maven, Opinion Leader and Innovator Constructs..... | 201 |
| 8.2.4 Ethnic Food Influencing Factors Issues..... | 201 |
| 8.3 Conclusions | 202 |
| 8.3.1 The Research Contribution | 202 |
| 8.3.2 Market Mavens Scale and Construct Issues..... | 204 |
| 8.3.3 Market Mavens - Credible Sources of Marketplace Information | 206 |
| 8.3.4 Ethnic Food Influencing Factor Measures..... | 206 |
| 8.4 Limitations and Criticisms..... | 207 |
| 8.5 The Managerial Implications of the Research..... | 209 |
| 8.5.1 Using Market Mavens to Communicate Changes in the Marketing Mix | 210 |
| 8.5.2 New Food Product Adoption - Influencing Factors..... | 211 |
| 8.6 Recommendations for Future Studies..... | 213 |
| 8.6.1 Identifying Market Mavens | 213 |
| 8.6.2 Measurement Scales and the Process of Trichotomization..... | 213 |
| 8.6.3 Discriminant Validity | 214 |
| 8.6.4 The Permanence of the Market Maven Construct | 215 |
| 8.7 Ethnic Food Influencing Factors | 215 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 8.8 Organisational Buyer Behaviour and the Market Maven | 216 |
| 9. References | 218 |
| 10. Appendices | 241 |
| 10.1 Appendix One - Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire..... | 241 |
| 10.2 Appendix Two - De Vita (1997) Questionnaire | 258 |
| 10.3 Appendix Three - Construct Validity Data..... | 270 |
| 10.4 Appendix Four - Market Maven Construct Measure Statistics | 274 |
| 10.5 Appendix Five- Market Maven Construct Reliability Statistics..... | 280 |
| 10.6 Appendix Six - Market Maven Scale Data | 283 |
| 10.7 Appendix Seven - King & Summers Opinion Leadership Scale Data | 287 |
| 10.8 Appendix Eight - Feick and Price Innovation Measure Broad Product Categories Data | 288 |
| 10.9 Appendix Nine - Feick and Price Innovation Measure Specific Product Categories Data..... | 289 |
| 10.10 Appendix Ten - Modified Feick and Price Early Awareness Measure Data..... | 290 |
| 10.11 Appendix Eleven - Early Awareness Measure - Recently Introduced Products Data | 291 |
| 10.12 Appendix Twelve - Information Provision Measure - Pasta and Related Products Data | 292 |

Tables

| | |
|---|------------|
| Table 1-1 UK Ethnic Food Sales (Excludes Takeaway and Pizza Sales)..... | 1 |
| Table 4-1 UK Ethnic Food Sales - Excluding Fast Food - By Sector 1985 - 2000 (Value £ Million)..... | 52 |
| Table 4-2 UK Pasta Sales By Product Category 1985 - 2000 (Value £ Million)..... | 53 |
| Table 4-3 Per Capita Consumption of Dry Pasta (Kilograms - Rounded and Ordered by Size)..... | 54 |
| Table 4-4 US Ethnic Food Sales in US\$ Billion 1975 - 2000..... | 55 |
| Table 4-5 US Ethnic Food Sales By Sector in US\$ Billion 1985 - 2000 (Percentage Market Share In Brackets) | 56 |
| Table 5-1 Factor Analysis Of The Market Maven Items, Opinion Leadership Measures, And King And Summers' Scale Items (Feick and Price (1987))..... | 78 |
| Table 5-2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis On The Measures Of Market Maven, Early Purchaser, And Opinion Leader..... | 81 |
| Table 6-1 Evaluation Of Three Survey Methods | 114 |
| Table 7-1 Percentage Of Respondents By Gender : Compared With Census Data (Figures Rounded)..... | 124 |
| Table 7-2 Percentage Of Respondents By Age Category : Compared With Census Data (Rounded And Ordered By Size)..... | 125 |
| Table 7-3 Percentage Of Respondents By Country Of Birth: Compared With Census Data (Rounded And Ordered By Size) | 126 |
| Table 7-4 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Ethnic Category : Compared With Census Data (Rounded And Ordered By Size) | 127 |
| Table 7-5 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Marital Status Category : Compared With Census Data (Figures Rounded And Ordered By Size)..... | 128 |
| Table 7-6 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Household Size Category : Compared With Census Data (Figures Rounded And Ordered By Size)..... | 129 |
| Table 7-7 Number Of Household Members Under The Age Of 18 : Percentage Of Sample In Brackets (Rounded And Ordered By Size)..... | 129 |
| Table 7-8 Highest Level Of Education Completed : Percentage Of Sample (Rounded and ordered by size) | 130 |
| Table 7-9 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Income Band (Figures Rounded And Ordered By Size)..... | 131 |
| Table 7-10 Comparing The Studies: Market Maven Scale Item Data..... | 132 |
| Table 7-11 Comparing The Studies: Opinion Leadership Results. | 137 |
| Table 7-12 Comparing The Studies: Innovative Measure Results (Mean Scores And Correlations, Figures Rounded) | 138 |
| Table 7-13 Comparing The Studies: Importance Of Market Mavens In New Product Awareness And Evaluation. (Percentage Of Responses, Figures Rounded) | 140 |
| Table 7-14 Comparing The Studies : Contrasting Market Maven Early Awareness Of New Products In General Product Categories (Mean Scores, Figures Rounded) | 142 |
| Table 7-15 Comparing The Studies: Contrasting Market Maven Early Awareness Of Specific New Products Results (Figures Rounded)..... | 143 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Table 7-16 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Market Maven Category Reporting Awareness Of Barilla Cannelloni (Figures Rounded)..... | 144 |
| Table 7-17 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Market Maven Category Reporting Awareness Of “La Favola” - A Non-existent Brand..... | 145 |
| Table 7-18 Comparing The Studies: Comparison Of Market Maven New Product Information Provision Results (Mean Scores, Figures Rounded) | 147 |
| Table 7-19 Cross Tabulation - Percentages Of Which Magazine Readership By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded) | 149 |
| Table 7-20 Comparing Means Of Search Activity Measures By Market Maven Category (Feick and Price 1987 in Brackets, Figures Rounded) | 151 |
| Table 7-21 Comparing Marketplace Attentiveness Measures By Market Maven Category (Feick and Price 1987 In Brackets, Figures Rounded)..... | 153 |
| Table 7-22 Comparing Demographic Characteristics Of Market Maven Categories (Feick and Price 1987 In Brackets) | 154 |
| Table 7-23 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Age Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)..... | 155 |
| Table 7-24 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Each Age Category As A Percentage Of The Total Sample And By Market Maven Category (Data Weighted And Figures Rounded) | 156 |
| Table 7-25 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Each Age Category By Market Maven Category (Data Weighted And Figures Rounded)..... | 157 |
| Table 7-26 Cross-Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents By Sex And Maven Classification (Figures Rounded)..... | 158 |
| Table 7-27 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Employment Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size) | 159 |
| Table 7-28 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Employment / Education Category Cross-Tabulated By Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 160 |
| Table 7-29 Percentage Of Respondents In Re-coded Employment / Education Category By Maven Classification (Figures Rounded)..... | 161 |
| Table 7-30 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Marital Status Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size) | 162 |
| Table 7-31 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Market Maven Category Cross-tabulated By Marital Status (Figures Rounded)..... | 162 |
| Table 7-32 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Household Size Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size) | 163 |
| Table 7-33 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Household Size Category Cross-Tabulated By Maven Classification (Figures Rounded) | 164 |
| Table 7-34 Percentage Of Respondents Living In Households With Children Under 18 (Rounded And Ordered By Size) | 165 |
| Table 7-35 Percentage Of Respondents Living In Households With Children Under 18 Cross-Tabulated By Maven Classification (Figures Rounded)..... | 165 |
| Table 7-36 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Each Education Category By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 166 |
| Table 7-37 Percentage Of Respondents From Reported Country Of Birth (Rounded And Ordered By Size) | 167 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 7-38 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents From Each Country Of Birth By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 168 |
| Table 7-39 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents From Each Country Of Birth By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 168 |
| Table 7-40 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Ethnic Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)... | 169 |
| Table 7-41 Cross-tabulation of Ethnic Category By Market Maven Category | 170 |
| Table 7-42 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Household Income Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size) | 171 |
| Table 7-43 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Each Annual Household Income Category By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 172 |
| Table 7-44 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Postcode Area (Rounded And Ordered By Size)..... | 173 |
| Table 7-45 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Urban/Suburban And Rural Localities By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 174 |
| Table 7-46 Comparing Means Of Search Activity Measures By Market Maven Category (Ordered And Figures Rounded) | 175 |
| Table 7-47 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Responses To ‘Free Samples’ Search Activity Measure By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 176 |
| Table 7-48 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Responses To “Television” Search Activity Measure By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 176 |
| Table 7-49 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Responses To “Relatives / Friends” Search Activity Measure By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 177 |
| Table 7-50 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Responses To “Browsing / Shopping” Search Activity Measure By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)..... | 178 |
| Table 7-51 Testing For Strength Of Association Between Search Activity Measures And Market Maven Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)..... | 179 |
| Table 7-52 Market Maven, Opinion Leadership and Innovator Correlation Coefficients | 180 |
| Table 7-53 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Market Maven In Corresponding Opinion Leader Categories (Figures Rounded)..... | 181 |
| Table 7-54 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Market Maven In Corresponding Innovator Categories (Figures Rounded)..... | 182 |
| Table 7-55 Comparing Demographic Characteristics Of The Market Maven, Opinion Leader and Innovator Constructs (Figures Rounded) | 183 |
| Table 7-56 Ethnic Food Influencing Factor Measure (% Of Responses) By Level Of Importance (Figures Rounded)..... | 185 |
| Table 7-57 Comparing Means Of Ethnic Food Influencing Factors By Market Maven Category (Ordered And Figures Rounded)..... | 187 |
| Table 7-58 Distribution Of “Agree” Responses To The Ethnic Food Influencing Factor Measure By Each Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded) | 188 |
| Table 10-1 Factor Analysis | 270 |
| Table 10-2 Factor Analysis Cont..... | 271 |
| Table 10-3 Factor Analysis Cont..... | 272 |
| Table 10-4 Rotated Factor Matrix | 273 |
| Table 10-5 Question 3B Statistics | 274 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Table 10-6 Question 3F Statistics..... | 275 |
| Table 10-7 Question 3G Statistics..... | 276 |
| Table 10-8 Question 3J Statistics | 277 |
| Table 10-9 Question 3K Statistics..... | 278 |
| Table 10-10 Question 12 Statistics..... | 279 |
| Table 10-11 Market Maven Construct Reliability Statistics | 280 |
| Table 10-12 Market Maven Construct Reliability Statistics Cont..... | 281 |
| Table 10-13 Market Maven Construct Reliability Statistics Continued..... | 282 |
| Table 10-14 Market Maven Scale Scores..... | 283 |
| Table 10-15 Market Maven “Low” Category Scores..... | 284 |
| Table 10-16 Market Maven “Medium” Category Scores..... | 285 |
| Table 10-17 Market Maven “High” Category Scores | 286 |
| Table 10-18 King & Summers Opinion Leadership Scale Data..... | 287 |
| Table 10-19 Feick and Price Innovation Measure Broad Product Categories Data | 288 |
| Table 10-20 Feick and Price Innovation Measure Specific Product Categories Data..... | 289 |
| Table 10-21 Modified Feick and Price Early Awareness Measure Data..... | 290 |
| Table 10-22 Early Awareness Measure - Recently Introduced Products Data..... | 291 |
| Table 10-23 Information Provision Measure - Pasta and Related Products Data..... | 292 |

Figures

| | |
|--|------------|
| Figure 1-1 Awareness Agents In The Diffusion Process - Opinion Leader, Early Adopter and Market Maven Categories | 4 |
| Figure 1-2 Significant Differences Between The Internal Word - Of - Mouth Awareness Agents | 5 |
| Figure 3-1 Rogers' Adopter Categories | 14 |
| Figure 3-2 Adoptions Due To External and Internal Influences in the Bass New Product Diffusion Model | 16 |
| Figure 3-3 Gatignon and Robertson's Model of the Diffusion Process | 19 |
| Figure 4-1 The Development Of An Ethnic Food Market | 60 |
| Figure 6-1 The Research Process | 88 |
| Figure 6-2 Map of the County of Bedfordshire Indicating the Postcode areas MK40 - MK45 | 112 |
| Figure 7-1 Market Maven Scale Item Score Frequency Chart..... | 132 |
| Figure 7-2 Factor Analysis Output..... | 136 |
| Figure 8-1 Eysenck's Dimensions of Personality: Introversion - Extroversion and Stability - An Analysis of Market Maven Personality | 198 |
| Figure 10-1 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Opening Statement)..... | 241 |
| Figure 10-2 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)..... | 242 |
| Figure 10-3 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)..... | 243 |
| Figure 10-4 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)..... | 244 |
| Figure 10-5 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Non - Prescription Drugs And Beauty Products Section)..... | 245 |
| Figure 10-6 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Non - Prescription Drugs And Beauty Products Section)..... | 246 |
| Figure 10-7 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (General Media Patterns) | 247 |
| Figure 10-8 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (General Media Patterns)..... | 248 |
| Figure 10-9 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (General Media Patterns)..... | 249 |
| Figure 10-10 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions) | 250 |
| Figure 10-11 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions) | 251 |
| Figure 10-12 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions) | 252 |
| Figure 10-13 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)..... | 253 |
| Figure 10-14 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)..... | 254 |
| Figure 10-15 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)..... | 255 |
| Figure 10-16 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)..... | 256 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| Figure 10-17 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)..... | 257 |
| Figure 10-18 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opening Statement) | 258 |
| Figure 10-19 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)..... | 259 |
| Figure 10-20 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)..... | 260 |
| Figure 10-21 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)..... | 261 |
| Figure 10-22 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)..... | 262 |
| Figure 10-23 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Pasta And Related Food Products Section) | 263 |
| Figure 10-24 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Pasta And Related Food Products Section) | 264 |
| Figure 10-25 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Pasta And Related Food Products Section) | 265 |
| Figure 10-26 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (General Media Patterns) | 266 |
| Figure 10-27 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Food Influencing Factor Section) | 267 |
| Figure 10-28 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions) | 268 |
| Figure 10-29 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions) | 269 |

1. An Introduction To The Research Study

This study, developed out of the author's initial desire, to better understand the factors which had led to the rapid development of the UK ethnic food industry (see Table 1-1). Preliminary investigations revealed that immigrants, international travel, mass communication and restaurant patronage, were often being cited as influential in the diffusion process, however, there was an almost total lack of empirically based supporting evidence.

Table 1-1 UK Ethnic Food Sales (Excludes Takeaway and Pizza Sales)

| Year | £ Million | % Change Year-On-Year |
|-------|-----------|-----------------------|
| 1985 | 829 | - |
| 1986 | 861 | 4 |
| 1987 | 920 | 7 |
| 1988 | 983 | 7 |
| 1989 | 1055 | 7 |
| 1990 | 1129 | 7 |
| 1991 | 1235 | 9 |
| 1992 | 1346 | 9 |
| 1993 | 1457 | 9 |
| 1994 | 1577 | 8 |
| 1995 | 1722 | 9 |
| 1996 | 1881 | 9 |
| 1997* | 1987 | 6 |
| 1998* | 2102 | 6 |
| 1999* | 2198 | 5 |
| 2000* | 2269 | 3 |

(* Estimated)

Source: Euromonitor / Mintel / Keynote / Frost & Sullivan / The Grocer / Industry Data

1.1 Re-discovering Diffusion Theories

As is often the case in doctoral research, the need to develop an appropriate methodology requires the researcher to broaden the parameters of his original literature search. It was during this process, that a significant breakthrough was made. The author thus rediscovered an aspect of marketing, so often dismissed in one page in most mainstream marketing texts. That aspect being diffusion of innovations theory, and in particular the effect that “internal” word-of-mouth communications had, on the adoption process.

After reading more recent articles on diffusion of innovations theory, Rogers’ seminal study on diffusion of innovations (Rogers 1962) was revisited. This led on to an examination of evolutionary work carried out by Bass (Bass 1969). Following a detailed consideration of the literature, the author felt that the “internal” word-of-mouth aspect had become somewhat neglected of late. This, despite the fact that (as detailed in the literature review), many authors considered word-of-mouth to be substantially more influential in the trial and subsequent adoption of new products, services, health promotions etc., than “external” advertising communication techniques. At this point, the author was persuaded by the arguments forwarded in the literature, that diffusion of innovations studies, held the answer to the quest for a suitable methodological framework.

1.2 Feick and Price’s (1987) Market Maven Construct

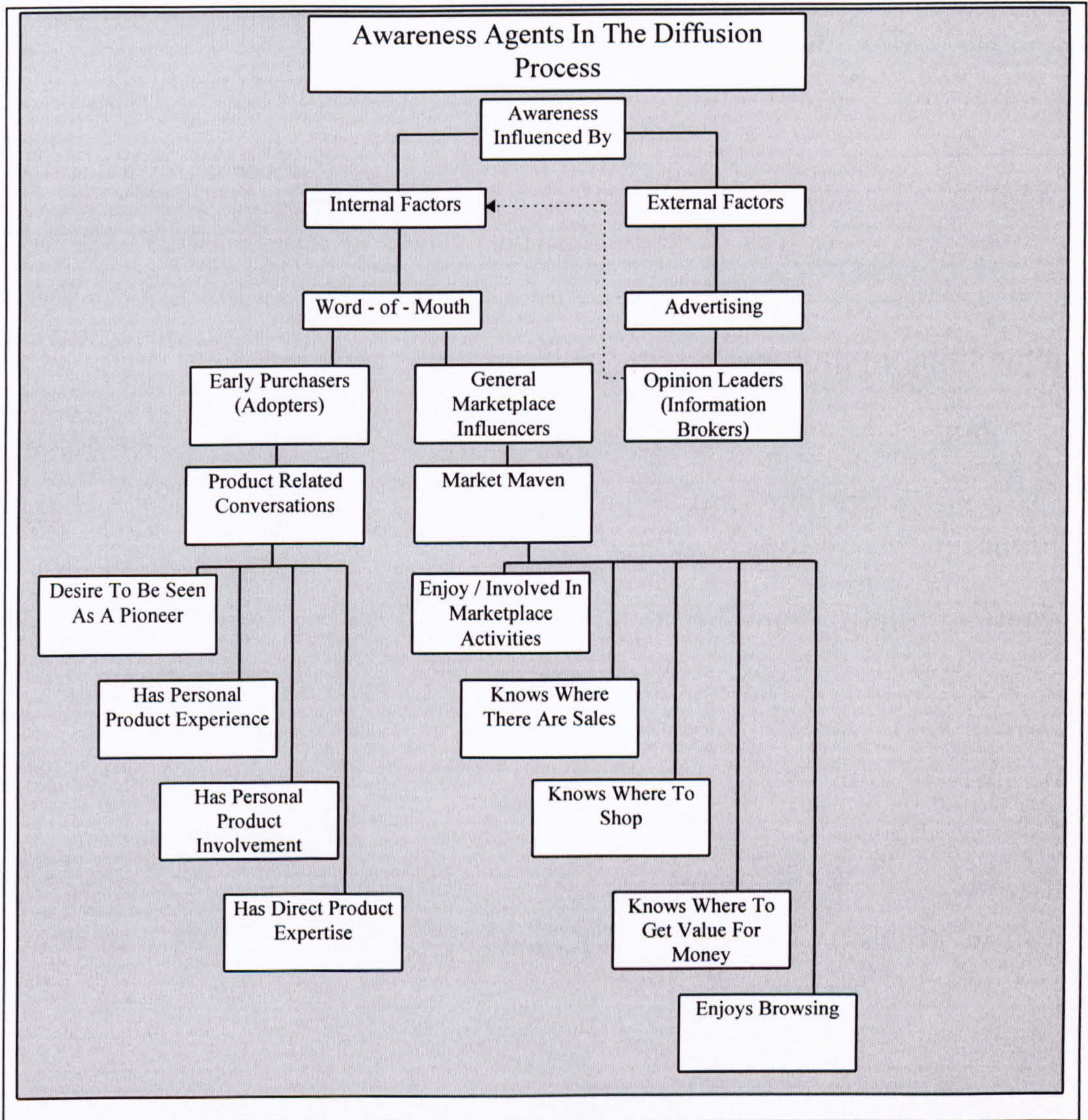
A further breakthrough, was the discovery of Feick and Price’s article on a new category of “information seeker” (Thorelli and Thorelli 1977), termed the *Market Maven* (Feick and Price 1987). A Yiddish word loosely interpreted as “know-all”, the term “*maven*” was used (by some respondents to a pilot study investigating the shopping habits of US consumers), to describe persons who were significantly more knowledgeable about general marketplace issues, than their peers.

Feick and Price (1987), considered *market mavens* to be a new category of internal word-of-mouth information diffuser; especially active in the accumulation of marketplace information. Exhibiting significant differences to other diffusers of information, such as opinion leaders and early purchasers (adopters) / innovators, this new category was considered by Feick and Price (1987), to have great potential as an information conduit. A conduit through which marketing communications could be channelled and diffused, in a more targeted and potentially more effective manner, than had previously been possible.

Until relatively recently, opinion leaders were considered to be the only source of reference in a “traditional” social system. As brokers of information who were consulted by others rather than offering unsolicited advice, their influence was predicated around a limited number of factors, such as social status, experience, or age. These were all factors which were said to enhance their source credibility (Solomon 1994). A credibility which was however, prone to rapidly diminish, the less knowledge and experience of the particular issue in question, the opinion leader was perceived to have (Shiffman and Kanuk 1994; Solomon 1994). This marked them out as significantly different from other word-of-mouth influencers (see Figure 1-1).

The early adopter / innovator, was the next category felt to be influential in the information dissemination process. Their enthusiasm for recent acquisitions were typically conveyed through product related conversations, to other potential adopters. The desire to be seen as a pioneer, with product experience, involvement and expertise, and a propensity to actively engage others in product related conversation, clearly marked them out as being very different to opinion leaders. However, as with opinion leaders, it was said that their source credibility could also be questioned, as views expressed during their conversations could be biased by post-purchase, dissonance reduction behaviour (Shiffman 1994).

Figure 1-1 Awareness Agents In The Diffusion Process - Opinion Leader, Early Adopter and Market Maven Categories

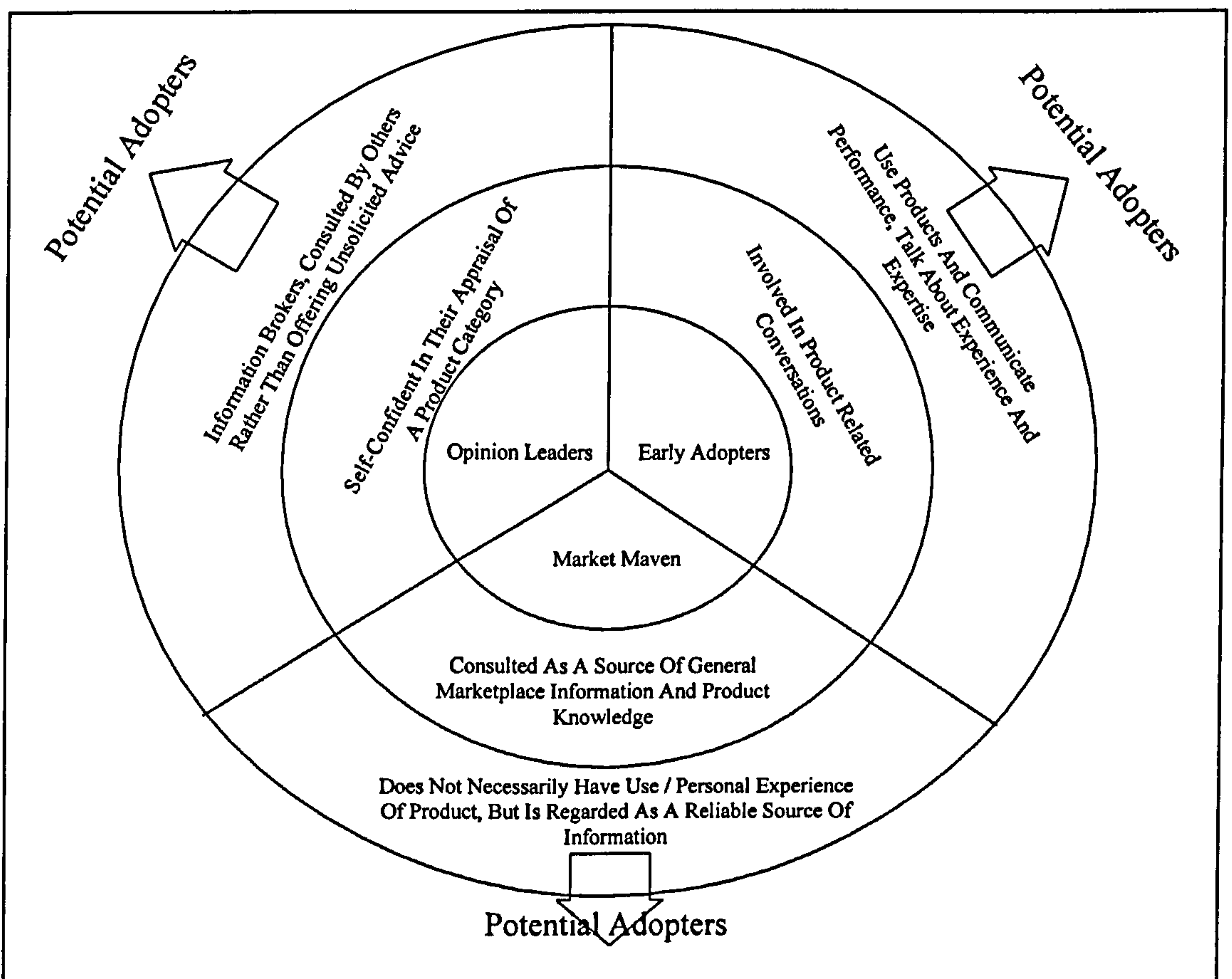


The discovery by Feick and Price (1987), of a new type of information seeker which; a) did not necessarily have to have direct product experience to be considered knowledgeable; b) exhibited a proactive attitude to information seeking; and c) was a better source of general marketplace information (than other information seekers such as opinion leaders and early purchaser / innovators), led the author to conclude that the internal word-of-mouth diffusion process, merited further, more detailed examination.

1.3 General Research Approach

Feick and Price (1987), suggested that the *market maven* may indeed be more effective than the other two categories for diffusing information, specifically on general changes in a product's marketing mix (see Figure 1-2).

Figure 1-2 Significant Differences Between The Internal Word - Of - Mouth Awareness Agents



The author felt that before proceeding any further, the Feick and Price (1987) study needed to be replicated in order to ascertain its validity in a UK context. There were also aspects of the original study (specifically those dealing with issues of classification / identification of *market mavens*), which in Feick and Prices' (1987),

own view, were considered to be underdeveloped. It was therefore felt that a contribution towards this aspect, could be made here.

The author also felt, that if the *market maven* construct did indeed exhibit the information seeking and general marketplace awareness that Feick and Price (1987) had found, then there were other potential uses for it. Here, it was posited that their (apparently), increased propensity for, and more proactive approach to, information gathering (than either the general population or other information seeker categories), made them ideal candidates for examining the validity of those ethnic food diffusion influencing factors, mentioned earlier. The argument being that persons such as *market mavens* (who according to Feick and Price 1987), “exhibit a higher propensity to collect and disseminate information than any other group of information brokers”), would be both more reliable, and more likely to remember what it was that influenced their purchase of a product or service, than other members of a population.

1.4 The Thesis Structure

Divided into eight chapters, the first provides the reader with an overview of the nature of the study, and summarises both the diffusion of innovation process, and provides an overview of the ethnic food industry. This relates specifically to research aims one and two (section 2.1), and is the underpinning for the research statements described in detail in chapter two.

Chapter two, develops for the reader, the reasons for undertaking the study, outlines its aims, provides a research statement, sets out objectives, delineates the scope and states such limitations considered germane to this research.

Chapter three contains the literature review on the theory of diffusion of innovations, including word-of-mouth communications theory, and opinion leadership theory. The

chapter concludes with a detailed discussion of the general marketplace influencer concept, and in particular the *market maven* construct.

The fourth chapter, reviews the literature on the growth and development of ethnic foods, highlighting in particular, those factors which were considered to be influential in the dissemination and adoption of such products.

Given the replication / comparative study nature of the work, chapter five contains a detailed discussion of Feick and Price's (1987) original *market maven* study, including the methodology they employed, and an analysis of key findings.

Empirical research design and methodology, is covered in chapter six. Issues such as the methodological approach, the research problem, general hypothesis and operational aims, together with the specific hypotheses to be tested, are related in detail. The pilot study, final questionnaire design and resultant differences from that of Feick and Price (1987) are also covered here, as is the issue of determining sample size. This chapter ends, with a detailed discussion of the survey implementation and other practical issues regarding data collection.

The survey results (and critical discussion thereof), are covered in chapter seven. Analysis methods, and acceptable statistical significance levels are stated, followed by broad demographic / classification issues. Testing of the *market maven* construct and analysing its demographic characteristics follows. Ethnic food diffusion, and related influencing factor results, complete this particular chapter.

Conclusions are drawn in the final chapter (chapter eight), and include a summary of empirical findings, a discussion of the research contribution and both theoretical and commercial implications. Methodological limitations and recommendations for future studies, conclude this thesis.

2. Research Aims And Objectives

This chapter introduces the overall aim, objectives and scope of the research programme. A research programme, which developed from the author's desire to better understand the theory of diffusion of innovations, word-of-mouth theory and Feick and Price's (1987), new *market maven* construct.

Based upon a replication of Feick and Price's (1987), study of the "Market Maven: A Diffuser of Marketplace Information", the author believed that this newly identified, active and (reportedly), highly influential category of information diffuser, needed to be tested and developed further. If the construct were supported, it would lend credence to Feick and Price's (1987), assertions that the category could have *significant* potential in information diffusion amongst potential adopters of new products. And would clearly assist marketing and product managers to further target and refine their communications messages, to meet the specific requirements of the *market maven* category.

The research was undertaken by the author over the period 1991 - 1996.

2.1 General Research Aims

This research programme was driven by the following associated, but ultimately distinct aims :

1. "To establish whether or not the original Feick and Price (1987) *market maven* construct exists in a UK context, and should it be proven to exist, to develop further our ability to identify and describe respondents with significant *market maven* attributes".
2. "To employ the *market maven* construct to test if the long held assertion that travel, ethnic minorities, restaurant patronage, television and print media have a

significant influence on respondents' awareness and adoption of ethnic food products".

2.2 The Research Objectives

The above-stated aims, stressed the author's desire to advance (in a small but hopefully significant way), the general debate on diffusion of innovations, and in particular the influence of internal word-of-mouth communications on that process. A process which until relatively recently was thought to be dominated by two categories of influential information seekers (opinion leaders and innovators), but which Feick and Price (1987), suggested should be joined by a third (equally influential), *market maven* category.

Building upon the work carried out in the USA by Feick and Price, it was the author's intention to test the *market maven* construct in a United Kingdom context, primarily to ascertain whether or not the construct was culturally bound only to the United States of America, or if indeed it appeared in much the same form elsewhere.

Additionally, the author wished to employ the *market maven* construct, to test the validity of a number of factors said to significantly affect the diffusion of new ethnic foods. A sector of the retail grocery sector, chosen because of; a), its consistently high growth rates; and b) high levels innovation.

The most active, and arguably the longest established sub-sector of the ethnic food business, was that of pasta and pasta based food products and sauces. This, coupled with other factors such as the level of consumer awareness, and the fact that there are pasta-based products in all product life cycle stages, led the author to concentrate on this particular category.

2.3 The Thesis Statement

Adhering to Popper's views on the role and applicability of thesis statements (Popper 1969), the general hypothesis for support or refutation in this thesis was that:

“UK respondents neither support the Feick and Price (1987) *market maven* Diffuser of Marketplace Information concept, nor confirm the historical assertions that travel, mass communication, advertising or the presence of ethnic minorities in a host population are significant factors in diffusing ethnic food products in the UK marketplace”.

2.4 The Research Scope and Constraining Factors

In the author's opinion, the twin issues of research scope (extent), and research limitations (boundaries), were so interrelated that they could not be separated. Thus, the simple act of defining the research scope, dictated the research boundaries. Which after further consideration, often leads to a review or reassessment of the original research scope. This dynamic relationship is further influenced by other complicating constraints, of which (arguably), the two most influential are the availability of time and finance. These were particularly influential here, given the self funding and part-time nature of this research. These factors influenced the maximum number of valid interviews which could be afforded (400), and also limited the geographical scope of the study to one area, situated relatively near to the author.

The time-based constraints, were mainly a function of the registration period of the part-time Ph.D. This meant that for practical purposes, the data collection aspects of the work had to be completed early in the final year. Such other limitations placed upon this research, were mainly imposed by methodological factors (chiefly due replication study issues), and are discussed in detail in chapter six.

3. Diffusion Of Innovations, Word-Of-Mouth Communications And The Market Maven - A Literature Review

This chapter, seeks to provide the reader with a review of the previous research and relevant theories, associated with this research study. It also endeavours to develop these, in line with the nature of the research problem. In order to remove any possible confusion or ambiguity, the first section is dedicated to the clarification of those terms used within the literature review. This is proceeded by an in-depth analysis of the origins and development of the theory of diffusion of innovations. A review of the associated word-of-mouth communications theory follows, together with an in-depth analysis of the participants involved in such communications. These are specifically, opinion leaders, early adopters / purchasers and *market mavens* - credited by Feick and Price (1987), as marketplace generalists.

3.1 A Definition of Diffusion

“Diffusion is the process by which an innovation spreads. The diffusion process is the spread of a new idea from its source of invention or creation to its ultimate users or adopters. The essence of the diffusion process is the human interaction in which one person communicates a new idea to another person. Thus, at its most elemental level of conceptualisation, the diffusion process consists of (1) a new idea, (2) individual *A* who knows about the innovation and (3) individual *B* who does not yet know about the innovation. The social relationships of *A* and *B* have a great deal to say about the conditions under which *A* will tell *B* about the innovation, and the results of this telling” (Rogers 1962, p13).

3.2 A Definition of Innovation

“An innovation is an idea perceived as new by the individual. It really matters little, as far as human behaviour is concerned, whether or not the idea is “objectively” new as measured by the amount of time elapsed since its first use or discovery. It is the newness of the idea to the individual that determines his reaction to it” (Rogers 1962, p13).

3.3 Origins and Development of Diffusion Theory

Research on the diffusion of innovations, can be traced back to two main schools of thought. The first being the German-Austrian and the British schools of diffusion in anthropology (whose members claimed that the most changes in a society resulted from the introduction of innovations from other societies). The second from the French sociologist Tarde (1903), who was the first to propose the S-shaped diffusion curve and to cite the role of opinion leaders in the process of “imitation”.

The oft quoted “revolutionary paradigm” for diffusion research, occurred forty years later, when two sociologists published their seminal study, of the diffusion of hybrid seed corn among Iowa farmers in the USA (Ryan and Gross 1943). Of import here, was the fact that it continued to be held to be the “classic” model of the diffusion of new ideas; positing that innovations were communicated a) through certain channels; b) over time; among c) members of a social system. From this work, diffusion theory was adopted by a wide cross-section of the scientific establishment, and used in a variety of fields from educational and marketing studies, to (most of all), rural sociology (Rogers 1962).

This section continues, with a detailed discussion of Rogers' (1962), development of adopter categories, followed by an analysis of developmental (but distinctly different) work, carried out by Bass (1969). A discussion of parallel developments in diffusion theory follows. The section concludes, with a comprehensive examination of those factors, which are said to significantly affect the diffusion of an innovation.

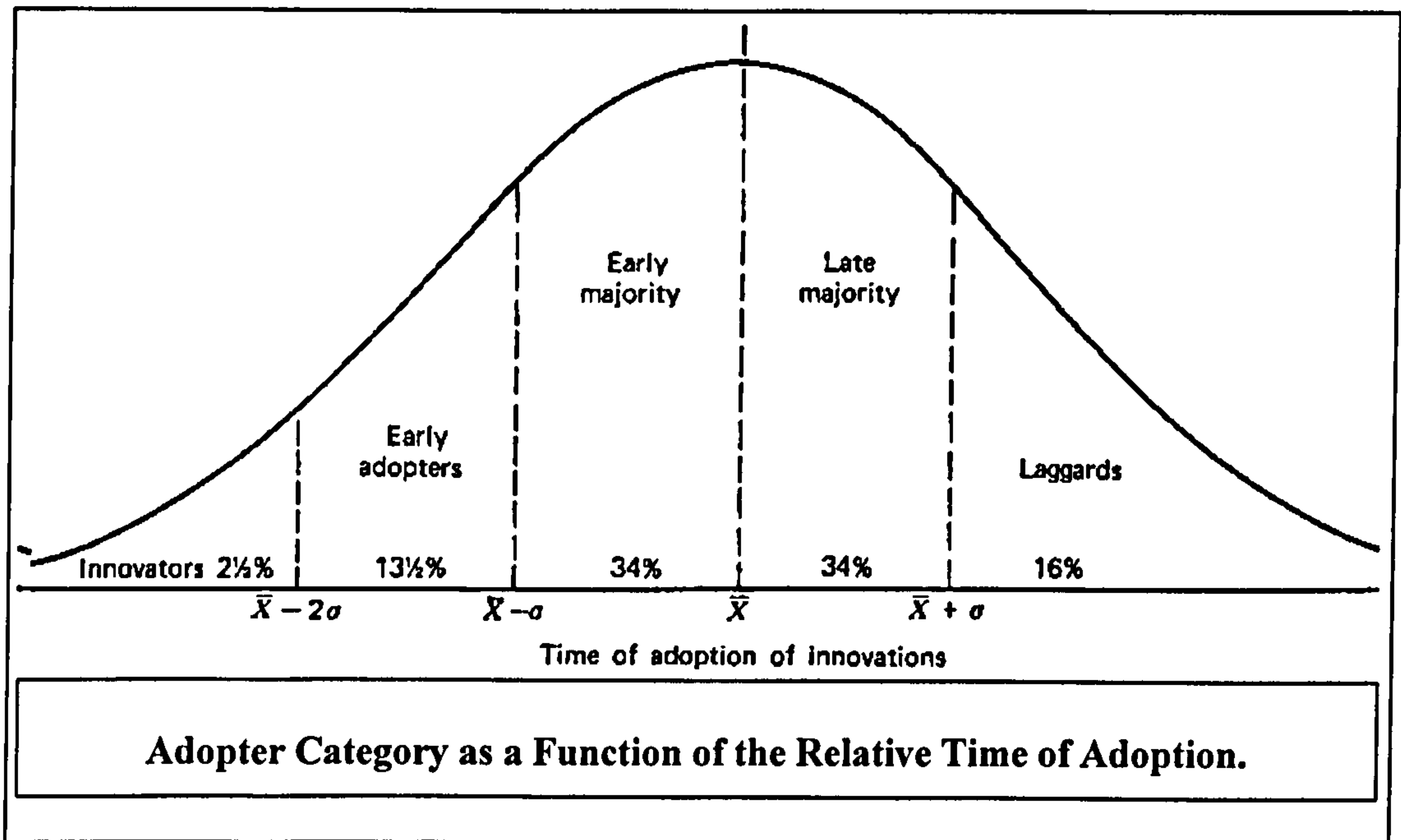
3.3.1 Rogers

Rogers' seminal work "Diffusion of Innovations" (Rogers 1962), was in great part a synthesis of the various studies (both published and unpublished), that had been undertaken in the area of diffusion of innovations. Rogers (1962) justifies the need for the text by stating poignantly that;

"...evidence of the need for this synthesis is the lack of diffusion among the various traditions of diffusion research itself. For example, educators have largely ignored the diffusion findings of rural sociologists, and anthropologists have paid no attention to either one. Nearly all the understandings about the diffusion of ideas are monopolised by several small cliques of research workers".

Whilst developing many different aspect of the theory of diffusion of innovations, Rogers (1962), is noted mainly for developing both the adopter classifications, and the adoption curve (see Figure 3-1).

Figure 3-1 Rogers' Adopter Categories



Source: Everett M. Rogers, *Diffusion of Innovations* (1962), p162.

The first of the five adopter categories which make up the curve, were the innovators. Rogers (1962), characterised them as being “eager to try new ideas”, and felt that “venturesomeness” was almost an obsession. In behavioural terms, Rogers (1962), concluded that this made them more cosmopolitan in their social relationships, than other members of a social system. And whilst they invariably outgrew their “local” circle of peers, they tended to seek-out and foster friendships with like-minded individuals, irrespective of geographical location. Desirous of “the hazardous, the rash, the daring and the risking”, this category tended to discount the “occasional debacle”, in favour of being identified as a leader. However, the prerequisites of having “control of substantial financial resources to absorb the loss of an unprofitable innovation, and the ability to understand and apply complex technical knowledge”, suggests that only wealthy individuals could belong to this group (Rogers 1962).

Rogers (1962), believed that because the early adopter category only slightly more innovative than the average individual, their opinions were considered to be more credible / safer, than those of the innovator category. It was to them that other potential adopters were said to go for information and advice about innovations. Thus, it was from this category, that the greatest number of opinion leaders were said to come. Considered as invaluable catalysts for speeding the diffusion process, change agents targeted them in particular (Rogers 1962).

Classified as “deliberate”, the early majority category was said to “adopt new ideas just before the average member of a social system” (Rogers 1962). Clearly seen as a vital link between those considered leaders and those who are inherently followers, members of this group were of value “in the process of legitimising innovations”. Seldom considered leaders, members of the early majority category, were nevertheless often willing to adopt innovations.

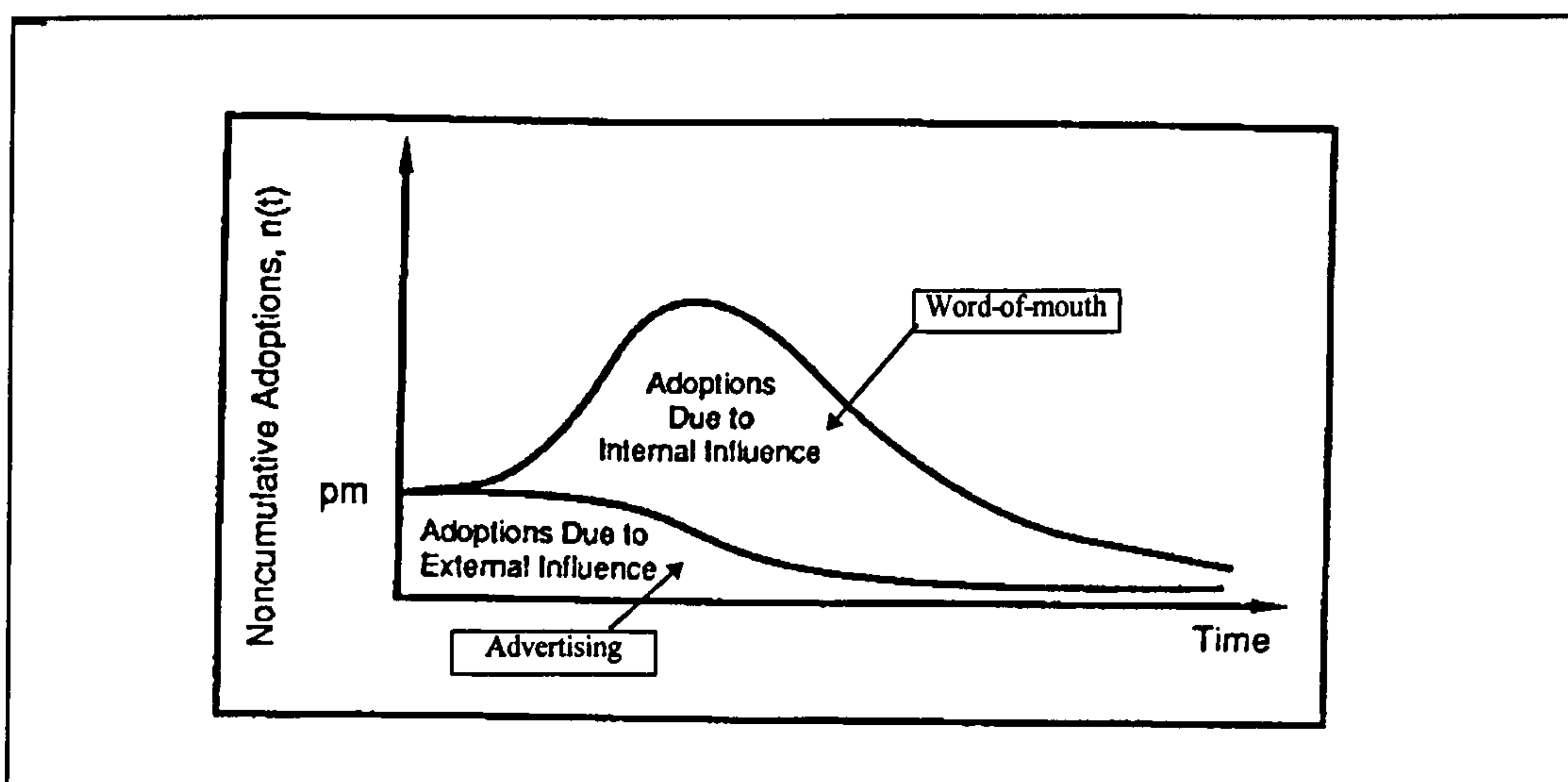
The penultimate “late majority” category, typically sought out public opinion, and waited until there was a significant amount of consensus, before considering adopting an innovation. Characteristically cautious in nature, they were however considered to be significantly susceptible to peer pressure (Rogers 1962).

“Laggards”, were believed to be the last to adopt innovations, and whilst they may well have been aware of an innovation for some time, they often adopted when the innovation had itself been superseded. Holding traditional values and primarily associating with like-minded individuals, they were believed to be suspicious not only of the innovation, but also of innovators, and those change agents that promote innovation (Rogers 1962).

3.3.2 The Bass Model of New Product Diffusion

Whilst Rogers (1962), provided a model for new product diffusion, based upon the distillation of a large number of past studies carried out in a variety of disciplines, Bass (1969), provided a specific model for undertaking diffusion research in the marketing field.

Figure 3-2 *Adoptions Due To External and Internal Influences in the Bass New Product Diffusion Model*



Adapted from: A New Product Growth Model For Consumer Durables by Frank M. Bass (1969)

The Bass (1969), model was a development of previous investigations, which found that mass-media (an external influence), and word-of-mouth (an internal influence), to be the two main driving forces behind the diffusion of innovation process (Fourt and Woodlock 1960; Mansfield 1961). It held, that at the time when a product is first launched ($t = 0$), adoptions due to external influence (mass media), and adoptions due to internal influences (word-of-mouth), are the same (see Figure 3-2). However, whilst adoptions due to external influences remain constant for a time, before declining rapidly, adoptions due to internal (word-of-mouth) influences, increase rapidly. This behaviour was predicated upon the view that; a) potential adopters were more likely to be convinced to adopt by internal influencing factors (such as product-related conversations), than external influencing factors (such as an advertising campaign);

and b) the degree of influence remains firmly in favour of internal factors, right through the non-cumulative adoption curve. The model also assumed that the adopters of an innovation consisted of two distinct groups, one influenced solely by the mass-media (the external influence), the other only influenced by the word-of-mouth communication (the internal influence). These two groups were respectively named “influencers” and “imitators” (Bass 1969).

Developed primarily as a predictor of product sales (and extensively modified by others working in the field of diffusion), the basic Bass model for diffusion equation is derived from hazard function (the probability that an adoption will occur at time t given that it has not yet occurred), and is given as;

$$f(t)/[1 - F(t)] = p + qF(t)$$

Where the density function of time to adoption is given by $f(t)$ and the cumulative fraction of adopters at time t is given by $F(t)$.

3.4 Factors Affecting the Diffusion of Innovations

Whilst Rogers (1962) highlighted the diffusion process and basic adopter categories, and Bass (1969) developed the basic diffusion equation, their work was not primarily concerned with understanding factors which could significantly affect the diffusion / adoption process. This omission was rectified to a great extent by Rogers and Shoemaker (1971), who forwarded five separate and distinct product characteristics, which they believed affected the rate of ultimate adoption of an innovation. The five characteristics were; a) relative advantage; b) compatibility; c) simplicity; d) observability; and e) trialability.

Moving away from Rogers and Shoemaker's (1971), purely product-related factors, Gatignon and Robertson (1985), suggested that environmental factors were particularly influential in innovation diffusion. They felt that diffusion would be fastest when; a) the innovation fits in with existing consumption patterns; b) the innovation is compatible with societal values; c) the innovation appeals to a homogenous group; and d) competition for adopters is intense. Criticising the "lack of new insights and methods on the part of consumer behaviour scholars", Gatignon and Robertson (1985), felt that the theory of diffusion of innovations had great potential in the field of consumer innovations, but as few academics had sought to investigate this particular application, progress had been slow.

Reviewing the diffusion of innovations research, Gatignon and Robertson (1985), suggested that Rogers' (1983), six elements affecting the rate of diffusion, namely:

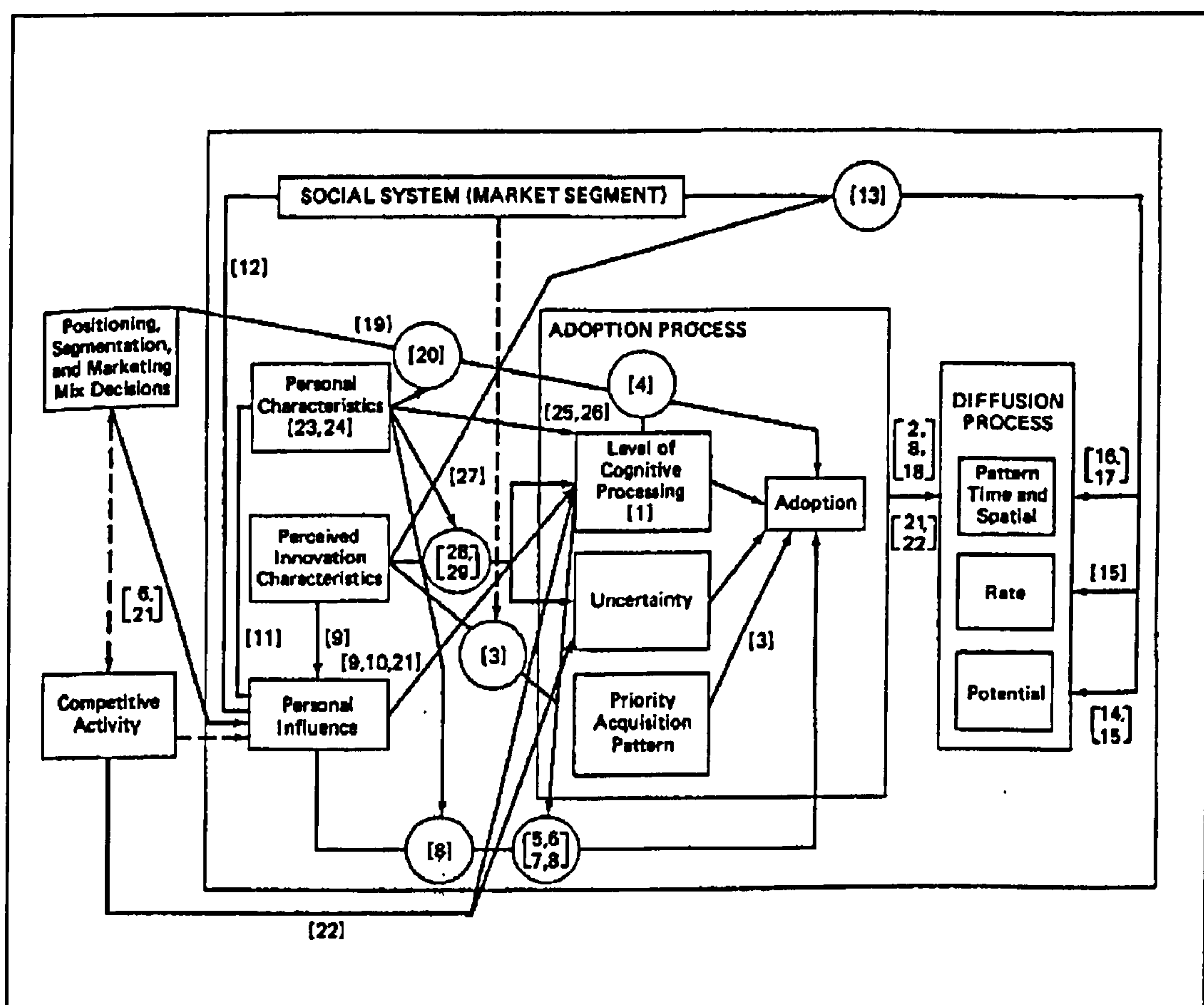
1. The concept of the *innovation*.
2. Its *diffusion* over time.
3. The *personal influence* and *opinion leadership* processes.
4. The *adoption* process.
5. The roles of the *innovator* and other *adopter* categories.
6. The *social system* or market segment within which diffusion occurs.

should be augmented to take into account;

7. The role of *marketing* (change agent) actions.
8. The role of competitive actions.

Underlining the fact that individual diffusion adoption decisions are influenced by; a) personal characteristics; b) perceived innovation characteristics; c) personal influence; d) marketing activities; and e) competitive actions, Gatignon and Robertson (1985) suggested that marketing and competitive actions, could not only influence a potential consumers opinion of an innovation, but materially affect the personal influence process. Combining these two new elements, with the results of other studies, Gatignon and Robertson (1985), believed they were able to propose a new, more integrated model of the diffusion process (see Figure 3-3).

Figure 3-3 Gatignon and Robertson's Model of the Diffusion Process



Source: Gatignon and Robertson (1991a) p463.

There are three types of propositions represented in Figure 3-3; a) construct descriptions (e.g. the level of cognitive processing); b) direct causal relationships (e.g. the homogeneity of the social system and the rate of diffusion); and c) interactions between concepts (e.g. the effect of personal influence on adoption is moderated by the level of cognitive processing). The 29 specific propositions used in the model were clustered into six broad diffusion concepts;

1. The adoption process (propositions 1-4).
2. Personal influence and opinion leadership (propositions 5-12).
3. The social system (propositions 13-17).
4. The diffusion process (propositions 18-22).
5. Personal characteristics of innovators (propositions 23-26).
6. Perceived innovation characteristics (propositions 27-29).

Gatignon and Robertson (1985), concluded that due to the lack of sociologically based research in consumer behaviour, the role and effect of personal influence (the most basic, underlying component of diffusion theory and diffusion models), remained poorly understood. Gatignon and Robertson (1985), also found that the assumptions underpinning most of the normative diffusion models, had not been tested by consumer behaviour researchers (Gatignon and Robertson 1991b). And that whilst in the past, investigations into diffusion of innovations had been largely concerned with the direct relationship of main effects and their influence upon adoption, Gatignon and Robertson (1985), suggested that future studies should be empirically based, and should concentrate (amongst other things), upon the effect of interactions amongst the main elements of diffusion constructs, as well as the effects of marketing (change agent) and other competitive activities (Gatignon and Robertson 1991b).

Most recently, Spence (1994), continued to maintain that innovation decision-making was influenced by only two main factors, a) the features of an innovation; and b) the characteristics of the decision-maker. The *rate* of diffusion however, was said to depend upon the product characteristics the consumer perceives, and the social and economic environment in which the innovation is introduced (Assael 1987). Combining both product and environmental issues, Spence (1994) also suggested that cost, complexity, visibility, divisibility, comparability, utility, and collective action, were the main factors related to the success of an innovation. A more detailed discussion of each of these factors follows.

3.4.1 Product Cost and Pricing Issues

The role of price in new product diffusion, has been at the centre of a number of studies (Balasubramanian and Jain 1994; Paich and Sterman 1993; Bhargava et al. 1992; Sillup 1992; Jain and Rao 1990; Horsky 1990; Horsky and Simon 1983). Their main concern was to correct for Bass' (1969) failure to incorporate this important marketing mix variable in the diffusion model. Despite employing distinctly different approaches, they all concluded that pricing policy could have a dramatic effect upon the ultimate rate of adoption. Setting the right price for an innovative product or service, is however, never straightforward. Too high a price, often results in very slow adoption rates. On the other hand, too low an initial price, frequently ends in a boom-bust cycle, with high growth resulting in premature market saturation (Klepper and Graddy 1990). In most cases, an expensive innovation is likely to be adopted more slowly than a relatively cheaper alternative, even if the adopter's eventual return on investment is likely to be comparably higher (Spence 1994).

Raman and Chatterjee (1995), also highlighted the importance of pricing in the diffusion process, and criticised those pricing models which assume that demand for the product (as a function of price), is known with certainty over the complete product life cycle. They recommended, that high-tech firms with innovative products (for

consumer or industrial markets), who operate in dynamic market conditions, should take into account the effects of stochasticity (conditional probability), when developing their pricing policy, particularly where demand is influenced by word-of-mouth.

Finally, in a study of price elasticity dynamics over the adoption life-cycle, Parker (1992) found that price played a significant role in the adoption of innovations. Significantly, price was found to affect the adoption of both low priced (calculators and bed covers), and high priced (televisions and refrigerators), durable goods. Parker (1992), rejected the hypothesis that elasticity increases over the adoption life cycle, and supported general economic theories, that held that substitution may influence adoption elasticity during the latter stages of the adoption life cycle. Parker (1992), also found that the direction of price elasticity dynamics appeared to vary across categories, and that contrary to the findings of earlier studies (Tellis 1988; Tellis and Fornell 1988; Liu and Hassens 1981; Simon 1979), price elasticity appeared to be dynamic over the adoption life cycle. Parker (1992) concluded that the manner in which price affected the diffusion process (via external influence, internal influence, or both), appeared to be product category specific.

3.4.2 Product Complexity

Product complexity is said to materially affect the rate of diffusion of an innovation. Thus, an easy to understand product (or concept), stands a greater chance of adoption, than one which is more complex (Assael 1995; Herbig and Kramer (1994); Chaudhuri 1994; Ziemer (1992); Goslar (1987); Rogers and Shoemaker 1983; Voughn 1980). This view was supported by the findings of Dickerson and Gentry (1983), who reported that adoption of an innovation was significantly higher, when potential adopters already had some knowledge of the innovation. They discovered that users of programmable calculators, were much more interested in emergent personal computer technology, than were other potential adopters, who considered it significantly more complex.

A further investigation into the effect of product complexity upon product adoption, was carried out by Ellen et al. (1991). They believed that on the whole, firms failed to consider the response of the final user when adopting a relatively complex innovation, and held that the investigation into individual resistance to technological innovations, had been to a large extent, discounted. Their study found that self-efficacy (judgements of one's own performance capability in specific settings), and performance satisfaction (positive outcomes from using an existing product or method, creating satisfaction), were significant factors in innovation adoption. Their results established that persons with low levels of self-efficacy, were found to be more resistant to change, than those who felt that they were capable of using the new technology. On the other hand, persons who were not satisfied with their current performance, were significantly more likely to welcome change, than those who were satisfied with current procedures.

Herbig and Kramer (1994), suggested that the pressure of modern life (lack of time and increased stress levels), was a major reason why people tended to shun complex everyday products. Positing that "simplicity will be the keyword for the 1990s", they believed that only companies who succeeded in simplifying rather than complicating their products, would flourish, and those who do not, will inevitably fail. Herbig and Kramer (1994), thus recommend that promotional messages should concentrate on the simplicity and usability of a product, rather than promoting technological advances.

3.4.3 Visibility

It is said, that consumers often resist intangible innovations, because they are uncertain as to how they can satisfy their existing or future needs (Barczack et al. 1992). Assael (1985), also maintained that highly visible products (such as clothing and cars), were more easily diffused than other products. In both these instances, the key factor is that

people have the opportunity to see the product in use, before adopting it themselves. This enables them to assess other factors such as risk, complexity or incompatibility.

Whilst Sudman (1980) concluded that advertising, direct marketing, sales promotion and personal selling, were not particularly effective in overcoming consumer resistance to new, innovative products; both Levy and Weitz (1995) and Morgenstein and Strongin (1992), found that in-store demonstrations were an effective method of increasing the visibility of new products. Trade or consumer exhibitions such as “The Boat Show” and the “The Ideal Home Exhibition”, were also considered excellent for promoting new products (Barczack et al. 1992). Compared to conventional new product promotion tools, they were said to deliver more integrated messages about the new products, due to their use of co-ordinated personal and non-personal information sources (Bonoma 1983; Hanlon 1982).

3.4.4 Divisibility

The ability to try a product before adopting it, was said to significantly enhance the speed of diffusion (Hawkins et al. 1995; Spence (1994); Lowrey 1991). Whilst potential car buyers have the option to road-test, or even hire an innovative new concept (such as an electric car or multipurpose vehicle), the same cannot be said for potentially irreversible medical procedures such as laser treatment for myopia. Here the risk is not only financial, but often irreversible. At the other end of the risk scale, new food products can be tried relatively easily. The practice of offering trial sized jars of instant coffee, small pots of paint for decorating the home, and even a period of free access to the Internet are but three examples of how trial can help to reduce risk.

3.4.5 Compatibility

Innovations which that are compatible or consistent with an individual’s or organisation’s values and beliefs, have been found to have a faster rate of diffusion

than any other (Kitchell 1995; Prendergast and Marr 1994; Rubenstein 1994; Shelly 1994; Herbig and Cramer 1993; Tiffin and Osotimehin 1992; Herbig and Day 1992). High profile failures such as Coca Cola's "Classic Coke", Levi's "Tailored Classics" and the Sinclair C5 electric vehicle, were all innovative ideas which consumers felt were incompatible with existing values, experiences and needs.

Often, the rate of adoption is affected by previously introduced ideas. Robertson and Gatignon (1986), suggested that compatibility and standardisation were intertwined and that the sooner a technology becomes the standard in its field (e.g. QWERTY keyboards), the quicker consumers perceived risk of buying the wrong standard declines. Herbig and Day (1992), also felt that the more compatible an innovation was with the previous idea it is attempting to supersede, the less risk the customer was likely to perceive, thus resulting in a quicker rate of diffusion.

Brokaw and Lakshman (1995) submitted that the diffusion of innovation in international markets, can be significantly affected by factors outside the control of firms such as culture, economic, geographic, legal and the political environment. And, for example, innovations which were insensitive to accepted cultural norms, were unlikely to be readily adopted (Chaudhuri 1994; Shelly 1994; Tansuhaj et al. 1991; Takada and Jain 1991).

Compatibility with corporate culture, and in particular their readiness to adapt to a changing environment, can also affect innovation adoption (Kitchell 1995; Deshpande et al. 1993). Kitchell (1995) found that "adaptive companies", actively foster innovation search, and quickly assimilate new technologies. Companies that did not cultivate this type of cultural norm, were found to be less able to change themselves or evolve with their environments, and as such were most likely to fail (Weick 1979).

3.4.6 Utility / Relative Advantage

Innovations which were considered to offer significant improvements over existing products, were again likely to be adopted much quicker, than those which are considered to be little more than gimmicks (Parker 1994). Adoption usually taking place, once the relative advantage of the product had been established (Moore 1994; Herbig and Cramer 1993; Eastlick 1993).

In a study of the innovation sponsor - adopter gap, Cavaye (1995) stated that typically, sponsors of information technology (IT) innovations, did not engage in any detailed financial justification before developing the product. A typical IT adopter on the other hand, was found to employ cost/benefit analysis for financial justification and often required *immediate* benefits before deciding to adopt.

Finally, Day and Herbig (1990) contested the assumption that customers have the choice whether or not to adopt an innovation. They found that in many instances, industrial firms had no choice, as they were often compelled to innovate in order to remain competitive.

3.4.7 Innovation Decision-Making and Collective Action

Whilst most decisions to adopt or reject innovations are made at individual level, some require group decision-making (Spence 1994). This arises most often in organisational decision-making (Twede (1992)).

Gupta and Rogers (1991), forwarded four distinctly different types of decision-making:

1. The individual-optional decision (where the decision is made by an individual “independent of the decisions of other members of a system”).
2. The authority decision (where the decision is made by relatively few individuals in a system who “possess power, status or expertise”).
3. Contingent decisions (made only after a prior innovation-decision).
4. Collective decisions (made by consensus among the members of a system).

Gupta and Rogers (1991) further submitted, that many organisational decisions involve all four types, and believed this to be the reason why the rate of adoption within organisations, was often slow.

3.5 Developments in Diffusion of Innovation Theory

Over time, diffusion of innovation theory has been further developed and refined. However, in recent times research has become increasingly introspective. Mahajan, Muller, and Srivastava (1990) argued over the fundamental issue that the adopters called “innovators” in the Bass model, should not be called innovators, because they are not necessarily the first adopters of an innovation as defined by Rogers (1962). In the same paper they went on to suggest that if one adopts the same analytical logic used in the Rogers model to generate the five adopter categories to the Bass model, a very similar five unit categorisation paradigm developed.

Continuing this introspective theme, Tanny and Derzko (1988) criticised the communication structure in the Bass model, suggesting that it was incomplete. For example, they stated that both potential innovators and potential imitators could be influenced by mass-media. Others (Hiebert 1974; Stoneman 1981; Feder and O'Mara

1982; Jensen 1982; Oren and Schwartz 1988; Chatterjee and Eliashberg 1989; Lattin and Roberts 1989), undertook further developmental research into the diffusion models, and forwarded various arguments for analysing adoption decisions at the individual level, as opposed to the accepted tenet in both Rogers and Bass models, that all potential adopters are ready to adopt at the same time. This was patently not the case, as the decision to adopt a new product was individual specific (heterogeneous), as opposed to group specific (homogeneous), Mahajan, Muller and Bass (1990). A revised model, which conceptualised diffusion as a three-stage process (potential adopters - waiting adopters - adopters), had earlier been forwarded by Jain, Mahajan and Muller (1989).

Kalish (1985), Mahajan and Peterson (1978), Lackman (1978), Sharif and Ramanathan (1981), all contested Bass' (1969) assumption that the market potential of a new product is determined at the time of introduction, and that it remains unchanged over its entire life. In their opinion, they considered that was not based upon sound theory, and that (being closely linked with the potential adopter population), market potential was constantly changing. By developing extensions to the basic Bass model (in order to account for both controllable and uncontrollable external and internal market growth variables), Mahajan and Peterson (1978), Kalish (1985) and Horsky (1990), remedied this apparent omission.

Peterson and Mahajan (1978) criticised the Bass (1969) model, because of its assumption that the adoption of an innovation does not; a) complement; b) substitute for; c) detract from; or d) enhance the adoption of, any other innovation. They concluded that innovations were neither introduced into a vacuum, nor did they exist in isolation and that adoption / non-adoption of an innovation often depended upon having adopted other (earlier), innovations (e.g. computer software and computer hardware). On a similar theme Norton and Bass (1987), suggested that the initial model needed to take into account the fact that the nature of an innovation also changes

over time. Citing developments in integrated circuit (IC) technology, they extended the model by taking in to account the effect of word-of-mouth and substitution / cannibalisation consequences across successive IC generations.

The fact that all diffusion models accepted (by default), that the geographic boundaries of the social system do not change over the diffusion process, was also regarded as being a weakness (Mahajan and Peterson 1979; Brown 1981). This was clearly illustrated by Mahajan and Peterson (1979), in their study of the adoption patterns of agricultural tractors in 25 US states during the period 1920-1964. There, they found a significant “neighbourhood effect”, where adoptions were occurring in neighbouring markets, as well as in the one chosen for introduction. Significantly, the further away one went from the intended market, the fewer neighbourhood adoptions there were.

Dodson and Muller (1978), criticised the fact that most innovation models were binary in nature. Innovations were treated as either having been adopted or not adopted. Their argument, was that this did not take into account other stages in the adoption process, such as awareness, knowledge etc. Their work tried to extend the basic model (with limited success due to inherent complexities), by incorporating the polynomial aspects of the diffusion process.

A fundamental flaw in the development of diffusion theories, was that of omitting to clearly define the influence of marketing strategies in the models. It was argued though, that the impact of marketing mix variables have already been incorporated into the Bass model (due to the fact that it already contained the three parameters of; coefficients of external influence, internal influence, and market potential). However, Kamakura and Balasubramanian (1988) and Jain and Rao (1989), showed that price affects the rate of diffusion (via the rates of external and internal influence), in a rather more significant way than market potential, and empirical studies undertaken by

Horsky and Simon (1983), and Simon and Sebastian (1987), showed that whilst advertising provided information to innovators, it also *influenced* innovators. They therefore maintained, that the coefficient of external influence in the Bass model should be represented as a function of advertising expenditure. And that even though advertising may influence innovators (and hence the coefficient of external influence), in the early stage of the product life cycle, it is more likely to influence the coefficient of imitation, in the intermediate life cycle stage of a new product. In their study, Simon and Sebastian (1987), also found the advertising effect to be cumulative over time, stating that this was yet another factor not properly accounted for in most diffusion models. The Bass (1969) model was also challenged by Simon and Sebastian (1987), because it was considered purely a demand based model. It therefore did not take into account any disturbances in the supply-side, which may have affected the diffusion process.

Diffusion models, have in the past, been criticised for not explicitly influencing the impact of product and market *characteristics* on diffusion patterns. Empirical studies have in fact shown these factors to have a significant impact (Rogers 1983; Tornatzky and Klein 1982).

The fact that the Bass model was based upon first-time buyers and not repeat buyers, was also seen as a major omission, given that for many product innovations the increase in the number of adopters ,may consist of both first-time buyers and repeat buyers (Mahajan, Wind and Sharma 1983). Norton and Bass (1987) corrected for this by assuming that adopters continue to buy, and that the average repeat buying rate over the population of adopters remained constant.

A new model of organisational adoption and diffusion of innovations was proposed by Frambach (1993). Drawing from the literature on innovation management and

industrial marketing, Frambach (1993) concluded that rapid adoption was positively correlated with; 1) the availability, quality and value of the information provided by the seller; 2) targeting companies who had a greater capability to process and absorb information about innovations; 3) the relative advantage, compatibility, trialability and observability of the innovation; 4) the degree of competitiveness within an industry; 5) businesses who actively support research and development, and produce unique and superior products in the eyes of adopters; and 6) suppliers who understand the needs of the customer and actively involve them during development. Product complexity, uncertainty surrounding adoption, and expectations of fast technological development were considered to be negatively related to rate of adoption. Frambach (1993) stated that the success of an innovation was clearly dependant upon a large number of influential factors, and that ultimately, non-adoption may well be as attributable to the supplier marketing the innovation, as it could the decision-making unit considering it for adoption.

Criticising much of innovation diffusion theory for focusing upon industrial innovations rather than goods and services amongst general consumers, Prendergast and Marr (1994), took an original approach to Rogers' (1962), concept of innovation discontinuance (previously re-visited by Rogers and Shoemaker 1971). Prendergast and Marr (1994), however, decided to investigate the specific area of disenchantment discontinuance (where the decision to discontinue using a product, or service after adoption, is as a result of dissatisfaction with its performance), rather than replacement discontinuance (where the decision to discontinue occurs because a product or idea is superseded). However, in their study, Prendergast and Marr (1994), found that because of market saturation, disenchantment discontinuity was not a significant factor in consumer rejection of electronic fund transfer at point of sale (EFTPOS), or the use of automatic teller machines (ATM). Here, Prendergast and Marr (1994) concluded that conventional diffusion theory was more appropriate, than disenchantment discontinuance.

3.5.1 Recent Empirical Studies Employing Diffusion of Innovation Theory

Duke (1990), employed Rogers' (1962) diffusion of innovation theory, to better understand the reasons behind the success and failure of two competing innovations; videotape and laservision. Duke (1990) concluded that when measured against Rogers' (1962) five factors for successful adoption (relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, divisibility and communicability), laservision's inability to record, lack of compatibility with other formats, impression of complexity, and lack of rental market support, meant that failure was inevitable.

The original Bass (1969) model was employed by Takada and Jain (1991), as a tool for analysing cross-national differences in the diffusion of air conditioning units, washing machines and calculators, in Pacific Rim countries. There, they found that culture, the communications system, time and (particularly) imitation, to have been very influential in the adoption process. They also discovered that a marketing manager wishing to enter a newly industrialised country (or other Asian markets), with a product which has already proven to be successful in the home market, would find that (due to imitation), it would be adopted at a much faster rate, than had been the case in its home market.

The effects of culture upon diffusion of innovations, was also examined by Wills et al. (1991). Suggesting that most diffusion studies had taken place in homogeneous settings, they found that few comparative studies had been undertaken amongst sub-cultures, or indeed completely different cultures. Given that involvement and learning were crucial factors in the purchase process, they posited that for the same product in different cultures; a) the level of involvement; b) the speed and level of learning; c) the mode of learning; and d) the cultural context, could all significantly affect the rate of diffusion. Wills et al. (1991) held, that proponents of global marketing strategies, often failed to adapt their offerings to varying local needs, wants and behaviours. However,

by simultaneously considering the four critical dimensions (outlined above), global products could be successfully adjusted for local markets.

Based upon Rogers' (1962) and Bass' (1969) diffusion theories, Lowrey (1991) employed a qualitative approach, to the study of innovation adoption of consumer electronics (specifically television, home audio and telephone communications sectors). Lowrey (1991) reported that the ability to try the product before adoption (either in-store or with a friend's acquisition), was *the* most salient aspect of the overall process. The lack of compatibility with existing needs, and lack of relative advantage, were said to be the main causes of delay in adoption, whilst non-compatibility with existing values, was considered to be a major factor in non-adoption.

West and Sinclair (1992), employed diffusion of innovation theory, to measure innovativeness amongst firms in the household furniture industry. Observing adoption behaviour over a set of innovations (methodology taken from Midgley and Dowling 1978), they found that it was possible to segment firms into two groups (innovators and non-innovators). They found that innovators differed significantly from non innovators on a number of factors such as firm size, technological expertise, technological progressiveness, opinion leadership, information sources and the cosmopolitanism of the decision-making unit. They suggest that this information could be used by commercial and governmental agencies, as a way of targeting a range of innovations at those companies most likely to adopt.

The adoption of new medical technology in the healthcare industry, using the Bass (1969) diffusion model, was investigated by Sillup (1992). The products investigated were; computed tomography scanners (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), ultrasound, hemodialysis and lithotripsy. Where unit sales data was available from launch to date (CT, MRI and lithotripsy), the Bass (1969) model was found to be

reliable. Where sales data was incomplete (as with ultrasound, and hemodialysis), over-projection or under-projection of initial sales caused problems, particularly when determining relative market size. Nevertheless, it was felt that the model could be reliably applied in forecasting adoption of a variety of medical technologies-based durable equipment.

The diffusion in the Indonesian market, of palm oil for use in industrial fried food production was investigated by Chaudhuri (1994). Employing a case study approach, Chaudhuri (1994), was able to confirm that diffusion occurred largely as Rogers' (1962 and 1983), predicted. In the case of palm oil, the speed of diffusion was enhanced because; a) change agent effort had been particularly strong in the early stages of the diffusion process; b) the product was superior to coconut oil, on both price and performance measures (relative advantage); and c) the product was easily demonstrated and tested (trial and observability). Despite the fact that palm oil solidified at low temperature (something that coconut oil did not do), word-of-mouth communications and product demonstrations, overcame resistance to change. Chaudhuri's (1994) main criticism of Rogers' (1962 and 1983) diffusion models, was that they did not take into account the role of product price (relative to the competition), in the diffusion process. In the highly competitive Indonesian commercial cooking oil market, this was found to be a major factor affecting adoption.

The influence of price in diffusion, was recently addressed by Bass et al. (1994). The original Bass (1969) diffusion model, was re-examined, and (for the first time), it was decided to include two decision variables, price and advertising. When compared against the original model, the predictive nature of the new "generalised" model, was found to significantly improved. Despite this, Bass et al. (1994) maintained that for the vast majority of cases, the relatively simple Bass (1969) model, was just as effective.

Most studies in diffusion of innovations, concentrate upon consumer adoption. Parthasarathy et al. (1994), believed that the role (and growing power), of channel intermediaries such as retailers, had not been properly examined, nor accounted for. Criticising as a “restrictive assumption”, the presumption that an innovation is available to all potential adopters (see Gatignon and Robertson 1985), Parthasarathy et al. (1994) held that retailer resistance to an innovation, could significantly impede its supply to consumers, thus influencing product adoption behaviour. Advancing their theory of *dual diffusion*, Parthasarathy et al. (1994) submit that diffusion models, need to take into account the fact that products need to initially be adopted by channel members, and then by consumers.

Building upon the work of Conner and Rumelt (1991), Givon et al. (1995) employed the Bass (1969) diffusion model, to investigate the effects of software piracy. Their main aim was to estimate both lost sales, and the long term impact that piracy had on software diffusion. They reported that (when compared to industry data), the model’s estimate of the number of pirated software in the marketplace, was very close to that reported by the industry.

Finally, Evans (1995) used a modified Bass (1969) model, to examine the diffusion of athletic shoes amongst 120 undergraduate business school students. By incorporating attitudes and imitation measures into Bass’ (1969) original model, Evans (1995) found that forecasting the rate of diffusion could be significantly improved.

3.6 Parallel Developments in Diffusion of Innovation Theory

Investigations into innovative behaviour and new product adoption / diffusion models, whilst often clearly influenced by Rogers’ (1962) and Bass’ (1969) seminal studies; have not always employed the same methodology or modelling techniques. This

section broadens the discussion, seeking to give the reader a more complete picture of overall research activity.

Midgley (1976), developed a simple mathematical theory of innovative behaviour, based upon differential equations drawn from mathematical epidemiology. Arguing that innovation behaviour was inherently more complex than epidemiology, he was against producing an abstract stochastic theory which could not be tested against reality. Favouring a more deterministic approach, consumer panels were employed to measure the adoption of toothpaste, confectionery, detergent and biscuits. The results showed, that even the most simple of diffusion models (a two or three parameter growth model), would have compared reasonably well against the empirical data.

Sinha and Chandrashekar (1992), investigated the reliability of their split hazard model, for analysing the diffusion of innovations. Based upon the work of Schmidt and Witte (1989), it included both the probability and timing of adoption by 3,689 individual banking firms, of Automatic Teller Machines (ATM's). The researchers found that similar to other split hazard log-normal models (such as Bass 1969), the predictive ability of their model outperformed those based upon the work of Mansfield (1961). They concluded that such models would be invaluable to marketers when segmenting markets, as they could concentrate their marketing efforts, on those particular variables which had the effect of hastening the adoption decision.

Chandrashekar and Sinha (1995), were concerned with what they considered to be a number of apparently inherent flaws in existing diffusion models (such as an assumption of single-unit purchase, ignored repeat purchase behaviour and the impact of covariates on, for example, organisational innovativeness). They took a notably different, Split Population Tobit (SPOT), duration model approach, for determining timing and volume of first and repeat purchase of innovations. Testing their theories

against empirical investigation of personal computer adoption in 2,126 firms, the SPOT model was found to be consistently better at estimating adoption rates, than more traditional split hazard models developed from Bass (1969). Accepting that their SPOT model required further development, the authors concluded that econometric models based on individual-level process descriptions, performed better than models that focused purely on aggregate models. These suggested a degree of individual-level process homogeneity, that was considered unlikely to exist in the real world.

A model for predicting adoption and brand switching, based upon a Markovian stochastic process, was forwarded by Weerahandi and Moitra (1995). A relatively complex model, it incorporated for the effects of diffusion, customer heterogeneity and brand switching. A study of customer switching, between two telecommunications services (PBX and Centrex), was used to test the model. The results were compared against far less complex Bass (1969), and Vilcassim and Jain (1991) models. The results proved that the model worked well, and was found to be significantly better than Bass (1969), and far superior to Vilcassim and Jain's (1991) model. Weerahandi and Moitra (1995), stated that their findings had a number of managerial implications for market analysts and planners, particularly in sectors where (as in the telecommunications and service industries), there was more than one service provider. In conclusion, they felt that as they found a greater inertia against innovation adoption, rather than against brand switching, a strategy aimed at increasing the awareness of *benefits* to new customers (such as cost savings, better customer service and enhanced capabilities), would be the most effective.

Concerned with the proliferation of new diffusion models, developed and applied specifically for marketing, Parker (1994) also questioned the reliability of such models for forecasting purposes. The fact that there were so many (all with different specifications), meant that it was not easy for other researchers to know which one was most appropriate. Attempting to remedy the situation, Parker (1994) categorised them

as; a) first purchase diffusion models (such as Fourt and Woodlock 1960; Bass 1969); b) micro-level diffusion models (see for example, Hiebert 1974; Chatterjee and Eliashberg 1990); and c) repeat purchase extensions (see for example Mahajan et al. 1991; Parker 1991). Amongst the many areas for future research also suggested by Parker (1994), were; 1) a rigorous and systematic evaluations of diffusion models as applied forecasting tools (see also Mahajan et al. 1988); 2) studying the basic validity of the diffusion parameters, and the factors which were said to determine their levels (see Parker and Gatignon 1992; 1994); and 3) extending diffusion studies so as to be able to forecast international or geographic diffusion processes (see Douglas and Craig 1992; Gatignon et al. 1989).

3.7 The Role of Personal Influence in Diffusion of Innovations

Considered a relationship involving two or more persons, in a social system, Merton (1957), defined personal influence as communication, involving a face-to-face exchange between the communicator and the receiver, which results in changed behaviour (or attitudes), on the part of the receiver. Opinion leaders were therefore categorised as, persons “who exert personal influence upon a certain number of other people in certain situations” (Merton 1957). One of the first to examine the role and efficacy of product-related conversations in the diffusion of innovations was Johan Arndt. In his study of the diffusion of a new food product amongst a population of students in a married student apartment complex, Arndt (1967), found that exposure to favourable word-of-mouth information, significantly increased the probability of purchase. Similarly, negative word-of-mouth comments significantly decreased adoption. In a recent meta-analysis of applications of diffusion models, Sultan et al. (1990), found that that of the 213 studies they examined, the diffusion process had been affected more by factors such as word-of-mouth, than by the “innate innovativeness of consumers”. In the author’s opinion, despite empirical support confirming its efficacy, the power of word-of-mouth communications in the process of the diffusion of innovations, remains somewhat underestimated (and undervalued), by

practitioners (Czepiel 1975). Therefore in this section, the author will examine in more detail, the role of personal influence and particularly that of word-of-mouth, in the diffusion of innovations process.

3.7.1 Opinion Leadership Theory

It is widely acknowledged, that the power and effect of opinion leadership was first highlighted in a study of the 1940 United States of America Presidential election, by Lazarsfeld et al. (1948). The opinion leader category which was discovered, was found to occupy an influential role, positioned as it was between the mass media and the electorate. Lazarsfeld et al. (1948), suggested that “ideas often flow from radio and print, to opinion leaders, and from these to the less active sections of the populations”. Opinion leaders, were thus seen as being instrumental in brokering information between those standing for election, and the voters, and were consequently considered to have significantly affected voting patterns.

Numerous investigations into the role and importance of opinion leaders, promptly followed those of Lazarsfeld et al. (1948). Lionberger (1951), found that personal influence was much more important in the adoption of farm innovations (amongst low income farmers in Missouri), than impersonal mass media sources such as radio and farm magazines. In a study of Indian farming communities, Rahudkar (1958) found a similar pattern of behaviour. There, neighbour-to-neighbour communication, was found to be of greater importance in the diffusion of farm innovations, than any other communications channel.

Opinion leadership theory was further tested by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955), who went on to verify the validity of opinion leadership in a variety of other areas such as food, fashion, household goods and cinema-going. Beal and Rogers (1957), also found that word-of-mouth communications was more important than any other type of information source, in convincing Iowa homemakers to purchase synthetic fibres.

Rogers and Cartano (1962), suggested that the outcome of most of the studies that had been carried out had “convinced most students of diffusion that it is impossible to ignore social relations in the communication of ideas”. They went on to cite Katz (1960), who stated that rural sociologists were prudent in never assuming that farmers did not talk to each other, a fact that had been often overlooked by other communications researchers. Katz (1960), suggested that those who undertook communications research should alter their image of society from “that of a mass of disconnected individuals, to a body of interacting persons interconnected by lines of personal influence and opinion leadership”.

Research into opinion leadership had developed sufficiently for Rogers and Cartano (1962), to begin the process of synthesising three generalisations for the activity of opinion leaders:

1. That “opinion leaders deviate less from group norms than the average group member”. They went on to suggest that in previous studies (Marsh and Coleman 1954; Rogers and Burdge 1962), farmer opinion leaders in progressive neighbourhoods were “much more innovative than their followers”. However, in a more traditional social system, opinion leaders were found to be “only slightly more innovative than their followers”.
2. That “there is little overlap among the different types of opinion leaders”. This was based upon Merton’s (1957), theory that opinion leaders may differ in terms of their breadth of their spheres of influence, and that opinion leaders on a single topic could be termed as monomorphic (experts on a single field), and that those with many areas of interests, polymorphic (experts in several fields). Katz came to a similar conclusion in his review of the two step flow hypothesis (Katz 1957). In that same paper, Ryan and Gross (1943) and Emory and Oser (1958), were also cited as supporting the general view, that opinion leaders are “usually monomorphic”. This view was also sustained by Lionberger (1959) in a review of the literature on the diffusion of agricultural innovations, where it was said that “unlike findings from the urban situation, influentials in farming seem to be influentials in more than one

thing". Lionberger (1959), went on to offer the hypothesis that "the more secular the action and thinking of the people, the more likely influence is to be exercised on a monomorphic basis". Merton (1957) suggested that the sphere of influence was closely linked to the social orientation of opinion leaders, with "locals" more likely to be polymorphic, and "cosmopolitans" monomorphic. In support of these views, Rogers and Cartano (1962), proposed that "in systems with more traditional norms, opinion leaders are more likely to be polymorphic". And suggested that the "separation of roles in a more developed society", cause people to have a narrower range of experience, than was the case in a more traditional society.

3. That opinion leaders differed from their followers in "information sources, cosmopolitanism, social status and innovativeness". This argument was based upon a series of earlier studies, which found that; a) opinion leaders tended to use "more impersonal and more technically accurate sources of information" (Lionberger 1951; Menzel and Katz 1955; Rahim 1961); b) opinion leaders tended to be "more cosmopolitan in their communication behaviour and social relationships" (Lionberger 1951; Katz 1957); c) there was a tendency for opinion leaders to "participate more in both formal and informal organisations" (Katz 1957; Rahim 1961); d) "opinion leaders have higher social status" (Lionberger and Coughenour 1957; Lionberger 1959)

As the theory evolved, the original three generalisations were further developed, and diverse insights into the specific factors which characterise opinion leaders, were proffered. These split into four distinct areas:

1. Where the influence that they had amongst a population was considered the determining factor (Rogers 1983; Engel and Blackwell 1982).
2. Where product knowledge marked them out as reference points within a population (Assael 1984).
3. Where information transmission was considered most important (Hawkins et al. 1983).

4. Where no one specific factor was considered dominant, but where all three of the above cited factors were combined to a greater or lesser degree (Midgely 1976; Robertson et al. 1984).

The most significant factor which was said to distinguish opinion leaders from all other categories of word-of-mouth influencers, was however, the fact that they were considered to be significantly involved with the product with which they were associated (Bloch and Richins 1983). This was most recently underlined by Chan and Misra (1990), who reported that product familiarity and personal involvement were factors which were significant in distinguishing opinion leaders from non-leaders. Because of this, opinion leadership was considered to be product class specific (Feick and Price 1987).

3.7.2 Opinion Leadership Measurement - The Self-Designation Method.

At this point, the author considered it timely to include a brief discussion of the development of scales used in order to measure opinion leadership, concentrating upon the self-designation method refined by Rogers and Cartano (1962), and further modified by Feick and Price (1987) for use in identifying *market mavens*.

The methods employed to measure opinion leadership have remained essentially unchanged since the 1950's. Lionberger (1953) employed the sociometric approach, where a researcher would ask members of a social system (a group of Missouri farmers in this instance), whom they would go to for advice or information about a new idea or technique. This approach was founded in the rural sociology tradition of research, and was said to work well in small communities when the researcher can interview all the members of the social system in question. The fact that the respondents all know each other is crucial, and the technique worked best where there were a relatively small number of opinion leaders Lionberger (1953). Rogers and Cartano (1962), concluded however, that whilst it had historically been *the* most popular method of identifying

opinion leaders, the fact that it was not suitable for administering to small samples of much larger populations, was a significant limiting factor.

The second main technique employed to identify opinion leaders, was the key informants method. Relying purely upon the subjective judgement of the researcher, key informants were selected from within a small social system and asked to designate the opinion leaders amongst them (Rogers and Cartano 1962). A cheaper alternative to the sociometric technique (with which it shared many of its drawbacks), it was again only really applicable when studying small social systems.

The third technique was that of self-designation. Developed by researchers / academics over a number of years (Lazarsfeld 1944; Lazarsfeld 1948; Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955; Ableson and Rugg 1958; Rogers and Cartano 1962), it involved asking a respondent a series of questions which would determine the degree to which he perceived himself to be an opinion leader. Rogers and Cartano (1962) suggested that the main advantage that this technique had over those previously discussed, was that it “measures the individual’s perception of the opinion leadership situation, which is actually what affects his behaviour”. The main disadvantage however, was the reliance on the ability of respondents to both accurately assess, and reliably report, the degree to which they considered *themselves* to be opinion leaders.

Critical of Lazarsfeld et al. (1948) for only using two questions in the original political opinion leadership scale, Rogers and Cartano (1962) not only modified the original questions, but added a further four. This developed into the classic six item self-designating opinion leadership scale which has been used (with minor modifications to suit particular applications), as the backbone of many opinion leadership studies to date.

The original six scale items developed to study the diffusion of new farm ideas amongst Ohio farmers (Rogers 1961) were;

1. During the past six months have you told anyone about some new farming practice?
2. Compared with your circle of friends are you (a) more or (b) less likely to be asked for advice about new farming practices?
3. Thinking back to your last discussion about some new farming practice, (a) were you asked for your opinion of the new practice or (b) did you ask someone else?
4. When you and your friends discuss new ideas about farm practices, what part do you play? (a) Mainly listen or (b) try to convince them of your ideas?
5. Which of these happens more often, (a) you tell your neighbours about some new farm practice, or (b) they tell you about a new practice?
6. Do you have the feeling that you are generally regarded by your neighbours as a good source of advice about new farm practices?

This technique was a major breakthrough in opinion leadership research, in that it was relatively easy to manage / administrate, and above all was not reliant on respondents intimate knowledge of a small social system. It was a method which could be administered amongst a small sample, the results of which could readily and reliably be extrapolated amongst a larger population.

3.7.3 Innovators/Early Adopter (Purchaser) Theory

In this section, the author will discuss both the role, and development, of innovator / early adopter theory in the diffusion of innovations.

In terms of consumer behaviour, the influence of early purchasers is considered to be either passive or active. In the case of visible products such as clothing or cars, a great

deal of information can be conveyed purely by seeing the product being used by early purchasers (typically innovators / early adopters). This is therefore the passive transmission of information. On the other hand, active information transmission often occurs when innovators / early adopters enter into product related conversations, with other potential adopters (Midgley and Dowling 1978; Feick and Price 1987).

Feick and Price (1987), stated that earlier empirical studies (Arndt 1967; Lambert 1972), found that there was sufficient evidence to substantiate the basic theory that early adopters talk about products. They also cited work carried out by Engel et al. (1969), in which it was found that early adopters talked about products for specifically product related reasons, and that Baumgarten (1975) not only confirmed these earlier findings, but went on to underline the influence that certain early adopters had on the adoption process. Feick and Price (1987) also suggested that early adopters talked about specific products because of; a) their novelty value; b) the desire to be seen as a pioneer; or c) the involvement and expertise that comes from experiencing the product.

Finally, in a recent study of fashion innovators and opinion leaders, Stanforth (1995) also found that innovators played a pivotal role in fashion cycles. Adopting new fashion items well before the majority of other consumers were willing to take the risk, they were considered to be vital initial adopters of innovative new fashions.

3.7.4 General Marketplace Influencer Theory -The Market Maven Construct

Feick and Price (1987) contested previously held assumptions that; a) one could understand the most influential facets of interpersonal information exchanges, by studying *only* opinion leaders and early adopters; and b) that it is possible to understand interpersonal information usage by examining interpersonal exchanges *within* discrete product classes - and then by aggregating the results *across* product classes, assume that it is possible to obtain a picture of interpersonal influence.

Citing the work of Kassarian (1981), Feick and Price (1987) submitted that “certain individuals may be consistently more involved in marketplace activities”, than either opinion leaders or innovators / early adopters. This behaviour was felt to be characterised by;

1. A propensity to window shop (Hirschman 1980, Raju 1980).
2. To be measurably more careful and concerned in making purchase decisions (Thorelli, Becker and Engeldow 1975; Thorelli and Thorelli 1977).
3. A heightened awareness of the marketplace (knowing where to shop for certain items, where to go to obtain the best price and which outlets are having sales (Slama and Tashchian 1985).
4. A greater degree of purchase involvement (Slama and Tashchian 1985).

Feick and Price (1987) suggested that individuals who behaved in this particular manner, belonged to a new category of internal word-of-mouth information diffusers, which they termed *market mavens*.

Setting them apart from opinion leaders and innovators / early adopters, Feick and Price (1987) stated that the definition of a *market maven* “does not require that these individuals be early purchasers of products or necessarily even users of products about which they have information”. Defining them as “individuals who have information about many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of markets, and initiate discussions with consumers and respond to requests from consumers for market information”. Feick and Price (1987), went on to state that the definition was comparable to that of the opinion leader, in that influence “derives from knowledge and expertise”. However the significant difference was that *market maven* expertise was not product specific, their influence being based more upon “general *market* expertise”.

However, citing earlier studies on the overlap between the early adopter and opinion leader categories (Summers 1970; Summers 1971; Baumgarten 1975; Feldman and Armstrong 1975; and more recently supported by the work of Chan and Misra 1990), Feick and Price (1987) acknowledged that *market mavens* could not be completely ruled out as early purchasers and / or opinion leaders. In particular when; a) the *market maven's* very marketplace expertise (lead them to market awareness of new products, thus increasing their likelihood of being early adopters); and b) the *market maven's* propensity to acquire in-depth information on selected products (was said to increase the likelihood that *market mavens* could also be considered to be opinion leaders).

Since Feick and Price's (1987) seminal work, *market maven* research has slowly gathered pace. Price et al. (1988) concluded that *market mavens* did not behave in an impulsive manner when shopping. The fact that they made shopping lists, used advertising as a way of planning their grocery shopping, budgeted carefully and used coupons suggesting that they were motivated by a "desire to make smart buys".

Slama and Williams (1990) studied *market mavens'* information provision across a variety of different product categories, and that (part from minor variations), they found little evidence of selectivity.

Slama et al. (1993) found that *market mavens* had an increased propensity to complain about products or services than non-mavens, concluding that (given the amount of time and effort they took to make "smart buying decisions"), *market mavens* were particularly prone to grudge holding, even years after a particular incident. They suggested that firms recognise that complainers are likely to be *market mavens*, and that (given their role of diffuser of general marketplace information), to treat them in anything less than an exemplary manner, would be costly in the long term.

Market mavens' attitude to direct mail as a source of information was investigated by Schnieder and Roberts (1993). They found that attitudes towards direct mail as a source of information about products and markets, was moderately related to *market maven* status. *Market mavens* were found both to receive more direct mail publications and have more positive attitudes to them, than other consumers. The authors recommended that *market mavens* be used to; a) promote and legitimise direct mail as an appropriate shopping method to consumers who are currently sceptical; b) promote and bring legitimacy to a specific direct marketer by promoting them as dependable and trustworthy; and c) be used to stimulate word-of-mouth communication about the direct marketing company (or product), within their respective social group.

Employing the Brisoux and Laroche (1980) framework for brand categorisation, Elliott and Warfield (1993) found that *market mavens* consistently had larger; a) salient (unaided recall); b) aware (aided recall); c) trial; and d) hold (undecided) sets, than other consumers. Significantly, Elliott and Warfield (1993) reported that the observed behaviour, held true for a wide range of products, of varying levels of involvement.

Williams and Slama (1995) investigated the *market maven's* buying decision patterns. They found that *market mavens* were firstly, less likely to purchase products on impulse or out of habit, and secondly, more likely to evaluate both the retail outlet and the product brand (using a variety of evaluative criteria), than non-mavens. Notably, they reported *market mavens'* criteria relating to the functional quality of products, as being more important to them than "more emotional or less substantive criteria". Retailers and manufacturers were therefore advised to emphasis value and service, rather than image or location, when targeting *market mavens*.

Finally, Price et al. (1995) investigated the reasons why people provide marketplace assistance to others. Having analysed altruism, marketplace involvement and collectivist consumer tendencies, they found that the greater the consumer's level of altruistic motivation the more likely they were to help others. They also found that the *market maven* construct was particularly highly correlated with market helping

behaviour. The authors suggested that public policy-makers could encourage market helping behaviour by appealing to *market mavens'* altruistic tendencies, thus stimulating faster diffusion.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has covered the topic of innovations and the factors that can affect their diffusion, such as product complexity, trialability, compatibility, observability, relative advantage and marketing actions. Adoptions due to external factors (advertising), and internal factors (word-of-mouth) were compared, and whilst advertising was found to be important in creating awareness, actual adoption was said to be more likely to occur as a result of engaging in product-related conversations with other members of the reference group (word-of-mouth).

Until relatively recently, opinion leaders were considered to be the only source of reference for members of a “traditional” social system. They were considered brokers of information who were consulted by others rather than offering unsolicited advice. Their influence was often based upon factors such as social status, experience and age. These were all factors which tended to enhance their source credibility. However, opinion leaders were said to be product-category or activity-group specific. The fact that they tended to specialise on discrete topics / issues, meant that their source credibility this was prone to rapidly diminish, the less knowledge and experience (of the particular issue in question), the opinion leader was perceived to have. The role of innovators in the diffusion of innovations process, was a relatively recent discovery (Rogers 1962). However, in most cases, they were not considered to be as reliable as opinion leaders. Their increased propensity for risk-taking, in an almost reckless desire to be seen as a pioneer, was said to significantly affect their source credibility. Feick and Princes' (1987) *market maven* construct (a new category of internal word-of-mouth information diffuser), seemed to bridge the gap between opinion leaders and innovators. *Market mavens* were said to differ from the other two “information seeker”

categories, in that; a) their knowledge was not necessarily based upon personal adoption; b) they were believed to have information about many kinds of products; and c) they were especially active in the accumulation of general marketplace information.

A considerable amount of new product information is often exchanged during normal group interactions. Communications within groups is often the only source of information about certain products. Whilst opinion leaders and innovators can often provide much of the information required, their influence is often reduced because of concerns about their source credibility. Feick and Price's (1987), new *market maven* category of information seeker, seemed to be less susceptible to such criticism.

Overall, *market mavens* seemed to be an exciting new type of information seeker. The fact that they sought information on a wide variety of products, were active in the marketplace and were easily recognised by others, made them ideal targets for the type of marketing communications messages that opinion leaders and innovators / early adopters tend to ignore. Because of these apparently unique attributes, the author decided to replicate Feick and Price (1987) as part of this study. For reasons of clarity and understanding, the original Feick and Price (1987) study is dealt with in detail in chapter six, following the next chapter on the review of the growth and development of ethnic foods.

4. The Growth And Development Of Ethnic Foods - A Literature Review

Closely associated with the author's interest in new product diffusion, was a related interest in retail marketing management and in particular the development and commercialisation of ethnic food products. Characterised by rapid growth and constant change, this was an area of retailing, where the power and influence of the internal word-of-mouth communications process, combined with consumers' personal experience, had consistently been cited as particularly persuasive in product trial and subsequent adoption.

Apart from a brief overview of both the UK and US ethnic food markets (including a detailed analysis of UK pasta sales), this part of the thesis will concentrate primarily upon an examination of those factors, which have over many years dominated commercial and academic thinking on the diffusion of ethnic foods amongst a population.

Due to the relative paucity of academic research in the specific area of ethnic food consumption, the bulk of the information available on this subject is to be found in trade journals rather than scholarly works. Similarly, whilst the author was able to cite some UK sources, most of the material used in this section, came from a variety of North American sources.

At an early stage, the author also contacted both the major UK grocery retail outlets and the manufacturers of ethnic foods, in an attempt to elicit their views on the growth and development of the sector. However (for a variety of reasons), the vast majority were unwilling to discuss matters of substance.

4.1 An Overview of the UK Ethnic Food Market

Table 4-1 shows the actual (and predicted), UK ethnic food sales by sector, over the fifteen year period 1985-2000.

Table 4-1 UK Ethnic Food Sales - Excluding Fast Food - By Sector 1985 - 2000 (Value £ Million)

| Year | Italian | Indian | Chinese | Mexican | Other ¹ |
|-------|---------|--------|---------|---------|--------------------|
| 1985 | 703 | 58 | 55 | 8 | 5 |
| 1990 | 912 | 115 | 79 | 17 | 6 |
| 1995 | 1402 | 168 | 100 | 42 | 10 |
| 2000* | 1789 | 250 | 130 | 80 | 20 |

* Estimated ¹ Includes Greek and Japanese

Source: Euromonitor / Mintel / Keynote / The Grocer / Industry Data

One of the oldest, largest, and arguably most dynamic of all, was the Italian sector. In 1990, total Italian exports of food and drink to the UK, exceeded £580m. In 1995 it was estimated to have risen to £762m, and by the year 2000 was expected to exceed the £900m mark. After adding products made in the UK (and those imported from other countries apart from Italy), the total size of the UK Italian ethnic food sector (excluding Pizza products), was estimated to be worth £1.4bn in 1995 (see Table 4-1).

Of the remaining sectors, Indian, Chinese and Mexican style products, accounted for over 90% of non-Italian ethnic food sales. However, consumer tastes, were reportedly changing. In more recent times, there was growing evidence to suggest that UK consumers of ethnic food products were demanding more choice. At the same time, there was clear evidence of a significant move away from bland, “sanitised” products, towards higher quality, more exotic, spicier, and above all, more authentic products.

This was felt to be the reason behind the growing popularity of Thai, Indonesian, Malaysian, Japanese and even Caribbean foods (Keynote 1995).

4.1.1 An Overview of the UK Pasta Market

At this stage, the author considered it to be appropriate, to provide the reader with a brief insight into the UK pasta market, given the fact that (as part of the replication study approach), the author had chosen to investigate consumer awareness and trial / adoption of pasta and related products.

Table 4-2, illustrates the growth in consumption of pasta and pasta based products in the UK. Growth rates had averaged over 8% per annum across all categories, and (in volume terms) at 97,296 tonnes, the amount of dry pasta sold in 1994, was well over twice that being sold in 1986 (Pasta Information Centre 1996).

Table 4-2 UK Pasta Sales By Product Category 1985 - 2000 (Value £ Million)

| Product Category | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 2000* |
|------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Dry | 33 | 74 | 117 | 186 |
| Canned | 65 | 80 | 95 | 110 |
| Ready Meals | 24 | 32 | 39 | 51 |
| Fresh | 8 | 12 | 18 | 24 |
| TOTAL | 130 | 198 | 269 | 371 |
| % Growth | - | 52 | 36 | 38 |

* Estimated

Source: Pasta Information Centre / Euromonitor / Mintel / Keynote / The Grocer / Industry Data

At just over 2kg (see Table 4-3), UK per capita consumption of pasta lagged some way behind most other European countries. Consumption was however, predicted to rise

steadily (mainly at the expense of potatoes), reaching the 4 to 5kg level by the year 2000 (Parker-Pope 1994; Pasta Information Centre 1995, 1996).

Table 4-3 Per Capita Consumption of Dry Pasta (Kilograms - Rounded and Ordered by Size)

| Country | Per Capita Consumption |
|----------|------------------------|
| Italy | 25 |
| Greece | 8 |
| France | 7 |
| Portugal | 6 |
| Germany | 5 |
| Spain | 5 |
| Benelux | 4 |
| Holland | 4 |
| Denmark | 2 |
| UK | 2 |
| Ireland | 1 |

Source: Pasta Information Centre

4.2 The US Ethnic Food Market

The USA remains the largest, and arguably most dynamic market for ethnic food and beverage products in the world. Italian, Mexican and Oriental products consumed either at home, in restaurants or purchased from take-away outlets, have over the last twenty years, consistently been the most popular segments of what was *still* a rapidly developing market.

Table 4-4 shows the trend in US ethnic food sales over the period 1975-1995, and an estimate of the market size in the year 2000. In only ten years (1975-1985), the market grew from just under \$5bn to over \$22bn. The market was expected to continue to grow rapidly, reaching \$44bn by the year 2000.

Table 4-4 US Ethnic Food Sales in US\$ Billion 1975 - 2000

| Year | US\$ Billion | % Change |
|-------|--------------|----------|
| 1975 | 5 | - |
| 1980 | 16 | 220 |
| 1985 | 22 | 38 |
| 1990 | 30 | 36 |
| 1995 | 37 | 23 |
| 2000* | 44 | 19 |

(* Estimated)

Source: Food & Beverage Marketing / Frost & Sullivan / Industry Data

4.2.1 US Market Trends

During the 1970's, the US ethnic food market was dominated by take-away pizza, and take-away Chinese meals (Processed Prepared Foods 1979). At the time, products for in-home preparation and consumption, were restricted to; a) a variety of dry packaged products (such as Italian pasta or Chinese noodles); b) sauces (such as Taco dips or Spaghetti Bolognese); or c) ingredients (such as soy sauce, or chilli powder). The arrival in the early 1980's of the cook-chill process, and the microwave oven, gave manufacturers yet more scope for new product development in the ethnic foods sector (Food Engineering 1989).

Whilst Italian and Oriental foods continued to dominate the US market in the early 1980's, the fastest growing ethnic food segment during that decade was Mexican. This was found to have been due to a number of manufacturers, producing a variety of Mexican dishes, targeted specifically at the rapidly growing (and increasingly more affluent), Hispanic population (Processed Prepared Foods 1981; Restaurant Business 1985).

Table 4-5 US Ethnic Food Sales By Sector in US\$ Billion 1985 - 2000 (Percentage Market Share In Brackets)

| Year | Italian | Mexican | Chinese | Other ¹ |
|-------|----------|----------|---------|--------------------|
| 1985 | 11 (50%) | 4 (18%) | 6 (27%) | 0.7 (3%) |
| 1990 | 13 (43%) | 9 (30%) | 7 (23%) | 2 (6%) |
| 1995 | 14 (38%) | 11 (29%) | 8 (22%) | 4 (11%) |
| 2000* | 15 (34%) | 13 (30%) | 9 (20%) | 7 (16%) |

* Estimated ¹ Including Mediterranean/Middle Eastern, Asian and Japanese.

Source: BCC / Food & Beverage Marketing / Frost & Sullivan / Food Engineering / Industry Data

Table 4-5 illustrates US ethnic food sales (by sector), during the period 1985 - 2000. Despite the fact that the Italian sector was set to remain the largest, its share of the market fell from 50% in 1985 to 38% in 1995, and was predicted to fall to only 34% by 2000. Sales of the fast developing Mexican sector, had more than doubled in five years (from \$4bn in 1985 to \$9bn in 1990), and stabilised at around 30% of the market. Whilst sales of Chinese foods continued to grow steadily, their share of the total ethnic food market was gradually declining, from 27% in 1985, down to 22% in 1995. Indian, Japanese, Thai, Korean, Vietnamese and Indonesian foods, accounted for the bulk of the “other” category, and from rather modest beginnings, sales of these foods had grown rapidly, doubling their share of the US ethnic food market every five years. This was believed to be primarily, at the expense of the established Chinese sector.

4.3 Problems With Defining Ethnic Foods

Characteristically, in a market dominated by constant change and driven in great part by the fickle nature of fashion, no one, clear definition has emerged, to describe ethnic foods. Commenting on market trends and developments in the USA, Salvage (1981), stated that the most popular ethnic food sector of the time, was Italian. However, Italian foods were considered to be so deeply rooted in American cuisine, that many

analysts refused to consider it ethnic. Furthermore, whilst Pizza was thought to be the first ethnic food to acquire national popularity, this same popularity meant that it too, was no longer considered to be an ethnic food (Salvage 1981). This view was supported a decade later by Bhati (1991), who reported that buyers for the UK retailer Marks and Spencer, had sought inspiration from visiting pizza manufacturers in Chicago USA, rather than Naples Italy (traditionally the birthplace of the pizza), in a bid to find the next “popular” Pizza recipe.

The Market Research Corporation of America, also concluded reported that the concept of an ethnic food, was an arbitrary one. They stated that the one certain way of evaluating whether a product was truly ethnic, was to measure the rate of per capita consumption by non-ethnic minorities, compared to the per capita consumption of those people of the same ethnic background as the food item itself. Thus, if the per capita consumption rate was lower in individuals not of an ethnic background, then it could be said to be ethnic. If, however, per capita consumption was higher amongst these individuals, then it should *not* be considered ethnic (Salvage 1981).

Similarly, Restaurant Business (1986) investigated the issue of defining ethnic foods. Their view was that over time, all popular ethnic foods “mainstream” (sell to all segments of the population not just to the ethnic minorities of origin), and thus lose their ethnic status. It was also suggested, that the very popularity of an ethnic food, would (in the long term), be the main cause of it losing its ethnic identity. In common with Salvage’s (1981) earlier views, Restaurant Business (1986) suggested that the first food this happened to was pizza. A food which had once been considered “an Italian exotic”, had (due to its very popularity), turned it into an “all American institution”. Restaurant Business (1986), concluded with the suggestion that this was an on-going process, and supported this view by reporting the opinions of a number of industry spokespersons. The first, from Taco Villa (a chain of US Taco restaurants and fast-food outlets), further defined “mainstreaming” as, “introducing Americans to products

which emphasised not ethnic foods, but good old American ingredients, prepared with different recipes, and then offering comfortable, contemporary environments to match". The second, the general manager of Pepe's Inc. (a 70 unit Mexican dinner house chain based in Chicago), stated that "there is no such thing as a taco salad in Mexico, but people are starting to accept ethnic foods into their lifestyles. They want to eat lighter today, so we've added salads and seafood to our menu. We make an enchilada using shredded sea legs.....do you think anybody in Mexico ever heard of a sea leg?" At this stage, it became clear to the author that during the 1980's, authenticity was not of primary concern to the majority of US manufacturers and retailers of ethnic foods, and that original recipes were viewed as no more than the starting point for a new product *idea, shell* or *concept*, around which a whole new food service and manufacturing industry could develop.

Canadian Grocer (1986), produced a special issue on ethnic foods, which reported the apparent confusion that existed amongst retailers, when asked to state the differences between "ethnic", "international" and "speciality" foods. It was acknowledged, that these classifications were of little practical use and that (for example), Hungarian jam, was a product which, could be considered an "import" (because it came from Hungary), "international" (because it came from outside Canada), and "ethnic" (if singled out because of its brand name, or Hungarian flavour). Believing this to be a major reason why there was a continuing underdevelopment of the ethnic food classifications in many traditional supermarkets, Canadian Grocer (1986) suggested an alternative; their definition of an ethnic food was, "those foods, indigenous to a people from another land, who then seek out the same foods in any new country to which they immigrated". However, this definition was somewhat undermined (in the same report), by the views of the vice-president of an importer of European food items, who personally viewed the term ethnic foods as "old fashioned". In his opinion, consumption patterns were changing, and while those immigrants who entered Canada during the 1950's and 1960's, tended to buy labels and products with which they were

familiar at home, their children's buying habits were not significantly influenced by patriotic feelings towards their parent's country of origin.

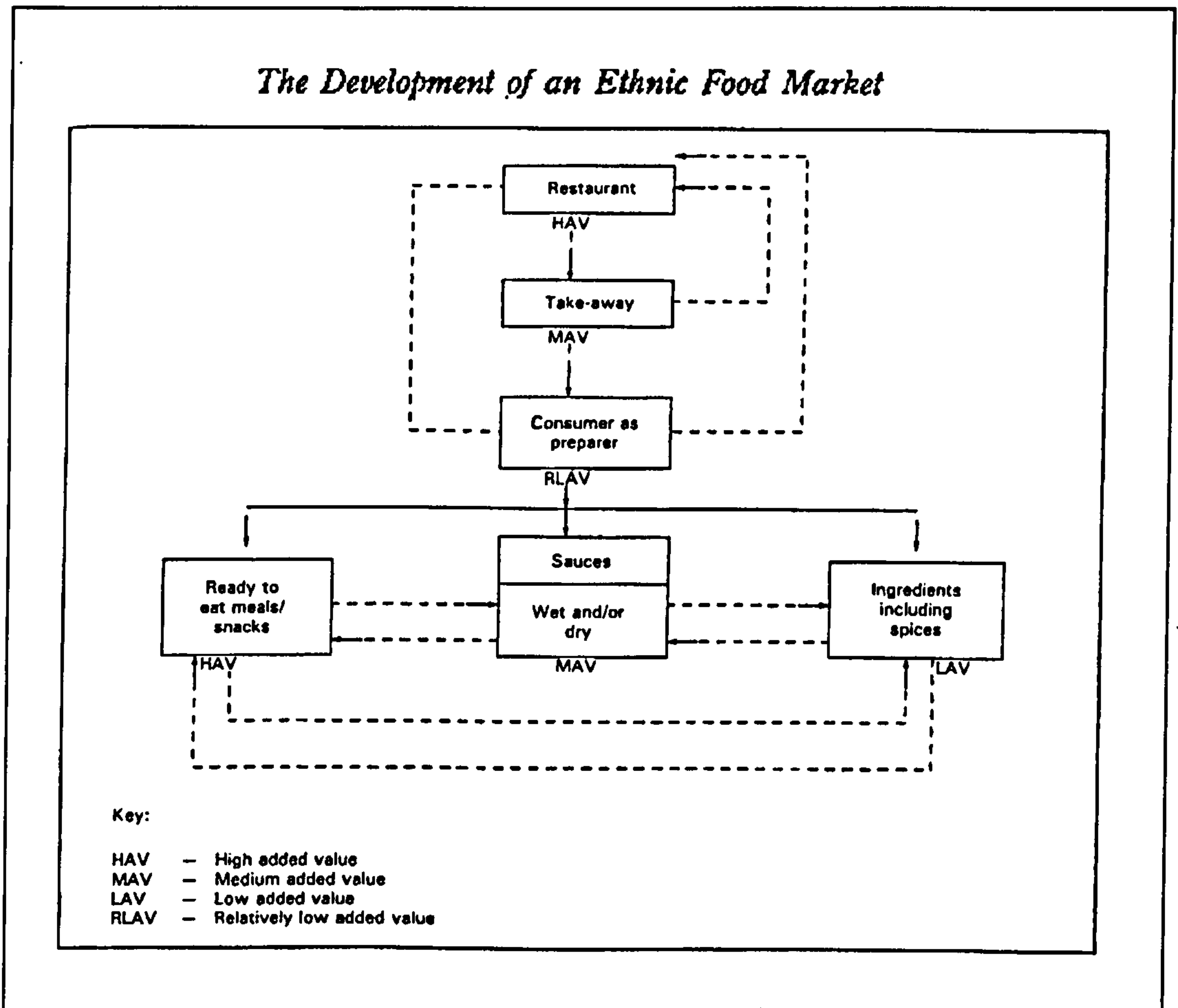
Mintel (1991), took a rather narrow approach to the classification of ethnic foods, suggesting that only those products originating from countries other than Europe (with the exception of Greece), should be considered ethnic. By holding this view, Mintel (1991) were suggesting that Spanish and German foods are common, staple parts of the typical UK diet, and therefore could not be considered ethnic, whereas Indian, Chinese or even American products could be.

4.4 Salient Factors in the Diffusion of Ethnic Foods

Citing material sourced predominantly from the USA, this section aims to give the reader an insight into those factors (posited by academics and practitioners alike), which over the years, have been said to promote the diffusion of ethnic foods. Those most frequently mentioned were; a) the presence of an immigrant population; b) increased international travel; c) the growth of mass communication vehicles such as television and print media; and d) increased restaurant patronage. The section will conclude, with an examination of the role of change agents in the diffusion of ethnic foods.

4.4.1 Risk Aversion Theory of Ethnic Food Diffusion

Paulson-Box and Williamson (1990), forwarded a model for the development of the ethnic food market (see Figure 4-1), which was based upon consumer risk aversion theory (Bauer 1960; Taylor 1974). However, it was based upon the untested premise, that the development of an ethnic food market proceeds through a series of sequential stages from the highest levels of added value, to the lowest level of added value.

Figure 4-1 *The Development Of An Ethnic Food Market*

Source: Paulson-Box and Williamson (1992 p11)

4.4.2 The Immigrant Factor

Examining the data on migration patterns into the USA (from pre-Revolutionary days, through the great Eastern European and Italian Migrations of the 19th and early 20th centuries, onto late 20th century Spanish, Caribbean, Central and South American immigration), Tesler (1979), was arguably the first to conclude that immigrants were an important factor in the diffusion of ethnic food products. Tesler (1979) suggested that because of this, companies should monitor where Americans were travelling to, and where the next significant inflow of immigrants originated from; as foods of those

countries, would most likely provide timely ideas for important new food products categories.

Salvage (1981), investigated the theory that ethnic food adoption patterns change significantly, from one generation to the next. Focusing on the US post-war baby boom generation, Salvage (1981) felt that because it was said to; a) be more mobile; b) have new values regarding food; c) comprise far more working women; and d) behave in a more individualistic way than previous generations, it should have been much more innovative (and thus pursued its own set of tastes and textures), than had actually been the case. In fact, baby boomers had eagerly adopted the plethora of convenience foods (which had been developed to meet the needs of working women), and rather than becoming increasingly individualistic, they tended to adopt products developed for the mass market.

Food Engineering (1984), also believed that immigrants were crucial in the diffusion of ethnic food products. It concluded that in the US, the industry that had originally developed to cater specifically for the special requirements of the ever growing ethnic minority population, had also created interest in ethnic foods, amongst the wider population. Snack Food (1986) supported this view, suggesting that unprecedented levels of immigrants entering the country, had given rise to the major US food manufacturing companies' interest, in developing dedicated ethnic food divisions.

Reporting significant growth in the UK exotic fruit market, The Grocer (1987), suggested that the increase in demand came from the relatively large immigrant / ethnic minority population, who purchased the products (primarily) as a way of maintaining diets similar to those of which they ate in their native countries. The Grocer (1987), concluded that the immigrant population had also been an important factor in the ever-widening choice of fruit and vegetables available elsewhere in the

UK. And that where previously, only small Asian and West Indian shops stocked unfamiliar produce, it had become increasingly more common to see a selection of exotica displayed in mainstream supermarkets.

One of the few empirical studies into the diffusion of ethnic food products, was undertaken by Kaynak (1989). Serving as a valuable insight into the differences in buyer behaviour exhibited by ethnic minority consumers in the USA, and those considered indigenous, Kaynak (1989), suggested that it was the presence of ethnic food stores in a locale, which played a significant part in the diffusion process. Kaynak (1989), also investigated why “traditional” North American retail outlets, were especially poor performers in the ethnic food sector, and provided a number of practical ideas for improving the situation. The work uncovered seven distinct factors which were found to be particularly influential in the consumer’s choice of store. These were (in order of importance); a) overall quality of food sold; b) price of products sold; c) availability of a meat counter; d) store neatness; e) proximity of location; f) customer service / assistance and g) well-organised layout.

4.4.3 The International Travel Factor

Processed Prepared Foods (1979), was amongst the first to submit that the main reason behind the rapid growth rate of the US ethnic food sector in the 1970’s, was increased international travel. This hypothesis was supported by Tesler (1979), who drew comparisons between the rapid growth in ethnic food consumption, and a tenfold increase in US tourism, north into Canada, south into Mexico, east to the West Indies and further afield into Europe. In a similar vein, Snack Food (1986), when reporting on the reasons behind long-term changes in US dietary habits, concluded that international business travel (especially to the Pacific rim region), had been the principal cause of the growth in US consumption of Chinese, Japanese and other Asian foods.

Food Engineering (1984), posited that the post World War II US “baby boomer” generation’s increased international travel, led them to acquire more adventurous / experimental eating habits. Considered to have been the catalyst for a more widespread change in food consumption patterns, these consumers, were said to search out ethnic restaurants (usually small eateries, secluded in ethnic enclaves), which had originally set up to cater exclusively for an ethnic minority group. Once they became popular, both the cuisine and the format was copied, and in a relatively short period of time, chains of restaurants catering almost exclusively for customers not of an ethnic minority background, could be found right across the US.

Whilst believing that an increased preoccupation with healthy eating, and the boom in microwave ownership were plausible reasons for the increase in UK ethnic food sales, The Grocer (1987), also concluded that increased foreign travel ‘was a major contributory factor. It was felt that consumers who took foreign holidays, were exposed to a wide range of new and exotic dishes. Dishes, which (upon their return to the UK), consumers were said to want to continue eating (The Grocer 1987; 1996a; 1996b).

4.5 Success and Failure in the Ethnic Food Business

It was apparent that adapting product and marketing strategies to suit local preferences, went some way towards ensuring wider success in the ethnic food business. This was clearly illustrated by Saker and Brooke (1989). In their study of ethnic food outlets in Birmingham (UK), they found higher than average business birth and death rates amongst the city's Asian and Afro-Caribbean food businesses. Saker and Brooke (1989), concluded that the chief cause of failure was lack of market orientation, rather than any technical factors such as personnel expertise or lack of equipment. In the ethnic food manufacturing sector of Birmingham, Afro-Caribbean bakeries were said to dominate. However Saker and Brooke (1989), found that over 90% of these bakeries’ sales were limited to the Afro-Caribbean community, and that the purely

ethnic demand did not seem capable of supporting the number of bakeries that had opened. It was felt by the researchers, that by advertising, awareness amongst the wider (non-ethnic) community, would prove beneficial. But, they found that there was a reluctance on the part of the bakeries' owners, to be proactive in attracting new business. Investigations into the restaurant and take-away sector in the same area, indicated a high business turnover rate (only 6% of the establishments having been in business over six years). These outlets were found to be polarised between those trading in the "upmarket" segment (targeting non-ethnic clientele, using selective above and below-the-line promotion), and those who catered for "the local market", in the poorer areas of Birmingham. As the latter were competing on price and quality with the other establishments in their area, it was amongst this category, that the majority of failures were expected.

4.5.1 Authenticity Versus Acceptability - Striking a Balance

In the author's opinion, much of the underlying reasons for the popularity or otherwise of ethnic food products, comes from striking the right balance between authenticity and that which was palatable / acceptable. Thus sympathetic modification of an original recipe, aimed at satisfying local tastes, was often an essential step.

Restaurant Business (1984), found that the "monolithic mass market" approach taken by the majority of those involved in the US ethnic food trade, was unsustainable, and by the early 1980's, the market had fragmented into many smaller, more targeted, restaurant and fast food outlets. This occurred primarily out of an attempt to respond to local taste preferences, especially in the Oriental and Mexican ethnic food markets. The Chinese sector was amongst the first to modify its offerings, responding to consumers' desire for foods which were lighter and more sophisticated. Mexican and Italian concept restaurants rapidly followed suit, changing their menus to fit this trend by offering lighter, more modern and trendier products (Restaurant Business 1984).

Lydecker (1985), underlined the rapidly changing nature of the US ethnic food market, and reported that both product and concept life-cycles, were becoming ever more compressed. Thus, the dilemma faced by most organisations, was that of either playing it safe, with tried and tested product lines, decor, and marketing strategies (possibly at the risk of boring the customer), or becoming more adventurous (at the risk of losing customers who resented change). Reporting the fact that some companies preferred to steer a middle course, they quoted the director of public relations for Taco Time International (an major US Mexican fast food chain), who succinctly stated "We serve Mexican food made to American tastes".

The importance that consumers placed upon product or recipe authenticity, was called into question by Food Engineering (1984). They quoted Campbell's US Director of Marketing who (in response to a question on the growing consumption of Italian style foods in the home), observed that spaghetti sauces were considered more American, than ethnic Italian food. Supporting his underlying assertion that consumers do not particularly care where ethnic foods originated, he went on to state that "the best way to develop ethnic sales is on a dish by dish basis. The consumer is looking for the merit of the individual product. They no longer need "flags" displaying the fact that this is an ethnic food". These views seemed to be echoed by the Marketing Manager of Pasta Foods (UK manufacturer of pasta products), in an interview published in *The Grocer* (1992). Pasta Foods' company policy (regarding branding and labelling), centred around that of reassuring the consumer by giving their products a deliberate "British feel", and that although "the purists may find it disheartening, few UK retailers prefer the original Italian name for this range of products" (*The Grocer* (1992)).

Restaurant Business (1986), also investigated success and failure in the ethnic food business. Whilst it concluded that being first with a new concept, was essential, gauging the right balance between authenticity and acceptability, was regarded as even

more critical. Having the consumer accept a product as “the real thing”, and complementing this with the ambience, value and service they demand (ahead of the competition), was considered vital in this highly competitive sector. The essential factor highlighted in the report, was that in order to remain in business, both ethnic food manufactures and ethnic restaurants, had to be committed to constantly modifying product offerings in line with customer needs and wants. It was therefore considered necessary to segment markets, and continuously adjust the whole of the marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion etc.), in order to attract, and then retain new customers. If successful, this process of constant modification, was believed to be the catalyst, which could eventually lead an organisation to make the conscious move away from authenticity, towards a wider market appeal.

In the UK, Paulson-Box and Williamson (1990), briefly examined the issue of what it was that constituted an ethnic food. Their investigations led them to conclude, that ethnic foods were those foods which originated outside the UK, but which were subsequently consumed within the UK by both members of the indigenous population *and* by the ethnic minority groups. In the author’s opinion, this has a number of failings as a definition, in that it excludes; a) food products produced in the UK by ethnic minority groups, using locally sourced ingredients; b) Italian-style foods which are manufactured locally; and c) food products such as lasagne and pizza which (despite having become so adulterated that they bear little resemblance to the original products), continue to be promoted heavily on the basis of their “Italian” origins. However, whilst admitting that a valid, supportable definition was essential in order to define market size, Paulson-Box and Williamson (1990), forwarded little of practical use.

4.6 Critique of the Literature

The ethnic foods literature review, had identified the relative paucity of academic research in this area. The deficiencies cover areas such as buyer behaviour, new

product diffusion and adoption, market development, marketing communications and brand management. The fact that most of the information available on the subject came from the trade press, was somewhat ironic, given the unwillingness of most ethnic food manufacturers and retailers alike, to participate in this study. However, in the author's opinion, the most important factor to emerge from this review, was that many (often long held), theories and beliefs concerning ethnic food diffusion, continued to be forwarded, despite the (almost complete) lack of empirical support.

In most articles dealing with ethnic foods, the presence of an sizeable immigrant minority population, was often cited as the primary reason for trial and adoption amongst the indigenous population. Proponents of this theory believed that contact between races, led to the exchange of information on dietary habits. This was said to lead to trial (the first opportunity often being at the invitation of an ethnic minority neighbour or colleague), and ultimately to adoption of the commercial version of the product. However, even the briefest of analyses into the role of immigrant populations, indicate that other factors may have had as much (if not more) influence, upon the eventual success (or failure) of a product.

In both the US and UK literature, increased international travel was often cited as a significant factor in the diffusion of ethnic foods. If this was indeed as influential as it was thought, then Spanish cuisine should have been be far more popular in the UK than is actually the case; as Spain has historically been the most popular mass-market tourist destination for the British. However, there was much anecdotal evidence to suggest that in the main, British tourists have rather conservative eating habits, and would rather consume familiar dishes in their hotels, rather than risk unfamiliar local food. To further reinforce the main tenet of this argument, the recent popularity of North African destinations, and the reduced cost of travel to destinations such as the West Indies, have not resulted in an wave of new product offerings based upon the cuisine of these countries.

The belief that a significant amount of awareness and adoption of ethnic foods, was as a result of the recent growth in mass communication media (such as television and newspapers), was also proffered by many of the writers in this field (The Grocer 1996c, 1996d, 1996e, 1996f). Whilst there was clear evidence of a recent proliferation of cookery and travel programmes / magazines, no one had empirically examined the effect that these have had upon the diffusion of ethnic foods.

It was also evident from the literature review, that a number of authors believed the increase in ethnic food consumption, to be a direct result of increased restaurant patronage. Whilst the author accepts the fact, that some customers may indeed want to recreate (in their own home), a meal they encountered for the first time in a restaurant, there was no empirical evidence, to support the view that this behaviour was either typical *or* widespread.

4.7 Ethnic Food Diffusion and the Role of the Change Agent

The Oxford English Dictionary definition of a “change agent” is “one who initiates a movement towards social change in a group” (Oxford English Dictionary 1996). The change agent is said to have four “essential” roles; a) an observer, b) diagnostician, c) strategist, and d) stimulator. And five “operational” roles; i) assisting change, ii) ensuring information exchange, iii) problem diagnosis, iv) promoting action, and v) establishing working relations (Spence 1994).

The role and importance of the “product champion” or “change agent” in the diffusion of innovation is particularly well covered in strategic management literature (Kahn 1995; Fiorelli and Margolis 1993; Loveridge and Pitt 1990; Elmes 1990). Organisational change agents are often seen as idiosyncratic, visionary and highly

dedicated individuals, who (mainly working from within organisations), champion new products, processes and ideas (Pitt 1990; Nayak and Ketteringham 1986). A clear example of change agent influence in ethnic food diffusion was provided by Bhati (1991), who stated that Thai foods were initially introduced into Marks and Spencer outlets, at the behest of the company chairman. However, because of the lack of information, the author was unable to assess (in wider terms), the degree to which ethnic food innovation was championed by change agents, working within food manufacturing or retail organisations.

Others had subtly re-interpreted the original meaning of change agents to such an extent, that whole organisations (or departments within organisations), were considered to be change agents (Hannan and Freeman 1986; Pitt 1990). This was clearly illustrated by Gatignon and Robertson (1991), who stated that “the classification of a product as an innovation may also depend on the change agent’s capabilities in proving the advantages to potential adopters and broadening the base of adopters by refining the innovation”. In the diffusion / development of ethnic foods, there were many instances where marketing departments, had adopted a strategy of continually modifying the marketing mix in order to widen an ethnic food’s appeal (Salvage 1981; Lydecker 1985; Restaurant Business 1986; The Grocer 1992).

Often, when discussed in terms of consumer behaviour, change agents and opinion leaders are seen as one and the same person. This was clearly demonstrated by Assael (1995), who stated that “change agents are opinion leaders who have more influence and credibility than commercially sponsored means such as personal selling and advertising in convincing consumers to change their needs and habits”. The literature suggested that ethnic minorities had been cited as influential in the diffusion of ethnic foods (Food Engineering 1984; Snack Food 1986; The Grocer 1987; Kaynak 1989). However, whilst there appears to be little (if any) evidence to suggest that their influence was widespread, such individuals may indeed be sought out by interested

“information seekers”, such as opinion leaders, innovators / early adopters and *market mavens*, as key sources of information.

Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) believed that the change agent’s position was “located midway between the bureaucracy to which he is responsible and the client system in which he works”. The author believes that there is some evidence to suggest that the *market maven* occupies a similar position in the community, midway between the marketing communication source, and the ultimate adopter.

Finally, the general information seeking / polymorphic nature of the *market maven*, suggests that it should be significantly more receptive to all types and sources of marketplace information. It would therefore be consistent with other aspects of the construct, to assume that *market mavens* would, for example, not only be aware of the location and reputation of local ethnic food retailers and restaurants, but where / who to go to for information, which magazines to read and also programmes to watch.

4.8 Concluding Remarks

The literature review process, confirmed the author’s original belief, that much of what was written regarding the diffusion of ethnic foods, was based on poorly founded opinions, which over time, had become somewhat self-perpetuating. There was a clear lack of awareness of the established theories on diffusion of innovations, and in particular the factors that can materially affect ethnic food adoption. For example, the current popularity and rapid diffusion of pizza, had probably less to do with Italian emigration or international travel, than with the fact that; a) it was relatively cheap (a cost factor); b) it was simple to make (a complexity factor); c) it could be purchased by the slice (a divisibility factor); d) it was easily modified to suit most customs and cultures (a societal values factor); and e) was compatible with existing consumption

patterns (home, take-away, fast food, pizzeria). The author thus felt, that it was time to constructively challenge many of the views forwarded in the literature review.

5. An Analysis Of Feick And Price's Original Market Maven Research

In order that the reader understands clearly the basis upon which this research was founded, this section will discuss in detail the methodology undertaken by Feick and Price (1987). To conclude the section, a brief analysis of their findings will also be undertaken. This is felt by the author to be necessary due to the replication nature of the present study, and the fact that it would be somewhat difficult to measure the findings and results of this study without clearly understanding what had previously been found.

5.1 Research Propositions

In this section, the four propositions formed by Feick and Price (1987), regarding the *market mavens'* characteristics, are outlined. These propositions dealt mainly with attitudes and behaviours on the acquisition and provision of marketplace information. The propositions compared the attitudes and behaviours of *market mavens* with those individuals who were not considered to be *market mavens*.

The first proposition was developed from Kotler and Zaltman (1976), and was predicated on the fact that *market mavens* (attentive as they were to marketplace developments), could be expected to find out about new products across product categories, before other individuals who were not *market mavens*.

Thus their first proposition P_1 stated;

“*Market mavens* will demonstrate earlier awareness of new products through; (a) reported early awareness of new products across product categories; and (b) awareness of specific new brands within several product categories”.

The second proposition was linked to the fact that the *market maven* concept, should “report more frequent specific information provision across product categories than other consumers”. The researchers were therefore suggesting that not only should *market mavens* be actively collecting information, they should also be aware that they are actively disseminating their knowledge to other consumers.

Thus P₂ stated;

“*Market mavens* will exhibit higher levels of information provision to other consumers across product categories”.

The third proposition that Feick and Price developed, was based upon the propensity (or lack of it), of consumers to undertake information searches, to find out about new products. This was based upon research investigating the types and sources of information used in making a particular purchase decision (Feick and Price 1984; Newman 1977), and the categorisation of information seekers (Thorelli and Thorelli 1977).

Thus P₃ stated;

“*Market mavens* will demonstrate higher levels of general market information seeking through; (a) readership of consumer reports; and (b) the use of diverse sources in acquiring market information”.

In a section entitled “Other Characteristics of *market mavens*”, Feick and Price stated that “*market mavens*’ involvement with the marketplace.....should be apparent in other marketplace attitudes and behaviours”. Citing Gultinan and Monroe (1980), Kassajian (1981) and Slama and Tashchian (1985), they suggested that “the extent of interest in and enjoyment of shopping, use of coupons, and interest in and attention to advertising”, were indicators of general consumer involvement. Therefore their fourth and final proposition P₄ was;

“*Market mavens* will demonstrate higher levels of general market interest through; (a) enjoyment of shopping; (b) attention to advertising; and (c) use of coupons”.

The Feick and Price (1987), study made little attempt to obtain demographic data stating that “Because we are examining the existence of *market mavens* for the first time, it seems premature to anticipate the demographic profile of the group”. They therefore undertook no more than an exploratory investigation into this area.

5.2 Methodology Employed

5.2.1 Survey Method and Sampling Issues

The pilot survey was pre-tested, using a questionnaire administered by telephone, on a random sample, in a “large north-eastern metropolitan area” of the USA. The definitive questionnaires were administered by telephone during August 1984, using random digit dialling to the 48 contiguous states of the USA. Calls were made between 3:30 and 9:30 p.m. local time, and call backs were arranged at mutually convenient times. However, the reader was neither informed of the reasons why; a) the other non-contiguous states were excluded from the survey; b) what led to the decision not to make calls before 3:30 p.m.; nor c) whether calls were made on Saturdays or Sundays. Similarly, the reader was not informed of the level of call-backs, nor the number of questionnaires terminated before completion.

In testing the *market maven* construct, Feick and Price (1987) were also interested in eliciting information on two main product areas;

1. Food and common household products
2. Non-prescription drugs and health and beauty products

In order to obtain the required information, two versions of the questionnaire were produced (see appendix 10.1). Essentially identical, one included questions which

required a response in relation to the aforementioned group of products, the other a response to non-prescription drugs / health and beauty products.

5.3 Survey Administration

In order to obtain a representative mix of male and female respondents, researchers alternated between the two sexes when telephoning and asking for the “head of household”. This approach was somewhat unsuccessful as the final breakdown showed the sample to be somewhat predictably biased towards females (64% females as opposed to 36% males). At the time, the US. population was stated by Feick and Price (1987) to have been 57% female and 43% male.

Feick and Price (1987), reported that both weighted and unweighted data sets (taking into account estimated population sex distribution) were analysed, and as there were “no differences in substantive conclusions between the analysis”, the unweighted results would be used. The total number of completed interviews were reported as 1531, taking an average of 18 minutes each to complete.

5.4 Measurement Scales and Construct Validation

Construct development and validation, is an essential aspect of all research studies and particularly so in those of a hypothesis generating nature such as Feick and Price (1987). In this section the author will report what Feick and Price were trying to establish, how they went about it and what were their results. (For a more detailed discussion of the application of tests of construct validity to this research see 6.3.4).

Telephone interviewing techniques demand a concise approach to questionnaire design and administration (Dillman 1978; Groves et al. 1988; Frey 1989). With this in mind, Feick and Price were meticulous in developing the items which were going to be used to measure the *market maven* concept. A concept defined as;

“individuals who have information about many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of markets, and initiate discussions with consumers and respond to requests from consumers for market information” (Feick and Price 1987).

In order to do this, a set of 40 items (phrases) were generated, in line with their concept definition. These were reduced approximately in half by a panel of experts which included market academics and marketing research practitioners. The remaining nineteen items were administered in a pilot study (n=256). After analysis of the results these were further reduced, leaving the following six scale items which were included in the final study;

1. I like introducing new brands and products to my friends.
2. I like helping people by providing them with information about many kinds of products.
3. People ask me for information about products, places to shop, or sales.
4. If someone asked where to get the best buy on several types of product, I could tell him or her where to shop.
5. My friends think of me as a good source of information when it comes to new products or sales.
6. Think about a person who has information about a variety of products and likes to share this information with others. This person knows about new products, sales, stores and so on, but does not necessarily feel he or she is an expert on one particular product. How well would you say that this description fits you?

In order to establish the existence of *market mavens* (or at least lend it credence), Feick and Price (1987) contended that one should be able to identify others as *market*

mavens. In order to test this theory they included the question “Do you know someone other than yourself, who has information about a variety of products, stores, sales etc., and likes to share this general information with others?” A follow up question trying to elicit the relative importance of such a person (to the respondent), in “finding out about new brands or models of products”, was also included.

Equally as important as measuring the *market maven* concept the researchers also wanted to establish the distinctiveness of the concept vis-à-vis the other established opinion leader and early purchaser (adopter) categories. Taking the opinion leader category first, the authors adapted the traditional scales (Rogers and Cartano 1962; King and Summers 1970), to take into account the requirement to test for opinion leadership *across* product categories, rather than opinion leadership *within* a specific product class. A self designating process, the respondent was able to name a brand, product type, product class etc., as their area of expertise.

Using this information, Feick and Price (1987) classified anyone who felt that they were knowledgeable about a product, and who was aware that they influenced other people about the product, as an opinion leader. “Individuals were defined as opinion leaders if they answered “yes” to two questions; Is there a particular kind of product that you feel you are very knowledgeable about? If so, do you think that you ever influence other people in their purchase of or opinions about this kind of product?” (Feick and Price 1987).

5.5 Opinion Leadership and its Relationship to the Market Maven.

Feick and Price (1987), conducted a third pilot study, in order to examine the discriminant validity of their *market maven* and opinion leadership measures. To this end, they contacted (by telephone), 303 male and female heads of households in a US metropolitan area (using probability sampling techniques), and administered a short

questionnaire. The questionnaire included *market maven* measures, opinion leadership measures and the King and Summers scale items. After undertaking factor analysis, Feick and Price (1987) suggested that it indicated the discriminant validity of their opinion leadership and *market maven* measures (see Table 5-1). This was based upon their analysis of the two factors which were detected; factor 1 the *market maven* factor and factor 2 the opinion leadership factor.

These findings were supported by their respective measures. The *market maven* measures having high loadings on the *market maven* factor, and weak loadings on the opinion leadership factor, and the opinion leadership measure having a high loading on the opinion leadership factors and a low loading on the *market maven* factor.

Table 5-1 Factor Analysis Of The Market Maven Items, Opinion Leadership Measures, And King And Summers' Scale Items (Feick and Price (1987))

| Scale Item | Factor 1 | Factor 2 |
|--------------------|----------|----------|
| MM1 ^(a) | .13 | .42 |
| MM2 | -.01 | .73 |
| MM3 | -.07 | .76 |
| MM4 | -.11 | .69 |
| MM5 | -.02 | .79 |
| MM6 | .18 | .39 |
| OL ^(b) | .55 | .01 |
| KS1 ^(c) | .49 | .00 |
| KS2 | .67 | .12 |
| KS3 | .61 | -.01 |
| KS4 | .63 | .01 |
| KS5 | .37 | -.07 |
| KS6 | .51 | -.05 |
| KS7 | .63 | .19 |

^aMM = *market maven* scale items (described in text).

^bOL = opinion leadership measures (described in text).

^cKS = King and Summers opinion leadership measures (see King and Summers 1970).

Finally Feick and Price (1987), concluded from the analysis of their national survey, that 46% of the total sample reported being an opinion leader in some self selected product category, and that “The correlation between the *market maven* and opinion leader measure is 0.22”. In their opinion. with such a large sample, the correlation was deemed to be significant, despite being modest in size.

Feick and Price (1987), also found (in line with their expectations), that their assumption that opinion leadership would require more detailed and technical knowledge in many durable product categories, than in many non durable categories, was confirmed. A stronger correlation between the *market maven* and opinion leadership constructs in non-durable rather than durable product categories, was said to support this. However their findings on the durable goods led them to remark, “Though we expected the correlation between the *market maven* and the durable goods opinion leader to be small, we did not expect it to be so near zero” (-0.06 at $p < 0.05$). It was their view that these findings confirmed the fact that being a *market maven* was “unrelated to durable goods opinion leadership”.

5.6 The Early Adopter and its Relationship to the Market Maven.

In their work, Feick and Price were also concerned with testing the tendency of respondents to be early purchasers of products. Focusing on consumer packaged goods, they concentrated on measurement of innovativeness in; a) broad product categories (food and common household products); b) specific product categories (new coffees, frozen entrees and main dishes, diet soft drinks and breakfast cereals); and c) specific brands which had been introduced in the year prior to the study (Master Blend, Lean Cuisine, Diet Sprite and Post Fruit and Fiber). The non-prescription drugs / health and beauty products sample was asked similar questions on; a) their innovativeness in a broad sense; b) in specific product categories (pain relievers, vitamins, deodorants and suntan products); and c) their trial of Nuprin, Caltrate, Dial Solid and Eclipse brands.

Analysing the results of this section of their work, Feick and Price (1987), calculated mean scores for the three types of innovative measures. They then correlated these with the *market maven* measure. Their findings showed that in the food sub-sample, there was a consistent correlation with the innovativeness measures (0.31, 0.34, 0.31 at $p < 0.01$). However in the non-prescription drugs / health and beauty products sub-sample, the correlation between the two measures was neither as strong or as consistent (0.27, 0.23, 0.14 at $p < 0.01$). This weaker correlation was explained by Feick and Price (1987), as apparently “due to a very low trial of the brands we included”. Nonetheless, Feick and Price (1987), felt confident enough to suggest that “*market maven* tend to be innovative across a rather broad range of consumer package goods”, and also to state that the results “suggest that the concepts of the *market maven* and the innovative consumer are distinct”. Submitting that “the correlations, though significant are modest in size”.

5.7 The Interrelationship of the Three Influencer Categories.

In their paper, Feick and Price reported their concerns that the *market maven*, opinion leadership and innovative measures they employed, may actually have been measuring different aspects, of a single, general word-of-mouth construct. In order to test whether this was indeed the case, they used the Confirmatory factor analysis (specifically LISREL) technique, to compare the fit of a model which assumed that a single construct was being measured, with the fit of a model which posited three separate constructs. As can be seen from Table 5-2, Feick and Price (1987) reported a “dramatic and significant improvement in fit (reduction in chi square), from moving from a one-factor solution to a three factor solution”. And that the results “indicate the three-construct conceptualisation is worthwhile, as model fit is substantially worsened by forcing the items to be measures of a single construct”.

Table 5-2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis On The Measures Of Market Maven, Early Purchaser, And Opinion Leader

| Factor models | Food Sub-sample ^a | Drug Sub-sample ^b |
|--------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| One-factor model | $X^2(35) = 254.42^c$ | $X^2(35) = 189.24^c$ |
| Three-factor model | $X^2(33) = 107.75^c$ | $X^2(33) = 107.98^c$ |
| Difference test | $X^2(2) = 146^c$ | $X^2(2) = 81.26^c$ |

^aN = 771 ^bN = 760 ^cP < .001

Feick and Price (1987), conclude this aspect of their study, by confirming their earlier views that the results “suggest that after correction for attenuation, the measure of *market maven* achieves discriminant validity and is distinct from the measures of opinion leader and early purchaser”. Communicating to the reader the stringency of this test by citing Bagozzi and Burnkrant (1985), Feick and Price (1987), supported their previous statements by declaring that “shared method variance would tend to

increase the observed correlation between the measures, making discrimination more difficult”.

5.8 Analysis of Results

5.8.1 Introduction

In this section of the thesis, the author outlined the main findings of the Feick and Price (1987) *market maven* study, so as to enable the reader to compare the results of the common aspects of the two studies. Each of Feick and Price's (1987) specific propositions will be addressed in turn, concluding with an analysis of the section entitled “Discussion”.

5.8.2 Analysis methods

The main analysis used by Feick and Price (1987), was that of correlation between the attitude or behaviour examined, and the respondents score on the *market maven* scale. They also reported an analysis of variance or chi squared analysis based upon trichotomization (dividing into three equal groups), of respondents into the lower 31% (“Low”), middle 37% (“Medium”) and upper 32% (“High”) distribution of *market maven* scores. In reporting results, Feick and Price (1987), only referred to respondents scoring in the “High” category as *market mavens*.

5.8.3 P₁ Possession of Market Information

The first fundamental attribute of a *market maven* (according to Feick and Price), was the possession of general marketplace information. This was ascertained, by measuring the average perceived early awareness of new products in four packaged goods categories, followed by the average reported awareness of four new brands in the four product categories.

The results for both the food and drug sub-samples were as Feick and Price (1987) expected; in that the higher the report of early awareness of new products across the four product categories, the higher the *market maven* scale score. However, an anomaly was reported, in respect of the results of the new brand awareness variable in the food sub-sample. Here Feick and Price (1987), reported a weak correlation between the new brand awareness and *market maven* scores, and a low variance between the “Low”, “Medium” and “High” *market maven* categories. Feick and Price (1987), assumed that the reason for this result was that the products chosen were well known, and therefore all respondents had heard of them. However no explanation was forwarded for the fact that the drug sub-sample exhibited similar characteristics, plus much reduced actual and mean awareness scores, and that the correlation with the *market maven* scale was also an unimpressive 0.19.

5.8.4 P₂ Provision of Market Information

The results relating to the proposition that *market mavens* provide other people with specific information on particular packaged goods, confirmed Feick and Prices’ (1987) thesis that the higher the *market maven* score, the more frequent the information provision. In both food and drug sub-samples, the correlations with the *market maven* scale (0.40 and 0.47 respectively), were even stronger than those in the early awareness section.

5.8.5 P₃ General Market Information Seeking Activities

Feick and Price used two measures to test proposition P₃, which suggested that *market mavens* were demonstrably more active in seeking general market information, than other consumers. The first of the two measures gathered information on the readership of “Consumer Reports” (somewhat similar in concept to “Which Magazine” in the UK). Those respondents who had read three out of the last four issues (or more than

half the issues in the previous year), were considered to be regular readers. The results of this test showed that over 50% of regular “Consumer Reports” readers, were *market mavens*, and only approximately 19% of regular readers rated as “low” on the *market maven* scale.

The second measure, gathered information on the importance of various information search activities, and was based upon respondents being asked the question “How important are each of the following sources to you in finding out about new food and common household products; free samples, magazines, newspapers, radio, television, salespeople, relative / friends and browsing / shopping”. Again Feick and Price (1987), reported a significant difference between *market mavens* and respondents in “Low” and “Medium” *maven* categories, and that *market mavens* consistently placed a higher importance on all the sources of information in both the food and drug sub-samples.

5.8.6 P₄ Coupon Use, Enjoyment of Shopping and Attention to Advertising

In testing their fourth proposition, Feick and Price (1987) found that (as they expected), the higher the *market maven* score, the more; a) the respondent enjoyed shopping; b) the greater the attention paid to advertising; and c) the greater the use of coupons.

5.8.7 Demographic Variables

Given the preliminary nature of the study, Feick and Price (1987) decided to concentrate upon establishing the existence of the *market maven* category of word-of-mouth marketplace diffuser, rather than develop a demographic profile. This resulted in a limited set of results, which suggested that *market mavens* were; a) more likely to be females than men; b) black rather than white; and c) less well educated, than respondents scoring “Low” on the *market maven* scale. Feick and Price (1987) reported

no significant differences between the three categories, in terms of their age, income, household size or number of children under the age of 18.

5.8.8 General Media Patterns

Feick and Price (1987) found that there was a positive linear relationship between the number of magazines read by respondents, and their *market maven* score; with “High” *market mavens* reading the most. A similar linear relationship between respondents’ *market maven* score, and the amount of television viewing, was also noted; “High” *market mavens* once more watching significantly more television, than other categories.

5.9 Summary

Feick and Price (1987), felt that the results of their investigations, supported all four of the propositions offered by them, which were:

1. That *market mavens* “were aware of new products earlier” than other respondents.
2. That *market mavens* “provided information to others across product categories” than other respondents.
3. That *market mavens* “engaged in more general market information seeking” than other respondents.
4. That *market mavens* “exhibited more general market interest and attentiveness” than other respondents.

Feick and Price (1987), thus maintained that their investigations had demonstrated that *market mavens* were “distinct from opinion leaders and early purchasers”, and that (significantly), “individuals can recognise the *market maven* quality in themselves and can identify the characteristic in others”. Furthermore Feick and Price (1987), stated

that their work was the first to establish the fact that consumers were; a) able to identify *market mavens*; b) use them in the decision-making process; and c) able to differentiate between a *market maven* and someone with specifically product-based expertise.

Feick and Price (1987) also accepted previous studies which suggest that there are three main groups of disseminators of marketplace information namely; opinion leaders, early adopters / purchasers and general marketplace influencers. They believed that the *market maven*, had not previously been clearly defined, but was in fact an agglomeration of general marketplace influencers. In addition, they felt that the construct played a crucial role in the dissemination of both product specific and general market information, and was considered distinct from all other influencer categories, including opinion leaders.

Feick and Price (1987) found that *market mavens*; a) were aware of new products; b) provided information to other consumers across product categories; c) were actively engaged in general market information seeking; and d) exhibited general market interest and attentiveness (than others in a population). If substantiated, the construct could play a key role in word-of-mouth information diffusion, by both passively and actively gathering information, and disseminating it in a variety of situations, to persons who value the *market mavens'* advice.

6. Empirical Research Design And Methodology

Ghuri, et al. (1994) emphasised that research should “demonstrate that the candidate can systematically handle and analyse a problem, arriving at valid conclusions”. Stating that the role of a researcher is often to observe, Ghauri, et al. (1994) draw a distinction between the *observer* (who draws conclusions using mere “common sense”), and the *researcher* who employs a systematic, well-argued and ultimately testable overall approach to their studies.

Ghuri, et al. (1994) also highlighted the effects that the researcher’s background had, upon research orientation. The authors clearly suggesting that “the relationship between the methods, data, theories and values” employed in a study, often depended upon the research orientation of the individual. Morgan (1983) offered supporting arguments for this view, when he stated that the logic of a research strategy, was embedded in the links between “Constitutive Assumptions” (Paradigms), the “Epistemological Stance” (Metaphors) and “Favoured Methodology” (Puzzle Solving); all of which are to a greater or lesser degree influenced by the researcher’s past experiences and knowledge base.

The topic of originality in research was also covered by Ghauri et al. (1994), stating;

“we believe *originality* describes studies which create a new dimension to already existing knowledge. It implies that there is some novel twist, fresh perspective, new hypothesis or assumption, or new and innovative methods of handling an already existing topic / knowledge that makes the project a distinctive contribution”
(Ghuri et al. 1994)

The author believed that this study met the rigorous requirements outlined above, and in the following sections will underline the processes which have been employed in order to ensure that the work was; a) original; b) carried out in a systematic way; and c)

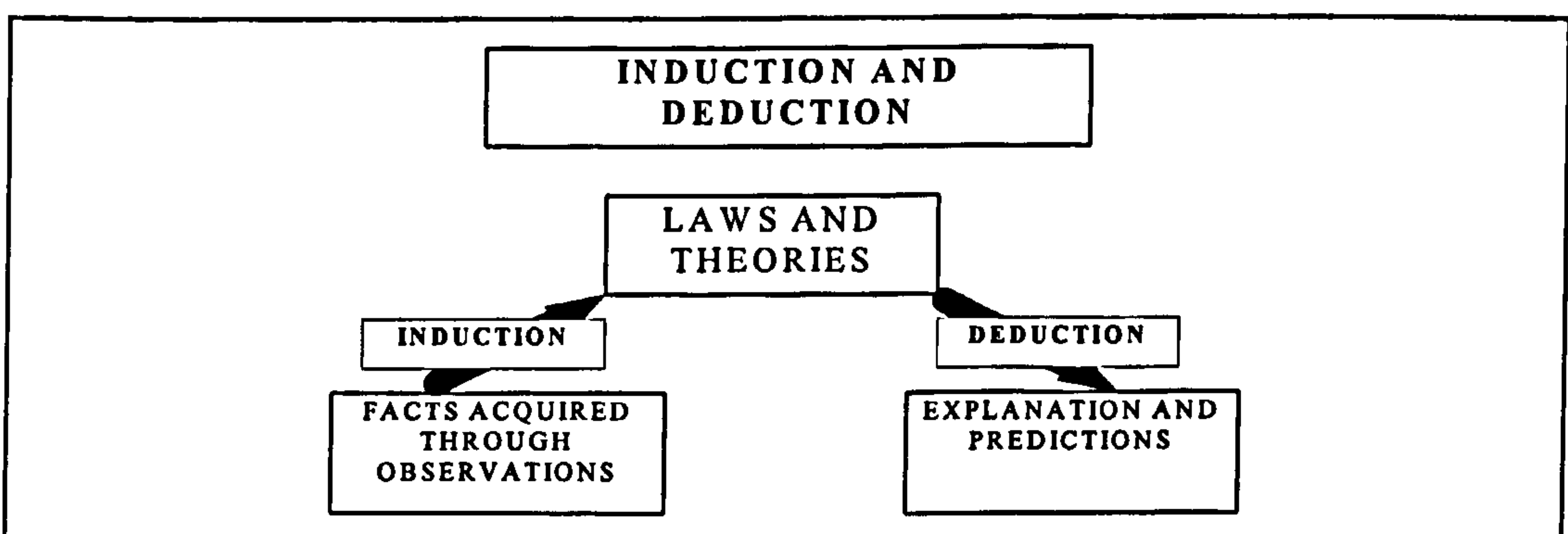
observed the required level of transparency in all areas, for the work to be both arguable and ultimately contestable.

Finally in this section, the author felt it important to outline the role and contribution made to this study, by the original researchers of the *market maven*. The replication study approach employed here was clearly dependant upon being able to locate and obtain the assistance of Dr. Lawrence Feick and Dr. Linda Price. Very soon after initial contact was made, they agreed that the basic premise behind the research (to test if the *market maven* construct was valid in a UK context), was a viable and interesting development of their earlier work. Whilst the Feick and Price (1987) article was comprehensive in nature, the all important questionnaire was not included. The provision of this (and other supporting documents by Feick and Price), to the author, made this replication study possible, and for this the author remains indebted.

6.1 Methodological Approach

The two main methodological approaches for undertaking research are the inductive and the deductive approaches (see Figure 6-1). The inductive approach was based upon empirical evidence, the deductive on logic (Chalmers 1982, Witcher 1990).

Figure 6-1 *The Research Process*



Source: Chalmers (1982 p6)

Induction is based upon the gathering of empirical observations, from which researchers make assumptions and thus develop conclusions. For example, one may collect information on the number of trains cancelled due to illness amongst train drivers (data). The assumption that may then be stated, is that doctors have found that illness amongst train drivers depends upon their patterns of exercise during their teenage years. The conclusion is therefore, that all health problems are related to teenage patterns of exercise. Clearly in the scenario outlined above, there remains the possibility that generally, train drivers have significantly different patterns of influencing factors which lead to illness; there also remains the possibility that the particular sample of train drivers were abnormal. It is therefore generally accepted that inductive conclusions cannot be 100 per cent certain.

The deductive approach is based upon the process of facts (acquired through observation), guiding the development of theories and hypotheses, which are, through the process of deduction (logical reasoning), either accepted or rejected (Green et al. 1988, Kerlinger 1973). An example of the deductive approach, would be firstly to state the assumption that ice melts when heated. The second assumption would be that icebergs are made of ice. The conclusion being, that icebergs melt when heated.

Ghuri, et al. (1994) champions the “hypothetico-deductive” approach (a combination of the above mentioned methods), positing that most researchers and scientists have (often unwittingly), been making use of both complementary processes. Clearly the research process should ideally begin with an inductive investigation of the particular field of interest; closely followed by a period of consolidation (characterised by the drawing of general hypotheses), the testing of which, often leads to the establishment of cyclical patterns of research, which (by alternating between induction and deduction), result in both hypothesis testing / refinement and the development of yet more general hypotheses, in new areas of interest. The research methodology employed in this study is heavily biased in favour of the deductive approach, given the primary desire to test others’ work.

6.2 Research Problem, Propositions and Hypotheses

The process of developing general research aims into, a research problem, followed by research propositions and hypotheses was not a straightforward task, particularly when there seems to be little consensus as to what was “best practice”. The author found numerous cases of academic research, which after having outlined general aims, went directly into specific hypotheses. Others (much more deliberate in nature) stated aims, developed a research problem (in the form of a question), and then went on to clearly define their “testable” hypothesis. Clearly the latter approach was (in the interest of clarity and ultimate understanding), by far the best approach, and was the method favoured by the author.

By utilising Confirmatory Factor Analysis (specifically LISREL), Feick and Price (1987) established the validity of their *market maven* construct to the satisfaction of their peers. They also investigated *market maven* behaviour across product categories and their awareness of specific new brands. This ground-breaking research was carried out solely in the USA, and had yet to be tested elsewhere. The immediate question raised by this pioneering work, was whether or not the *market maven* construct was strictly an American phenomenon, not present elsewhere, or was this type of diffuser of marketplace information, present in other countries / societies (as was the case with opinion leaders). Whilst this may have been seen by some as a laudable objective and clearly of particular relevance to the authors research, whether there would be sufficient “originality” in this approach (to satisfy the criteria previously discussed in section 6.0) was questionable. It was apparent to the author that further investigation was required.

The fact that Feick and Price (1987) saw their work as exploratory in nature, and by their own admittance felt it “premature to anticipate the demographic profile of this

group,” allowed the author significant scope to ameliorate the concern expressed over the level of “original” contribution. Specifically, it enabled this study to build upon the embryonic process of identification and categorisation of the *market maven* started by Feick and Price (1987). However, the procedural rigours imposed by a strict replication study approach, meant that in order to glean any further demographic information, additional questions had to be asked (as any deletions would dilute the comparative nature of the work). Significant additions, would have further lengthened the already significant amount of time required to complete the questionnaire. In the end, it was decided to incorporate a limited number of new classification / demographic questions, in order to both add to Feick and Price’s (1987) earlier study, and satisfy the author’s desire to make a personal / original contribution.

6.2.1 Investigating a Specific Product Category

After much deliberation, the required balance was achieved in two related but distinct ways. Firstly this was done by substituting Feick and Price’s (1987) general product categories, for a much more focused analysis of the *market maven*’s awareness of a specific product category (that of pasta based foods and associated products). The author’s use of pasta based foods and associated products, was not an arbitrary choice, as the sector had a number of uniquely favourable attributes, including;

- Pasta and pasta-based foods had been part of the UK grocery scene, for at least fifty years.
- Pasta and pasta-based foods were present in all stages of the product life-cycle (from introduction stage through to decline).
- At the time of writing, the pasta and pasta-based foods sector was still the largest of the UK ethnic food sectors.
- The pasta and pasta-based foods sector, was considered by many in the food industry, as *the* most versatile and consistently successful sector, with many successful new products launched every year.

Of particular relevance to this work, these attributes meant that respondents' general awareness of this food category could be justifiably accepted as high (even if adoption was not).

6.2.2 Investigating Factors Said to Influence Ethnic Food Adoption

As detailed in the literature review, there were a number of factors said to influence ethnic food adoption, namely; a) international travel; b) mass media; c) the presence of ethnic minorities; d) increased restaurant patronage. These factors had in the author's opinion been perpetuated as "truisms", without there having been much in way of research evidence to support them. This work, offered the clear opportunity of beginning the process of supporting or rejecting such "truisms", by incorporating them into research which not only already focused respondent's minds on awareness and adoption of ethnic food products, but uniquely, was in a position to compare the responses of *market mavens* (who were said to be unique amongst word-of-mouth influencers, in that they actively "absorb" information, from a wide variety of sources, on a wide variety of subjects, in a wide variety of situations), against individuals with significantly less awareness of general marketplace issues.

6.2.3 The Broad Research Problem

To be read in conjunction with sections 2.1 (General Research Aims) and 2.2 (The Research Objectives), the broad research problem for this study was;

"Using a replication study approach to test current *Market maven* theory in a UK context, can we identify, measure and further develop this seemingly influential and clearly overlooked internal word-of-mouth diffuser of marketplace information?"

6.2.4 Propositions, Hypotheses and the Examination of Relationships

Before stating the hypotheses to be tested in this study, the author felt it wise to discuss (albeit briefly), key differences between propositions and hypotheses.

Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), judged propositions to be part of the conceptual frameworks theory, in which “descriptive categories are systematically placed in a broad structure of explicit propositions”, and believed that propositions were “statements of relationships between two or more empirical properties to be accepted or rejected” (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). Neuman (1994) on the other hand, defined a proposition as a “logical statement that a causal relationship exists between two concepts - a relationship expressed in a theory”. His example of a proposition was “economic distress among the white population caused an increase in mob violence against African Americans” (Neuman 1994). Bailey (1994) believed that propositions were “simply statements about one or more concepts or variables”, and whilst concepts were considered to be the building blocks of propositions, propositions were (in turn), the building blocks of theories.

Kerlinger (1973) defined a hypothesis as “a conjectural statement of the relationship between two or more variables”. He also suggested that there were two criteria for what he termed “good” hypotheses and hypothesis statements; a) that “hypotheses are statements between variables”; and b) that “hypotheses carry clear implications for testing the stated relations”. A statement that lacked either or both these characteristics was said to be “no hypothesis in the scientific sense of the word” (Kerlinger 1973).

Galtung (1973) was arguably the first to defined the *difference* between propositions and hypotheses. He believed that “propositions are about how the world is, hypotheses are about how we expect it to be”, and concluded that “a proposition is said to be a tenable / confirmed hypothesis”.

The notion that research propositions had a number of subtypes (called hypotheses, empirical generalisations, axioms, postulates, and theorems), was proposed by Bailey (1994). He went on to argue that a hypothesis “is a proposition that is stated in testable form, and predicts a relationship between two or more variables”, and defining it as “a tentative explanation for which the evidence necessary for testing it, is at least potentially available”. Finally, Neuman (1994) believed that only when many studies have tested a particular hypothesis, and found support for it, could researchers then begin to consider the proposition to which it related, to be a true one. This general view is supported by the work of Smith (1991) and Bacharach (1989).

In light of the above discussion, author believes that it is appropriate at this point, to state both research propositions and the hypotheses used to test them.

6.2.5 Research Propositions

Having established the basic concepts underpinning this study (primarily the diffusion of innovation and the influence of word-of-mouth communication), and clarified the difference between propositions and hypotheses, the next step was to define the propositions.

The following, are the general propositions to be tested in this study, and evolved from the two main research aims as stated in section 2.1:

- P1: The *market maven* construct as propounded by Feick and Price (1987), is not only a US phenomenon, by is also present in the UK.
- P2: The *market maven* construct is significantly distinct from the opinion leader and early adopter categories of word-of-mouth information providers.

- P3: *Market mavens* possess unique demographic and or classification profiles, which distinguish them from other members of the population.
- P4: *Market mavens* assign significantly higher importance to new food item sources of information, than do other respondents.
- P5: Respondents in general, and *market mavens* in particular, believe that international travel, the presence of ethnic minorities in a host population, television programmes, restaurant patronage and the print media, influence their food consumption patterns.

The first two propositions were clearly aimed at the satisfying the replication / comparative study issues inherent in this research. The third was aimed at furthering the process of identifying what demographic characteristics *market mavens* possess. The fourth was predicated upon the author's view, that *market mavens* should assign significantly higher importance ratings to all sources of information, than any other respondent. Finally, using the *market maven* construct as a "control", the fifth proposition intended to test those factors said to influence the adoption of ethnic foods.

6.2.6 Operationalized Aims - Specific Hypotheses to be Tested

This section aims to provide the reader with a clear, unambiguous statement of the specific hypotheses to be tested by this research, which were developed from the general statements made in the previous section.

As stated in chapter three, Feick and Price (1987) forwarded a well-reasoned (and empirically supported), argument for the existence of the *market maven* construct. However the author considered it potentially dangerous to accept (without question), that the *market maven* construct was present outside the US. Therefore, this first set of specific hypotheses refer to general research aims mentioned in section 2.1, and were

intended to establish both the underlying robustness of the construct measures, and their applicability in a UK context. Thus;

H_0 - The techniques used to identify the *market maven* construct forwarded by Feick and Price (1987), do not appear to be measuring the same behaviour in a UK context.

In the author's opinion the next logical step in the process, was to ascertain whether or not the *market maven* construct existed in a UK context. Thus;

H_0 - The same methodology, used to identify the *market maven* construct forwarded by Feick and Price (1987), does not indicate the presence of *market mavens* in the UK.

Having established the existence of the *market maven* construct, the replication study approach allowed comparisons to be drawn between the two studies, with the primary goal of reporting similarities and / or differences. Thus:

H_0 - Whilst the *market maven* construct is evident in the UK, there are no significant similarities between the two studies.

Developed from the third general hypothesis, this second set of specific hypotheses were aimed at improving our knowledge of the demographic profile of the *market maven*. To this end the author tested whether or not age, gender, employment, marital status, household size, education, qualification, country of birth, ethnic background and income were correlated with a propensity to be *market mavens*. Thus;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the age of respondents and their *market maven* score.

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the gender of a respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the employment status of a respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the marital status of a respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between household size reported by the respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the highest level of education attained by the respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the qualifications obtained by the respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the country of birth of the respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the ethnic background of the respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the total annual household income reported by the respondents and their *market maven* score.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the geographical location of respondents and their *market maven* score.

The fourth general hypothesis, was designed to test what the author believes to be an underlying and underdeveloped assertion in Feick and Price (1987); specifically, that *market mavens* are significantly more active in the general information gathering process than are other members of a social system. Question 26 of the questionnaire was (in the author's opinion), a measure of this tendency, and whilst it could clearly be argued that assigning importance to an information source was not the same as eliciting a measure of *use* of the particular source, this question would go some way in

building up a picture of general respondent behaviour, and compare that with *market maven* behaviour. The specific hypothesis to be tested was therefore;

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the degree of importance assigned by respondents to a variety of potential sources of new food products information and their *market maven* score.

The sixth general hypothesis, aimed at testing the influence of international travel, ethnic minorities, television, restaurant patronage and the print media, upon the adoption of food products in general and ethnic foods in particular, was tested by this final set of specific hypotheses. The underlying rationale was firstly to observe the general attitude to the statements used to measure each posited influence, then, to compare these scores with those of respondents considered *market mavens*. Predicated upon the confirmation of the existence of the *market maven* category in the UK, the author posited that if any category of respondent was aware of the influence that various external factors have upon them, *market mavens* (with their postulated general increased attention to all types of information sources), should prove to be a reliable reference point. Finally therefore, this study tested whether;

H₀ - A significant majority of respondents do not feel that their food consumption habits are influenced by international travel, ethnic minorities, television, restaurant patronage or the print media.

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the respondent's responses to the statements regarding the influence of international travel, ethnic minorities, television, restaurant patronage or the print media and their *market maven* score.

6.3 The Pilot Study

6.3.1 Introduction

In any research programme, undertaking a pilot study is considered essential (Oppenheim 1992; Bryman 1995). In the case of a replication study, the author considered it doubly so, as it was tempting to assume that all possible defects had been corrected by previous researchers. Furthermore, when dealing with a relatively under developed / researched area, researchers can also make the error of accepting (without challenge), that the underlying premises are robust. In order to avoid such errors, it was deemed to be prudent to; a) pilot the questionnaire; b) consider the views of a panel of experts; and c) analyse the data for construct validity; before attempting the full survey.

The following sections will deal exclusively with the administration and analysis of the pilot study, and a discussion of the views of the panel of experts. It will not include a discussion of the changes made to the original questionnaire, as this will be dealt with in a later section.

6.3.2 Administering the Pilot Study

A pilot telephone survey, comprising 40 randomly chosen numbers from the British Telecom telephone directory was conducted in the town of Luton, Bedfordshire during the second week of February 1995. Administered personally by the author, the questionnaire had only minor changes from that originally administered by Feick and Price (1987). Modifications were limited to substituting US brands (which were not present in the UK marketplace), with similar products, readily available in the UK. At this stage, all other variables remained the same.

Few problems arose at this early stage. The main one, was ascertaining who considered themselves to be the “male / female head of the household”. This was part of the opening preamble, and was used as a screening question. However, much time was lost whilst the members of the household; a) determined what was meant by the “head of the household”; b) decided who that was; and c) tried (often fruitlessly), to locate them.

6.3.3 The Use of a Panel of Experts

Oppenheim (1992), suggested that whilst experts can be useful in detecting technical errors in questionnaires, they are not substitutes for a properly conducted pilot study. Nevertheless he felt that it “may be interesting to have an expert pick your questions to pieces”. Thus, prior to the pilot study phase of this research, letters and photocopies of the first draft of the questionnaire (largely unchanged from the Feick and Price original), were sent out to twelve respected UK marketing academics and market research practitioners. They were asked to review the questionnaire for content, style and flow and to highlight any other issues that they considered to be pertinent. The panel of experts were not given detailed information about the study, but were told that it was primarily concerned with consumer behaviour. However, after studying the questionnaire, the experts often developed their own assumptions as to the nature of the work.

Four of the original twelve experts responded in a constructive manner, with broadly similar concerns. The most significant being a unanimous disquiet at the length of the questionnaire, which they considered to be far too long for the average respondent to complete. It would have been interesting to know, what their response would have been had they known that it was to be administered by telephone! Another major concern was expressed in relation to questions 18, 18A and 18B, where it was felt that whilst the trio of questions may have led to some interesting data sets, there was little of direct relevance to the study.

Other minor concerns (relating to aspects of the language and phrasing), were noted and where possible, corrected. However, as many of the panel of experts' concerns were confirmed by the findings of the pilot study, the author refers the reader to the pilot study results section, and to the final questionnaire section of this thesis, for a more comprehensive discussion.

6.3.4 Testing Market Mavenness for Construct Validity

When undertaking research in a relatively new and developing area such as this, it is important to be satisfied that the main underlying theoretical premises are valid before progressing. This is particularly important when one is undertaking a replication study based on theory developed in another socio-economic environment, as was the case here. It was therefore considered necessary (at the pilot study stage), to test the soundness of the six *market maven* scale items used by Feick and Price (1987), by ensuring that they were indeed measuring *market mavenness* (rather than some other underlying characteristic of the respondent), given that this point there was no reason to believe that the *market maven* construct could be detected in the UK, using the same methods that had been used in a US context.

Before continuing, the author considered this to be an appropriate point at which to relate a minor misgiving regarding the interpretation / modification by Feick and Price (1987), of the King and Summers opinion leadership scale (King and Summers 1970). In their paper Feick and Price (1987), indicated that they used all seven of King and Summers' opinion leadership scale items, in order to measure the discriminant validity of both the *market maven* measures and the opinion leadership measures. The extent to which the King and Summers scale items were faithful reproductions of the originals is not known as they are not reproduced within the paper, but simply cited as a reference. However in the final Feick and Price (1987) questionnaire there are no exact copies of the six King and Summers scale items, these having been substituted by three

(somewhat modified, but recognisably King and Summers inspired) questions. The Feick and Price (1987) *market maven* measures were questions 3b, 3f, 3g, 3j, 3k, and question 12. The two Feick and Price (1987) opinion leadership measures were questions 4 and 6, and the three remaining King and Summers questions were 7c, 7d, and 7e.

After detailed consideration and analysis, the author felt that testing the construct for validity would either confirm or refute the view that the modified scale items were ultimately measuring the same behaviour. This was accomplished in section 7.3 and the author decided to continue the study, employing Feick and Price's (1987) modifications.

6.3.5 Available Tests of Construct Validity

There are two applicable tests for construct validity, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity (Churchill 1991). In the next two sections the author will briefly explain how the tests work, and report the construct validity results of the pilot study.

6.3.6 Testing Market Mavenness Using Convergent Validity

Churchill (1991) suggested that for ultimate assuredness, "a construct should be measurable by several different methods," and that the methods should be "independent insofar as possible". Responses to such measures should then exhibit a high level of correlation in the expected direction. This method of testing construct validity is termed Convergent Validity.

In the pilot study a high level of correlation between the measures existed. Over twenty percent of respondents scored high on all the *market maven* scale items and had high positive correlations between the scores. Conversely, over fifty percent of the sample

scored consistently low on all the *market maven* scale items, again with high positive correlations between the scores. There was no observed occurrence of the same respondent alternating between high *market mavenness* and low *market mavenness* scores, and only two respondents consistently maintained a neutral “neither agree or disagree” stance.

6.3.7 Examining the Discriminant Validity of the Market Maven Measures

Discriminant validity can be confirmed when there are low levels of correlation between measures which are supposed to be measuring opposing characteristics. In this instance, discriminant validity was confirmed amongst all the six scale items. For example, those who scored high on the *market maven* scale item “I like helping people by providing them with information about many kinds of products,” consistently replied “yes” to the question “Do you think that you ever influence other people in their purchase of or opinions about the product which you consider most knowledgeable about?” If the response had been consistently “no”, the tenet that the *market maven* is active in information diffusion and dissemination, could have been called into question.

6.4 The Questionnaire Design

In this section, the author will consider the design of the questionnaire for the full survey, and will highlight changes that were made due to the results of the pilot study, and those required to obtain data on the product categories, of particular interest here. For reasons of clarity and ease of understanding, changes to the original questionnaire will be included within the general discussion, rather than separating them into a discrete section. On the whole however, the replication study methodology employed for this research, required that the bulk of the questions remain faithful copies of the original Feick and Price (1987) study.

6.4.1 Opening Statement

In the original study, the opening statement included a request to speak to the “male / female head of the household”. As previously mentioned, this caused problems in the pilot study, and was dropped from the full survey. Instead, the market research interviewers were instructed to use their discretion but to endeavour to avoid interviewing minors.

6.4.2 Questions 1 and 2

The first two questions were used to elicit the extent to which the respondent enjoyed shopping, and to ascertain *who* in the household had most responsibility for shopping.

6.4.3 Question 3

Probably the most important question of the survey, question three was subdivided into the twelve self selecting questions used to measure opinion leadership, early purchaser (adopter) and *market maven* behaviour.

6.4.4 Question 4, 5, 6 and 7

The author assumed that the original reason for asking these questions, was to further test the *market mavenness* of the respondents. This was done by asking them to think generally, then focus specifically, upon the product or service which they considered to be “most knowledgeable” about. Whilst concentrating upon the particular product, the respondents were again asked to respond to the five most directly applicable *market maven* measures.

6.4.5 Question 8 to 11

In questions eight to eleven, respondents were asked; a) whether they knew someone who was very knowledgeable about a *particular* product or service; b) what product(s) they were knowledgeable about; c) the degree to which this person was important to them for finding out about new brands and models; d) how important the person was to them, in the evaluation of different brands or models of this type of product. These questions were clearly aimed at ascertaining information on product specialists.

6.4.6 Question 12

Somewhat strangely positioned between two sets of similar questions, question twelve asked the respondent to think about a person who has all the attributes of a *market maven* and then asked the question "...tell me how well this description fits you". This was clearly an attempt to force the respondent into considering the extent to which they believed themselves to be *market mavens*.

6.4.7 Questions 13 to 17

Fundamental to *market maven* theory (posited by Feick and Price (1987), was that the *market maven* construct could only be considered valid, if people were also able to identify others as *market mavens*. This section of the questionnaire was clearly designed to test this theory. Identical in many ways to questions eight to eleven, the respondent was asked whether were are able to identify someone "other than themselves" who had "general marketplace information on a variety of products and who liked to share this information with others". Again they were asked; a) how important this person was to them for finding out about new brands and models; and b) how important the person was to them, in the evaluation of different brands or models of the type of product chosen.

Questions sixteen and seventeen were used to ascertain if the respondent also considered the person identified as a *market maven* to have specific product knowledge. Given the theories posited by Feick and Price (1987), the author assumed this to be a control question, given that (in the main), product generalists should not be considered by others as product specialists.

6.4.8 Questions 18 and 19

Up to this point in the questionnaire, the questions were identical to the original Feick and Price (1987) study. From this section forward (whilst the author continued to use the same question style and order), there was a difference in emphasis, as the focus changed to exploring awareness and adoption patterns of pasta and related products. Questions eighteen and nineteen begin this process, by ascertaining general information upon the level of enjoyment and frequency of food buying.

6.4.9 Question 20

In their original study, Feick and Price (1987), posited that general marketplace influencers such as *market mavens* were more likely to be aware of (and therefore use), coupons than other consumers. This was based upon the fact that the mean respondent score from their survey was 3.24 (3.00 being “some of the time”), whilst the mean for those responding high on the *market maven* score was 3.45 (4.00 equating to “most of the time”). However, in the pilot study carried out for this work, all forty respondents stated that they “hardly ever” or “never” used coupons when shopping for food products, and therefore eliminating this question from the full survey was considered. But, after further consideration and detailed discussion, the author decided to retain it; a) as it had been considered (in the original study), to be a reliable and significant indicator of *market mavenness*; and b) to test whether the use of coupons in the UK food sector was significantly less than in the US.

6.4.10 Question 21

Clearly a “control” question, question 21 attempted to examine the adoption patterns of food products amongst the respondents, and was closely related to Rogers’ diffusion of innovations categories (Rogers 1962).

6.4.11 Questions 22 to 25

This section was similar to the food and general household / non prescription drugs and health and beauty products sections employed by Feick and Price (1987). It ascertained respondent’s; a) adoption; b) new product trial; c) information search; and d) information dissemination; of pasta, pasta based foods and associated products and sauces.

6.4.12 Question 26

Question twenty-six asked the respondent to rate in terms of importance to them, a list of eight sources of information for new food items, ranging from free samples, to television and browsing / shopping. Past research suggested that those scoring high on the *market maven* scale, should also accord consistently higher importance to *all* the sources of information (Feick and Price 1987).

6.4.13 Question 27

Containing a number of recently launched products, this question aimed to test the previous studies’ assertion that whilst *market mavens* were said to be generally more aware of new products than other respondents, their awareness was not necessarily due to adoption. Feick and Price (1987), considered this the prime factor which distinguished *market mavens* from the early purchaser / adopter category.

Finally in relation to this particular question, “La Favola” Egg Pasta was a non-existent product, primarily employed as a test for what Feick and Price 1987 termed “yea-saying,” (the practice of automatically responding “yes” to a series of questions).

6.4.14 Question 28 and 29

Question twenty-eight and twenty-nine covered general magazine readership and readership of the popular "Which" consumer association magazine. Once again, this was included in order to test Feick and Price's (1987) findings, that *market mavens* were not only avid magazine readers, but in particular, regularly read magazines dedicated to consumer issues.

In this instance, there was a significant difference between the results of Feick and Price (1987), and the results of the pilot study conducted here in the UK. In particular in answer to a question on general magazine readership, none of the respondents subscribed to the magazines they read. Given the level of subscription rates here in the UK, it was decided to drop this particular part of the original readership question.

6.4.15 Question 30 and 31

In the original study there was a positive correlation between the *market maven* score and the average number of hours of television watched per day, giving credence to the view that *market mavens* absorb information from many sources including television. Given the different viewing patterns between the UK and US, the relatively small public broadcast sector in the US and diverse regulatory and cultural factors which may affect television viewing patterns, retaining this question was considered more than just valid for replication reasons.

6.4.16 Question 32

This five part question aimed to directly assess the oft stated assertion that; a) increased international travel; b) contact with members of the ethnic minority community; c) the growth of television programmes featuring international cuisine; d) increased restaurant patronage; and e) the explosion of recipe ideas in print media; had contributed to the growth in UK ethnic food consumption.

In the author's opinion it would have been counter-productive to ask questions which developed into what were essentially memory tests. Questions such as "When was the last time you visited an Indian restaurant," obviously favour those who go on a regular basis. Those who go "just for a change", would in the author's opinion be more likely to (unwittingly), give erroneous responses.

More importantly what information would this type of question elicit? Would it be correct to assume (for example), that someone who never missed a television cookery programme was significantly more likely to have adopted (as part of their everyday diet), a dish that they once saw being prepared? The nature of the relationship between these two factors has not been tested. And, as a hypothesis it is clearly contestable. For this reason the author attempted to remove all possible ambiguity, and (rather than ask general questions), decided to present a series of statements to which a level of agreement / disagreement could be expressed.

6.4.17 The Final Section

This section contained thirteen questions intended to improve upon the somewhat limited demographic profile of a *market maven* forwarded by Feick and Price (1987). For ease of comparison / extrapolation, it was based upon 1992 Central Statistical Office Census questions.

6.4.18 Major Modifications to the Feick and Price Questionnaire

Minor modifications to the Feick and Price questionnaire have been dealt with in the preceding section of this thesis. However, given the use of replication study methodology, the author considered it essential at this point, to discuss the reasoning behind the major deletions.

6.4.19 Not Employing the Two Sub-Set Approach

In Feick and Prices' (1987) original work, their stated aim was to "examine a range of product categories" and to that end they employed two versions of their questionnaire, one with a section dedicated to food and general household goods, the other non-prescription drugs and health and beauty products. However, apart from some minor factors (discussed in the results section), there was little difference between the two groups. For that reason and given the limitations of this work, the author decided not to employ a similar strategy, and thus chose to utilise all the available resources in the pursuit of answers specific to the ethnic foods issue.

6.4.20 Deleting the Question Regarding Types of Magazines

It was clear that questions 18, 18A and 18B of the original questionnaire, were specifically intended to ascertain the respondents reaction to advertising messages delivered via two different types of magazines. Further, the respondents were asked to indicate whether their reaction to advertising for a particular product category would be the same in two differing magazines. Finally, if indeed the reaction was different, the respondents were asked to state whether they would react more favourably to the hypothetical advertisement if it were in; a) a news-weekly; or b) a women's magazine. The results, at the pilot stage, suggested that respondents were being confused, as thirty-eight out of forty responses answered "don't know". The panel of experts also questioned the relevance of these particular questions. As no mention was made in Feick and Price (1987), of the findings of these particular variables, it was decided to eliminate these questions from this study.

6.5 Sampling Procedure

6.5.1 Introduction

This section of the thesis will discuss the sampling procedure adopted for this study. Beginning with the definition of the population, the sampling frame will be identified, sampling procedure explained and the reasoning behind the choice of sample size /

sample elements detailed. It will conclude with a section on the specific data collection procedure employed.

6.5.2 Population Definition

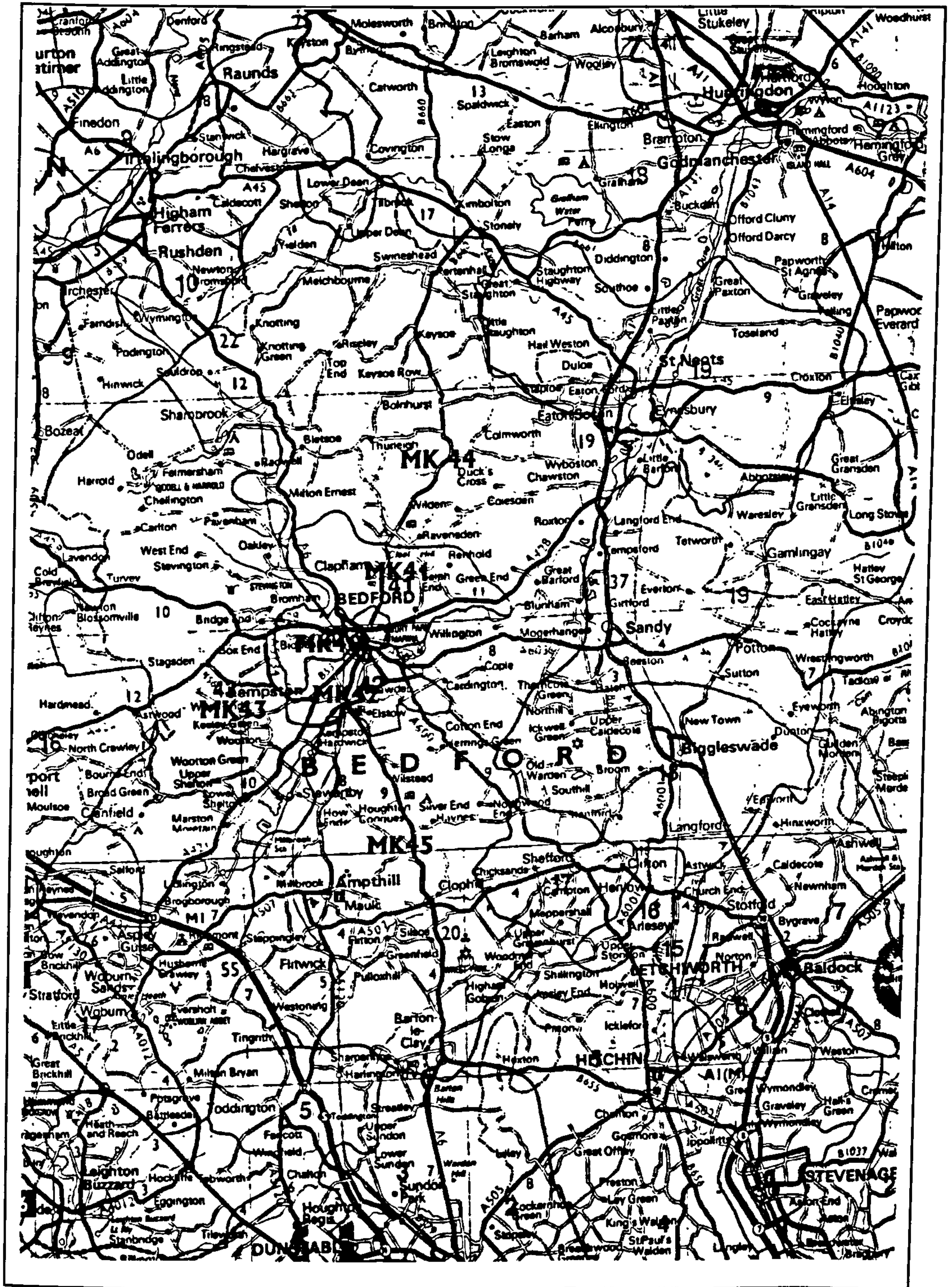
Given the inherent constraints of a replication study, defining the population of interest was relatively straightforward; in methodological terms, it was a close copy of the original Feick and Price (1987) study. However, the small but significant changes indicated by the pilot study, meant that here, any adult over the age of eighteen (regardless of gender) would be considered a valid respondent, and whilst private households were targeted, commercial establishments, places of work and / or entertainment, were expressly excluded.

In terms of geographic boundaries, the study was significantly different to Feick and Price (1987), in that it was not a nation-wide survey but limited to postcode areas MK40 - MK 45. Covering both urban, suburban and rural districts it has at its centre the county town of Bedford (see Figure 6-2).

The area was chosen primarily for its proximity to both the author and to the company undertaking the data collection, thus containing background research and telephone interview costs. Another advantage was its relatively large immigrant community, which (as discussed earlier), is often cited as a major influence in the diffusion of ethnic foods.

Clearly, comparisons needed to be drawn between the findings of this research and official statistics available for the area. Rather than continually referring the reader to a set of tables in the appendix, the author felt this would be best undertaken in the findings section of this thesis.

Figure 6-2 Map of the County of Bedfordshire Indicating the Postcode areas MK40 - MK45



Feick and Price's (1987) nation-wide study covered approximately 200 million Americans in forty-eight states, eliciting 1531 responses (or one per every 130,633 Americans). This study, whilst concentrated in a much smaller area surveyed one per every 137,500 UK citizen. However, if one considers that the Feick and Price study was split into two sub-samples (the food sub-sample and the drug sub-sample), the comparable response rate for their study is significantly lower at only one per every 261,266 Americans.

6.5.3 The Sampling Frame and Sampling Procedure

Telephone surveys undertaken in the UK posed certain problems not faced by our US counterparts, as legal restrictions governed the format in which British Telecom could sell telephone subscriber data in the UK. For this reason it was not possible to employ random digit dialling (as used by Feick and Price (1987)). In this study, the sampling frame was the British Telecom telephone directory for the Bedford and District area.

As random digit dialling was not possible, computer generated lists of random numbers up to the integer 300 were produced and distributed to each interviewer. Having been sequentially ordered, the interviewers (starting from the first valid number), proceeded to dial the telephone numbers in a sequence corresponding to the randomly generated list. This was as close to simple random sampling as was possible, given the complicating factors discussed above. The limitations and biases of such an approach are widely documented in the literature, and mainly refer to biases that may be introduced by the exclusion from the sample frame of potential respondents who do not have access to telephones. (Oppenheim 1992; Churchill 1991; Cochran 1977). However, of greater concern to the author was the growing percentage of ex-directory subscribers.

Clearly a sensitive issue, British Telecom would not provide official figures for the number of ex-directory subscribers in the sample area, but the author was unofficially informed, that approximately 20% of all British Telecom subscribers in the UK were ex-directory; a figure which approached 50% in London and other major cities. The growth in both cellular telephone usage, and alternative telephone service providers (who do not publish directories), are set to add to the growing problem of using telephone communications in this type of research.

6.5.4 Telephone Survey Issues

The three main survey research methods used to obtain information from respondents are mail questionnaires, personal interviews and telephone surveys. All have inherent strengths and weaknesses, as indicated in Table 6-1. Given the replication study nature of the work though, the author's choice was restricted from the outset to the telephone survey. Nevertheless this section will compare the relative merits and demerits of employing such a technique.

Table 6-1 Evaluation Of Three Survey Methods

| Criterion | Personal Interview | Mail | Telephone |
|--|---------------------------|-------------|------------------|
| Cost | High | Low | Moderate |
| Response Rate | High | Low | High |
| Control of Interview Situation | High | Low | Moderate |
| Applicability to Geographically Dispersed Population | Moderate | High | Moderate |
| Applicability to Heterogeneous Populations | High | Low | High |
| Collection of Detailed Information | High | Moderate | Moderate |
| Speed | Low | Low | High |

(Source: Nachmias 1992:234)

Considered a semi-personal method of collecting information, telephone interviews were for a time considered far too prone to bias to be of practical use, as a significant portion of the population (those considered to be less affluent), did not have access. However the increased adoption of the telephone (up from 73% of US households in 1958 to 98% in the late 1980's), has to a great extent invalidated this concern. The

growing cost of personal interviews, coupled with a reluctance (on the part of an increasingly wary populace), to admit strangers into the home, had contributed to the further popularisation of the telephone survey as a cost effective technique (Nachmias 1992).

In terms of efficiency Oppenheim (1992), stated “the most obvious advantage of conducting structured interviews by telephone is their low cost. It has been estimated that face-to-face interviewers spend only about one third of their time in conducting interviews, the remainder of their time being taken up by travel and by locating respondents”.

Comparative / replication studies, comparing the results of personal interview surveys and telephone surveys, did much to allay the concern that the latter of the two techniques led to the interviewing of significantly different respondents, and thus to significantly different results (Klecka and Tuchfarber 1978; Sudman and Bradburn 1982; Groves and Kahn 1979).

Nachmias (1992) also forwarded the view that telephone interviewing “tends to increase the quality of the data”, as in the main, this type of research is undertaken from a central office, which affords a level of control and monitoring not attainable in the personal interview.

Parten (1966) stated that detailed or lengthy information was difficult to obtain by telephone, as most people expect telephone calls to be short and that respondents are more likely to lose their motivation and desire to co-operate if the interview is lengthy. The author also suggests that there was an increased likelihood to give distorted responses or even hang up at a critical stage, thus “getting even” with the interviewer for disturbing them. However more recent work refutes the “interviewee fatigue” theory, suggesting that telephone interviews are no more (or less) prone to this phenomenon than any other technique, and that questionnaire length was not a critical factor (Dillman 1978; Groves and Kahn 1979).

On the negative side, telephone interviewing was said to lead to an increase in non-response due to the early termination of interviews (a rare phenomenon in personal interviews), and there was a growing reluctance to divulge financial information and political views using this technique (Nachmias 1992; Miller 1991).

6.6 Determining Sample Size

Nothing reported in previous studies lead the author to believe that early purchasers (adopters), opinion leaders or indeed general marketplace influencers were anything but equally distributed in today's society, especially in geographic terms. Having accepted this, a general survey with low sampling ratio employing a simple random sample technique was considered appropriate.

Nevertheless arriving at a suitably valid sample size, was less than straightforward, given the many estimation techniques available. This was the one aspect which consistently elicited the most varied of opinions amongst established academics and fellow researchers alike, typical responses ranging from "why bother?" through "how big is your budget?" to "the bigger the better!" Respected authors specialising in the subject (Kish 1965), reiterated the complex nature of many of the solutions proffered. This was not helped by the characteristics of this particular study, which (for example), did not lend itself well to techniques originally developed for testing engineering materials. Nevertheless, two techniques were found to be valid in this instance, the first being sample size determination when estimating proportions, and the second based upon calculating standard errors. The following sections will discuss each in turn, together with a more generalised discussion of the constraints which led to the determination of the sample size.

6.6.1 Estimating Sample Size Using Standard Error as a Guide

One method which can be applied to estimate a required sample size requires the calculation of standard error (Yates 1953; Sampford 1962; Green et al. 1988). In a random sample of n ($n - 1$ degrees of freedom) from a normal distribution with standard deviation σ the standard error of s is given by;

$$S.E.(s) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\{2(n-1)\}}}$$

thus, if the standard deviation required is set at 2 and the sample at 400, the following result emerges;

$$S.E.(s) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{798}} = \pm 0.07$$

If *market mavenness* conforms to the normal law of variation, one can expect a random sample of 400 respondents to exhibit a standard error of ± 0.07 . This is in keeping with the results of Feick and Price (1987), where those considered to be in the high *market maven* category gave responses (relating to the measures of innovativeness, information provision, search activities and market attentiveness within the food sub-sample), with associated standard errors falling within the range 0.05 and 0.15.

6.6.2 Sample Size Determination When Estimating Proportions

Churchill (1991:592) suggested the following equation;

$$n = \frac{z^2}{H^2} \pi (1 - \pi).$$

as a valid method for determining sample size, particularly when one is interested in ascertaining a specific behavioural trait of a proportion of a population. Given that the

main research focus is to determine whether the *market maven* construct is present in the UK, this was also considered an appropriate technique.

In this instance, the author was interested in estimating the proportion of all the people in our sample who scored “High” on the *market maven* scale. Given the exploratory nature of the study, the estimate was considered acceptable within a range of ± 5 percentage points at the 95% confidence level. However, Churchill (1991) stated that, “the equation at this stage still contains two unknowns the population proportion being estimated and the sample size”, and thus was still not solvable. What was required therefore, was an estimate of the population proportion.

Past studies and published data are often forwarded as possible sources of an initial estimate. However neither source was particularly helpful in this instance, primarily due to the embryonic state of both research and supporting theory. Even in the original Feick and Price study a clear figure for the number of respondents considered to be *market mavens* was not stated. The only possible pointer to a population proportion was the statement that 46% of the 1531 respondents could identify others as exhibiting *market maven* characteristics.

Churchill (1991) suggested a conservative method to estimate sample size. Said to be the “worst of worlds” method, this was based upon the notion that the largest sample size will be obtained when the product $\pi(1-\pi)$ is greatest, as the sample size “is directly proportional to this quantity”. He went on to state that “this product is, in turn, greatest when $\pi = 0.5$, as might be intuitively expected, since if one half of the population behaves one way and the other half the other way, one would require more evidence for a valid inference than if the situation was more clear-cut and a substantial proportion all behaved the same way”. Using this as a guide, the equation

$$n = \frac{(2)^2}{(.05)^2} 0.5(1 - 0.5).$$

suggested a sample size of $n = 400$.

6.6.3 Cost Versus Sample Size - A Trade - Off

Cochran (1977) forwarded a practical approach to solving the method for deciding upon sample size, based upon the belief that “In the planning of a sample survey, a stage is always reached at which a decision must be made about the size of the sample....Too large a sample implies a waste of resources, and too small a sample diminishes the utility of the results. The decision cannot always be made satisfactorily; often we do not possess enough information to be sure that our choice of sample size is the best one”.

In a self funding situation with limited reserves, a balance needed to be struck between the size of the sample and potential validity issues. At an average rate of £10.75 per completed interview, it would have cost £16,458 to collect the same amount of data as in the original study, plainly not a viable option. However at a level of $n = 400$, the twin influencing factors of financial reality and statistical recommendation (so important here), would have been met.

6.7 The Full Survey - Implementation Issues

6.7.1 Introduction

At an early stage, the author became aware of the implications of pursuing a largely replication study approach to this research process. Principally the fact that the scope for employing different data collection methods was greatly limited (if not eliminated

completely). Clearly there would be differences between this and Feick and Price (1987). Some of these differences would result from (for example), the lack of specific information on data collection. Other differences would be purely due to local UK factors such as the unavailability of random digit dialling telephone techniques or the differences in television viewing habits. Clearly (but without prejudging the outcomes of this work), there were going to be factors which could only be attributed to the cultural differences between the USA and the UK. However, in order to maintain replication study integrity (especially where identification and measurement of the *market maven* construct was concerned), the two studies were kept as similar as possible.

6.7.2 Data Collection - Practical Issues

Once the telephone interview technique had been chosen, the next decision was how to collect the data. The options available to the author were; a) collect the data personally; b) employ students to collect the data on the author's behalf; or c) employ a data collection agency to undertake the work. The first option to collect the data personally was relatively easy to rule out, as the part-time nature of this Ph.D. meant that work commitments, would have left very little time to collect the data.

The second option of employing students to collect the data, was initially considered sound. However the practicalities of setting up a suitable area from which to make the telephone calls, training the interviewers *and* monitoring their progress, probably meant as much personal involvement as if the author were to carry out the work himself. This, coupled with the prospect of missing a large number of potential respondents, due to the closure of offices in the early evening and at weekends, made this option not viable.

The third option was to employ an external agency to carry out the data collection. After a rather lengthy selection process, the contract was placed with an agency experienced in academic research, and who also employed interviewers of a mixed ethnic background.

Having chosen the agency, the full survey was begun on the 24th April 1995 and the last questionnaire was completed on the 5th June 1995.

7. Survey Results And Critical Discussion

A significant proportion of this study, was based upon the replication of Feick and Price (1987). In order to assist the reader, the sequencing of this section of the thesis, mirrored where practicable, this earlier study. The first section therefore, covers demographic / classification results. This is followed by *market maven* scale item, and related construct validity findings. The third section covers the bulk of the comparative study issues and is followed by a comparison of the *market maven*, opinion leader and innovator constructs. The final section deals with the ethnic food influencing factor results.

Before proceeding further, it is the author's considered opinion, that the balance between clarity and brevity (in terms of reporting research results), must always ultimately favour clarity. It is for this reason, that findings are reported in a predominantly tabular format, within the main body of the thesis. Other relevant data, can be found in the appendices.

N.B. Where applicable, rows or columns may not total 100% because of rounding.

7.1 Measurement Scales and Acceptable Significance Levels

The author feels it timely at this point in the thesis, to briefly address, the subject of measurement scales, whilst at the same time however, making it clear to the reader that the main thrust of this research is *not* to test interval scale validity in social science attitudinal scales. This debate is continuing apace in other arena, and the author considers it inappropriate to go into great depth here. Nevertheless, was felt important to state the reason why in this study, one approach was favoured above the rest.

7.1.1 Ordinal / Interval Versus Nominal Scales

By far the majority of scales used to collect the data for this study, were of the Likert type. In the main, they asked respondents to express their agreement or disagreement with a series of statements. The question as to whether data produced by these scales can be treated as interval / ordinal scale data (suitable for parametric analysis), or as nominal data (thus confined to non-parametric analysis techniques), remains largely unresolved (Crask and Fox 1987; Churchill 1991).

The author concluded that the particular Likert scales being employed here, were relatively untested. To have suggested that on a seven point scale, the distance between the adjectives “strongly disagree” and “disagree” was precisely one half of the distance between the same “strongly disagree” and “somewhat disagree”, would have at best have been considered tenuous, and at worst scientifically unsustainable. Considering both sides of this parametric versus non-parametric argument, the author decided to take a conservative approach and assumed that the overwhelming bulk of the data was nominal in nature, thus making non-parametric statistical analysis obligatory

7.1.2 Significance Levels

In order to avoid type I and type II errors from occurring, acceptable significance levels for this study were set at 0.05 for all relevant non-parametric tests. For Chi-Squared statistics, only those reporting fewer than 10% of cells with expected frequencies of <5 , were considered valid. Finally, only those correlations with a positive or negative value above 0.20 at $p < 0.005$, were viewed as significant.

7.2 Demographic / Classification Results

This section of the thesis reported general demographic / classification results. It will make direct comparisons between this study and the results of Feick and Price (1987).

It will also compare key results, with data from the Office of Population Census and Surveys 1991 Census County Report: Bedfordshire (Part 1 and 2), a publication of the Government Statistical Service.

7.2.1 Gender

The geographic area from which the sample population was drawn (the county of Bedfordshire), had an almost perfectly balanced gender profile in 1991 (see Table 7-1). The majority of respondents to this survey were however females (67%). This imbalance was not significantly different from that reported by Feick and Price (1987). In that study, 64% of respondents were female and 36% were male.

Table 7-1 Percentage Of Respondents By Gender : Compared With Census Data (Figures Rounded)

| Gender | De Vita (1997) | 1991 Census* |
|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| Male | 33% (n=131) | 50% (n=259,860) |
| Female | 67% (n=269) | 50% (n=264,245) |

*Source: 1991 Census County Report: Bedfordshire (Part1), OPCS. Crown Copyright

The reason for the imbalance, is not clear. Interviews were spread out evenly both during the day, and over the week, specifically in order to avoid missing any one particular segment of the population. On reflection however, the interviewer's opening statement, which stated (amongst other things), that the work was primarily "a study about shopping patterns", may in itself have been a significant contributing factor. Despite significant socio-demographic change in recent times (for example the decline of the nuclear family), the author suspects that many males who answered, passed the telephone over to their wives or partners, as they *still* did by far the bulk of the household shopping.

In order to assess the degree to which this imbalance would affect the results, the author initially ran all the analyses with both weighted and unweighted data. No differences in substantive conclusions between the two analyses were found. Therefore, in the interest of comparability, the author elected to report unweighted results, as this was also what Feick and Price (1987) elected to do.

7.2.2 Age

The mean age for the sample was between 35-39. However the largest number of respondents were in the 40-44 age group (see Table 7-2).

Table 7-2 Percentage Of Respondents By Age Category : Compared With Census Data (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| Age Category | De Vita (1997) | 1991 Census* |
|--------------|----------------|--------------|
| 40-44 | 18 | 7 |
| Under 25 | 16 | 10 |
| 30-34 | 15 | 8 |
| 25-29 | 12 | 9 |
| 35-39 | 12 | 7 |
| 60 and over | 12 | 17 |
| 50-54 | 7 | 5 |
| 45-49 | 6 | 6 |
| 55-59 | 5 | 5 |

*Source: 1991 Census County Report: Bedfordshire (Part 1), OPCS. Crown Copyright.

Initially, it was felt that older respondents (those aged between 45 and 59), were underrepresented. However, comparable 1991 census data suggests that the opposite was in fact the case. This study, had actually obtained a relatively representative sample of respondents from the age categories spanning 45-59. However, compared to the general population, it had attracted a significantly higher proportion of younger

respondents. The author suggests two reasons for this result. The first, that by excluding minors from the sampling frame, other age categories would (by default), be significantly over represented. The second, that in most households where there is a mix of younger and older residents, empirical observation suggests, that the telephone is almost always answered by the younger members.

7.2.3 Country Of Birth

Unsurprisingly, by far the largest number of respondents were born in England (see Table 7-3). However, this was 10% less than the equivalent figure reported in the 1991 census.

Table 7-3 Percentage Of Respondents By Country Of Birth: Compared With Census Data (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| Country | De Vita (1997) | 1991 Census* |
|------------------|----------------|--------------|
| England | 75 | 85 |
| Elsewhere | 11 | 9 |
| Scotland | 5 | 2 |
| Wales | 4 | 1 |
| Northern Ireland | 3 | 1 |
| Irish Republic | 3 | 2 |

*Source: 1991 Census County Report: Bedfordshire (Part 1), OPCS. Crown Copyright.

7.2.4 Ethnicity

Table 7-4 again confirms the expectation, that the "white" ethnic category would be the largest group in this research. However, the percentage of ethnic minority respondents, was significantly greater than that reported in the last census. Black Caribbean and Indian ethnic groups, were well represented and this vindicated the

author's use of a professional data collection service, who employed (whenever possible), interviewers from the same ethnic minority groups.

**Table 7-4 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Ethnic Category : Compared With Census Data
(Rounded And Ordered By Size)**

| Ethnic Category | De Vita (1997) | 1991 Census* |
|------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| White | 84 | 90 |
| Indian | 4 | 3 |
| Black Caribbean | 3 | 2 |
| Black African | 2 | 1 |
| Pakistani | 2 | 2 |
| Chinese | 2 | 1 |
| Other | 2 | 3 |
| Black Other | 1 | 1 |
| Bangladeshi | 1 | 1 |

*Source: 1991 Census County Report: Bedfordshire (Part 1), OPCS. Crown Copyright.

7.2.5 Marital Status

Table 7-5 shows that by far the greatest number of respondents, reported being in their first marriage. Single respondents were the second largest grouping, followed by those who had re-married.

Whilst the overall results compare favourably with the 1991 census data, the "single" category seemed to be somewhat over-represented. This apparent anomaly, was felt to be a result of differences between the marital status categories used in this study, and those of the 1991 census. Table 7-5 shows that the census only reported four broad marital status categories (single, married, widowed and divorced). If this study's figures for single, cohabiting and separated respondents were combined, the figure of

33% (whilst still slightly lower than the 1991 census figures), is not nearly as anomalous.

**Table 7-5 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Marital Status Category : Compared With Census Data
(Figures Rounded And Ordered By Size)**

| Marital Status | De Vita (1997) | 1991 Census* |
|--|-----------------------|---------------------|
| Married (1st Marriage) | 49 | 47 |
| Single | 21 | 42 |
| Re- married | 11 | not available |
| Cohabiting | 9 | not available |
| Widowed | 4 | 6 |
| Divorced (Decree Absolute) | 3 | 5 |
| Separated | 2 | not available |

*Source: 1991 Census County Report: Bedfordshire (Part 1), OPCS. Crown Copyright.

7.2.6 Household Size

By far the largest percentage of respondents to this study, lived in households containing only one other person (see Table 7-6). This was followed by those living in four person households. A household of thirteen, was the largest reported.

Compared with the results of the 1991 census, there were notably fewer respondents living in single person households. The fact that this study targeted private residential areas, to the (virtually) total exclusion of others, may well have been significant. Students living in halls of residence, persons living in hotels, hostels, bed and breakfast establishments would all have been missed, as would long-term hospital patients and those living in sheltered housing. The 1991 census would have included all these and more, thus significantly increasing the equivalent single person household figure.

**Table 7-6 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Household Size Category : Compared With Census Data
(Figures Rounded And Ordered By Size)**

| Number Of Persons Living In The Household | De Vita (1997) | 1991 Census* |
|--|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 2 | 32 | 34 |
| 4 | 22 | 17 |
| 3 | 20 | 17 |
| 1 | 11 | 23 |
| 5 | 8 | 6 |
| 6 | 5 | 2 |
| 7 or more | 4 | 1 |

*Source: 1991 Census County Report: Bedfordshire (Part 1), OPCS. Crown Copyright.

7.2.7 Household Members Under the Age of 18

The majority of respondents to this study, lived in households containing no children at all (see Table 7-7). The next largest percentage of respondents stated that there were just two persons under 18 in the household. This was closely followed by 19% who reported just one.

**Table 7-7 Number Of Household Members Under The Age Of 18 : Percentage Of Sample In Brackets
(Rounded And Ordered By Size)**

| Household Members | Percentage |
|--------------------------|-------------------|
| None | 49 |
| 2 | 20 |
| 1 | 19 |
| 3 | 7 |
| 4 | 3 |
| 5 | 1 |
| 7 or more | 1 |

7.2.8 Highest Level of Education

Question 40 identified the highest level of education completed by the respondents. Table 7-8 shows that the largest percentage had completed their secondary school education (the minimum required by law). Of the rest 14% had continued on to 6th form colleges, 20% to colleges of Further Education and 13% to University. The majority of those in the “other” category, had obtained professional qualifications studying part-time.

Table 7-8 Highest Level Of Education Completed : Percentage Of Sample (Rounded and ordered by size)

| | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|
| Secondary School Education | 50 |
| F.E. College | 20 |
| 6th Form College | 14 |
| University | 13 |
| Other | 3 |

7.2.9 Income Level

Table 7-9 illustrates the responses to the last (and possibly most sensitive) question in the survey, that of income. In spite of using relatively wide bands, and asking for information on household rather than personal income, sensitivity to the question resulted in the highest level of none-response of all the questions employed.

Table 7-9 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Income Band (Figures Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|--------------------|----|
| Non Response | 23 |
| Under £10,000 | 19 |
| £15,000 to £19,999 | 13 |
| Over £35,000 | 11 |
| £10,000 to £14,999 | 9 |
| £20,000 to £24,999 | 9 |
| £25,000 to £29,999 | 8 |
| £30,000 to £34,999 | 8 |

Reflecting to some extent the results of the question on household size, the largest number of respondents had a total annual household income of under £10,000. 13% of respondents were in the £15,000 to £19,999 income band, followed by the 11% who were in the over £35,000 category.

7.3 Testing The Market Maven Construct

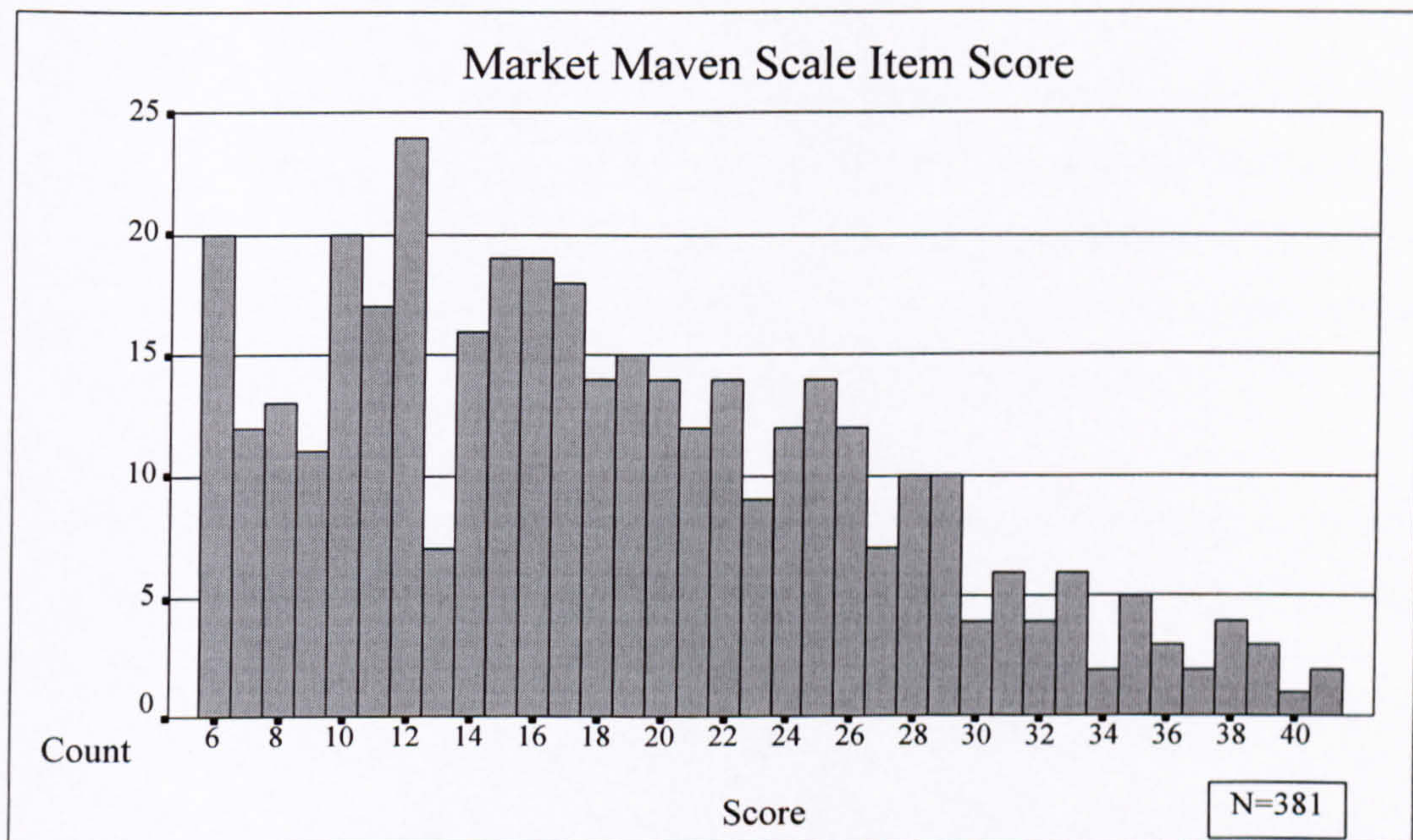
For reasons of clarity and ease of understanding, the sequencing of this section mirrors that of section 6.1 and 6.2., where research methodology was outlined and research problems, propositions and hypothesis stated. The first part concentrates on the analysis of *market maven* measurement techniques, construct validation and related comparative study issues. The second section on identification of the *market maven* construct in a UK context. The third on classifying the *market maven* category using demographic techniques. The fourth assesses the sample's views of the importance of a variety of new food product information sources, and contrasts the results with those of the *market maven* construct. In the final section, the *market maven*, opinion leader and innovator constructs' socio-demographic profiles are compared.

7.3.1 Comparing Market Maven Scale Item Results and Reliability Measures

This study's *market maven* scale item scores were not normally distributed (see Figure 7-1). There is positive skew at 0.54 and negative kurtosis of -0.42, with a mode of 12

and a median score of 17. However, these deviations from the ideal were relatively small, and therefore considered acceptable by the author. Feick and Price (1987), did not provide *market maven* scale distribution statistics from which comparisons could be drawn.

Figure 7-1 *Market Maven Scale Item Score Frequency Chart*



In their preliminary work aimed at developing the *market maven* scale items, Feick and Price reported a number of scale item data and the results of item-to-total correlation and Cronbach's Alpha reliability measures. Table 7-10 reports these, and compares them with the results of this study.

Table 7-10 *Comparing The Studies: Market Maven Scale Item Data*

| Measures | De Vita (1997) | Feick And Price (1987) |
|---------------------------------|----------------|------------------------|
| Range | 6 - 42 | 6 - 42 |
| Mean Score | 18.5 | 25.6 |
| Standard Deviation | 8.5 | 8.5 |
| Item-to-total correlation range | 0.28 - 0.74 | 0.48 - 0.65 |
| Cronbach's Alpha | 0.87 | 0.82 |

Whilst the standard deviation and Cronbach's Alpha figures for the two studies were comparable, there was a marked difference in the range of item-to-total correlations. The six scale items in the Feick and Price study, ranged between 0.48 and 0.65. At 0.17, the spread reported by Feick and Price (1987) was less than half that of the 0.46 found in this study. US respondents therefore, seemed to have a significantly more homogeneous response pattern, than their UK counterparts.

At 25.6 the reported mean *market maven* scale score for the US study, was significantly higher than that found here. The author felt that cultural differences were the most likely explanation for this result. In particular, the widely held belief that Americans (on the whole), are considered to have a more demonstrative and outgoing personality than their more reserved self-effacing, British counterparts.

The natural reserve of the typical UK respondent, was again reflected in their responses to question twelve, the most direct of the six *market maven* scale questions. There, they were asked to;

“Think about a person who has information about a variety of products and likes to share this information with others. This person knows about new products and likes to share this information with others. This person knows about new products, sales, stores, and so on, but does not necessarily feel he or she is an expert on one particular product.....I'd like you to tell me how well this description fits you”.

When compared to the other five *market maven* scale items, this question exhibited the lowest covariance and correlation figures. A mean score of 3.95 (“disagree somewhat”), and a mode of 4 (“neither agree or disagree”), again pointed to it being considered by many respondents as a little too “pretentious” to agree with.

7.3.2 Using Factor Analysis to test for Market Maven Construct Validity

Kerlinger (1973) defined Factor Analysis as a “method for determining the number and nature of the underlying variables among larger numbers of measures”. It was used to test the validity of Feick and Price’s *market maven* construct. Whilst it is not the intention of the author to undertake an extensive review of the literature to date, the author will attempt to convey to the reader fundamental principles of Factor analysis, in order to make the results easier to understand.

Principle component analysis (upon which factor analysis is based) is generally considered to have been developed / refined by Hotelling (1933), and was one of the very first techniques used in multivariate data analysis. A robust / repeatable analysis technique amongst other things it provides valuable summary statistics for any correlation or perhaps more importantly covariance matrix.

The process of arriving at the output is relatively straightforward, and is basically the same for all where the responses to a set of questions (variables a) produce a set of results b , which go on to form a data matrix c . In extremis the resultant covariance matrix d , can indicate one of two things. Either a well-defined pattern of covariation between variables which strongly suggests some underlying association, or a random collection of insignificant correlations which again merits investigation.

Factor analysis on the other hand has a far more holistic approach to the treatment of the data set than principal component analysis. Green et al. (1988) state that in factor analysis the analyst is interested in being able to provide “descriptive rather than statistical inference”, and that the data matrix is not divided into “criterion” and “predictor” subsets. They also add that factor analysis models are “primarily based on linear relationships”, and that typically the models assume that the data are interval-scaled, although nominal / ordinal data can also be accommodated.

Most factor analyses firstly produce a simple pair-wise correlation amongst the variables being measured. This is usually followed by a factor-loading matrix which is the result of employing principle components analysis on these correlations. Factor loadings are simply the correlations between the variables and the factors.

In this study, the R technique of factor analysis was employed (the relationship amongst variables thus examined), together with varimax rotation an orthogonal (mutually perpendicular and uncorrelated), procedure which tends to produce both high and low loadings on each factor. Churchill (1991) states that varimax “attempts to clean up the factors in the factor loading table - that is force the entries in the columns to be near 0 or 1. The result of employing these techniques lead to the confirmation of both the opinion leadership and most importantly *market maven* construct.

7.3.3 Results of Factor Analysis Test for Construct Validity

After employing principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation, a three factor solution was produced (see Figure 7-2). Factor one was clearly the *market maven* factor, and factor two the opinion leadership factor. The third factor (apparently not reported by Feick and Price 1987), was the complete opposite of the other two.

Figure 7-2 Factor Analysis Output.

```

- - - - - F A C T O R   A N A L Y S I S   - - - - -
VARIMAX converged in 4 iterations.

Rotated Factor Matrix:

                Factor 1      Factor 2      Factor 3
Q3B             .77537        .05853        .00645
Q3F             .77223        .22982        .10354
Q3G             .83574        .18337        .04229
Q3J             .84138        .15945       -.06583
Q3K             .87943        .17345       -.05588
Q12             .44992        .10638        .38740
Q7C             .10292        .79575       -.03458
Q7D             .14264        .88832        .03662
Q7E             .16999        .83832        .03653
Q4             -.07245        .02770        .93712
Q6             -.16183       -.57297       -.07779

```

At first glance, the appearance of the third factor was felt to be nothing more than a minor aberration, probably caused by a relatively underdeveloped opinion leadership scale item. Further analysis of the suspect question four (which was Feick and Price's (1987) own opinion leadership measure), revealed however, that in this study, it was actually set up to measure the opposite of opinion leadership behaviour. It had in fact recorded the number of people, who in response to the question "what particular types of product or products do you know a lot about?", replied "none".

With reference to Rogers' (1962) adopter categories, these respondents were likely to exhibit early majority, late majority and laggard behaviour. Relying upon others for new product information, and convinced that they had nothing of value to impart to others, the author named this third factor the "self deprecators".

Overall, these results added further support to the author's belief, that cultural differences between US and UK citizens, had indeed significantly influenced the way in which they responded to key questions. These differences become particularly

marked, when respondents are asked to rate the *influence* that they believe they had over others. For example, in this study, the overwhelming majority of respondents who reported extensive product knowledge, did *not* in fact go on to rate *themselves* as opinion leaders. The correlation between the two measures was in fact strongly negative. Neither Feick and Price (1987), or more recent *market maven* studies reported this apparently atypical, “reserved” type of behaviour.

7.3.4 Comparing Opinion Leadership Results

Table 7-11, highlights the actual differences in opinion leadership reporting. In the Feick and Price (1987) study, almost half of the sample reported being opinion leaders in a self-selected product category. At 71%, the corresponding figure for this study was significantly larger. There were also significant differences in the degree of correlation between opinion leaders and *market mavens*.

Table 7-11 Comparing The Studies: Opinion Leadership Results.

| | De Vita (1997) | Feick And Price (1987) |
|---|------------------------|---------------------------|
| Opinion Leader In Self Selected Product Category | 71% Of Total Sample | 46% Of Total Sample |
| Correlation Between Market Maven and Opinion Leader Scales | 0.34 (p < 0.001) | 0.22 (p < 0.001) |

7.3.5 Comparing Innovative Measure Results

The results of the comparison between the mean innovative measure scores for both broad and specific product categories can be seen in Table 7-12. It shows that whilst there is little difference between the mean scores for the two categories, at 0.50 (p=<0.001) the correlation between the *market maven* and the broad product category is notably stronger. At 0.40 (p=<0.001), the increased correlation between the *market maven* and the specific product category variable is also clearly evident.

Table 7-12 Comparing The Studies: Innovative Measure Results (Mean Scores And Correlations, Figures Rounded)

| | De Vita (1997) | Feick And Price (1987) |
|--|---------------------|---------------------------|
| Mean Score Innovative Measurement - Broad Product Categories (S.E. in brackets) | 2.8 (0.06) | 2.7 (0.04) |
| Correlation Between Market Maven and Innovative Measurement - Broad Product Categories | 0.50 (p < 0.001) | 0.31 (p < 0.001) |
| Mean Score Innovative Measurement - Specific Product Categories (S.E. in brackets) | 2.8 (0.06) | 2.7 (0.05) |
| Correlation Between Market Maven and Innovative Measurement - Specific Product Categories | 0.40 (p < 0.001) | 0.34 (p < 0.001) |

7.3.6 Summary

Despite differences in degree of correlation between measures, and the apparent influence of cultural norms, the study had clearly identified the two main elements of primary interest, the *market maven* and opinion leader categories. Factor analysis was used to test for construct and discriminant validity. This analysis, confirmed the validity and stability of the measurement devices used by Feick and Price (1987) to develop their *market maven* construct. More importantly however, they confirmed the presence of similar patterns of behaviour, in a UK context. This enabled the author to reject the null hypothesis;

H_0 - The techniques used to identify the *market maven* construct forwarded by Feick and Price (1987) do not appear to be measuring the same behaviour in a UK context.

7.4 Identifying Market Mavens in a UK Context

Having established the reliability of the *market maven* scale items and construct measures, the author's next priority was to ascertain whether or not (by employing the same methodology as Feick and Price 1987), the *market maven* construct could be identified in the UK.

To recap, the main analysis used in the Feick and Price study, was that of correlation between the attitude or behaviour examined, and the respondents' score on the *market maven* scale. They also reported an analysis of variance or Chi-Squared analysis based upon trichotomization (dividing into three equal groups), of respondents into the lower 31% ("Low"), middle 37% ("Medium") and upper 32% ("High"), of the distribution of *market maven* scores. In reporting results, they only referred to respondents scoring in the "High" categories, as *market mavens*.

This study repeated the Feick and Price (1987) trichotomization procedure. SPSS was used to divide the *market maven* scale scores into three categories. Of the 381 respondents, 124 (or 33%) fell into the "Low" *market maven* category, with a mean score of 9.4. 127 (or 33%) fell into the "Medium" *market maven* category, with a mean score of 17.2. And 130 (or 34%) fell into the "High" *market maven* category, with a mean score of 28.2. In this study, the numerical imbalance between the three categories was small, and not as marked as that reported by Feick and Price (1987).

The results, confirmed that the *market maven* construct, as a concept, was a sound one. They also established, that by employing similar measurement techniques and research programmes, it was possible to identify *market mavens* outside the original US environment. Most notably, it was able to detect *market maven* behaviour amongst a relatively small number of respondents in an unremarkable (in the strictest sense of the word), area of the UK. In the author's opinion it is therefore possible to reject the null hypothesis;

H₀ - The same methodology used to identify the *market maven* construct forwarded by Feick and Price (1987) does not indicate the presence of *market mavens* in the UK

7.5 Consumers' Identification of Others as Market Mavens

A clear and specific precondition, required to establish the existence of *market mavens* as stated by Feick and Price (1987), was that "consumers be able to identify others as *market mavens*". In their study 46% of respondents stated that they knew someone who matched the description offered. At 31%, the same question used in this study, elicited a significantly lower percentage of positive responses.

Table 7-13 Comparing The Studies: Importance Of Market Mavens In New Product Awareness And Evaluation. (Percentage Of Responses, Figures Rounded)

| Questions | De Vita (1997) | Feick And Price (1987) |
|---|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Q14 How important is this person to you for finding out about new brands or models? | 28 (Important or Very Important) | 57 (Important or Very Important) |
| Q15 How important is this person to you in evaluating different brands or models? | 31 (Important or Very Important) | 55 (Important or Very Important) |

Table 7-13 compares the results of the follow-up questions 14 and 15. It is clear that at 28% and 31% respectively, UK respondents considered *market mavens* to be significantly less important to them in finding out about, and evaluating new products, than their American counterparts.

Again the author suggests that differing cultural factors can explain some (if not all), of the marked differences between the studies. These results, pointed to the typical British consumer being significantly more sceptical of new product claims, than their US counterparts. This had the effect of undermining much of the influence that *market mavens* were said to exert. Conversely, US respondents seemed to have a "cultural" predisposition to accept and (most importantly), *value* information from an unrelated third party. The relative popularity of celebrity product endorsements used in American marketing campaigns, tends to support this view.

In cultures, organisations or indeed situations where the level of scepticism amongst the population is high, it seems that even *market maven* influence is diminished. An important issue which could seriously inhibit *market maven* influence, this finding clearly requires further investigation.

7.6 Market Mavens' Possession of Market Information

According to Feick and Price, the first fundamental attribute of a *market maven*, is the possession of general marketplace information. This was determined in their study, by measuring the average perceived early awareness of new products, in four packaged goods categories, followed by the average reported awareness, of four new brands, in the same four product categories.

7.6.1 Market Mavens' Early Awareness of General Product Categories

At this point the two studies began to differ markedly. Here, the product category was much more focused, based as it was upon pasta based foods and associated products. Nevertheless, as can be seen from Table 7-14, the mean values for the question "...how often do you find out about new products in each of the following categories *before* most other people?", elicited much the same level of negative response. The author felt that this was in part, due to the product categories chosen. And whilst in both studies, the more *market maven*-like the respondent, the less negative the response tended to be, even the highest figure of 3.7 reported by Feick and Price (1987), does not equate to the "Neither infrequently or frequently" mid point, of the early awareness scale.

Table 7-14 Comparing The Studies : Contrasting Market Maven Early Awareness Of New Products In General Product Categories (Mean Scores, Figures Rounded)

| Q24a-Q24f Early Awareness Measure | Market Maven Categories | | | Correlation With Market Maven Scale |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | Low | Medium | High | |
| De Vita (1997) | 2.1 (S.E. 0.17) | 2.5 (S.E. 0.17) | 3.4 (S.E. 0.14) | 0.44 (p< 0.001) |
| Feick and Price (1987) | 2.4 (S.E. 0.09) | 3.2 (S.E. 0.08) | 3.7 (S.E. 0.11) | 0.39 (p< 0.001) |

Despite the overall less positive responses of the UK sample, at 0.44 ($p < 0.001$) the correlation between early awareness and the *market maven* scale was somewhat stronger than that reported by Feick and Price (1987). In neither study however, did any of the *market maven* categories believe that they found out about new products *before* most other people. Notably, these findings failed to confirm Feick and Price's views, that "*market mavens*, will have market knowledge in specific instances spanning product categories and brands".

At this point, the author felt it necessary to contest Feick and Price's assertion, that scores "differing in the expected direction", constituted a strong enough justification to confirm or reject a specific type of behaviour. In both studies, none of the early awareness scores were positive. At best, the most that could be said, was that the more *market maven* the category, the less negative the mean response tended to be. Whilst Feick and Price (1987) clearly did not consider this interpretation as flawed, the author cannot subscribe to the view that a less negative response, actually equates to a positive one!

7.6.2 Market Mavens' Early Awareness of Specific New Products

In contrast to the previous section, which reported on early awareness of general product categories, Table 7-15 compares the results of the specific new products, as listed in questions 27a - 27f of the questionnaire. The reader should note that whilst Feick and Price (1987) were measuring respondent's awareness of four specific new products, here six were used.

Table 7-15 Comparing The Studies: Contrasting Market Maven Early Awareness Of Specific New Products Results (Figures Rounded)

| Q27a-Q27f New Product Awareness Measure | Market Maven Categories | | | Correlation With Market Maven Scale |
|---|-------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | Low | Medium | High | |
| De Vita (1997) | 2.8 (S.E. .05) | 3.5 (S.E. .05) | 4.3 (S.E. .04) | 0.42 (p< 0.001) |
| Feick and Price (1987) | 3.2 (S.E. .07) | 3.3 (S.E. .06) | 3.4 (S.E. .05) | 0.13 (p< 0.001) |

Feick and Price (1987) conceded, that there was little difference in early awareness of specific new products, between the three *market maven* categories. They concluded that this had been due to the products not being as new as they had originally thought. Nevertheless, they still considered a mean increase in early awareness of 0.2 across all three *market maven* categories, to be meaningful. The author was less inclined to agree, especially as their data was based upon four, apparently well-known products.

This study's investigation of a more specialist segment of the food industry, resulted in a much higher degree of variance. Here, the difference between the three *market maven* categories was wider (see Table 7-15). 1.4 points separated the "Low" and "High" *market maven* categories.

At 4.3, the mean awareness figure was significantly lower than the maximum possible score of 6, and related to the “neither agree or disagree” mid-point of the scale. This figure was affected by the inclusion (amongst the six new products), of a non-existent brand. A technique also employed by Feick and Price (1987), the non-existent brand was used to ascertain whether respondents (knowingly or unknowingly), had a tendency to inflate new product awareness. With the figures for that brand removed, mean awareness rises to 4.9.

The relationship between each of the three *market maven* categories, and their new product awareness results, differed little across the six products used in this study. The author decided that there was nothing to be gained by reporting the results of each in turn. Produced by a leading Italian manufacturer of pasta products, who has had a high profile presence in the UK market for over forty years, the author decided to concentrate on the Barilla Cannelloni results.

Table 7-16 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Market Maven Category Reporting Awareness Of Barilla Cannelloni (Figures Rounded)

| Q 27a Have You Heard Of Barilla Cannelloni? | Market Maven Categories | | |
|---|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| No | 64 | 48 | 35 |
| Not Sure | 12 | 16 | 9 |
| Yes | 24 | 36 | 58 |

As can be seen from Table 7-16, awareness of the product changed significantly by *market maven* category. The majority of “Low” *market mavens* claimed never to have heard of the product, whilst “Medium” category respondents were less polarised. On

the other hand, most of those in the “High” *market maven* category, stated that they had indeed heard of the product.

Clearly evident here, and apparent throughout this study, respondents at either end of the *market maven* scale were found to be consistently more assured in the way in which they expressed their knowledge, views and opinions, than those in the “Medium” *market maven* category. The reason for this is not clear, and therefore merits further investigation. What is clear though, is that these results continue to highlight differences between the most *market maven*-like in a social system and their peers.

7.6.3 Reported Awareness of Non - Existent Brands

Direct comparisons between the two studies, of the reported awareness of a non-existent brand, cannot be made because Feick and Price (1987) did not report this result. Table 7-17 suggests however, that it could in fact indicate a worrying *market maven* trait. Whilst the vast majority of respondents stated that they had never heard of the fictitious “La Favola” brand, reported awareness clearly increased, the more *market maven* the respondent. This relationship was further confirmed by a 0.27 ($p < 0.001$) correlation between awareness of “La Favola”, and the *market maven* scale.

Table 7-17 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Market Maven Category Reporting Awareness Of “La Favola” - A Non-existent Brand

| Q 27d Have You Heard Of “La Favola” Egg Pasta? | Market Maven Categories | | |
|--|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| No | 73 | 67 | 49 |
| Not Sure | 15 | 10 | 16 |
| Yes | 11 | 22 | 35 |

Whilst the author is not suggesting that *market mavens* knowingly lie, it is obvious that some of them tend to overestimate their new product awareness. If this behaviour were to be repeated in other studies, and was found to be an inherent *market maven* trait, it would in the long run, undermine their value as reliable sources of marketplace information.

7.7 Market Mavens' Provision of Market Information

In Feick and Price (1987), the product categories used to measure information provision were so general, that respondents could probably have expressed an opinion on all of them! The author felt that as Feick and Price (1987) had already established a link between *market maven* category and a propensity to provide information on a *variety* of new products, there was little to be gained from repeating this particular aspect of their study. Here, the author sought to establish whether the same relationship would hold, for significantly narrower product categories.

Feick and Price (1987) considered that the provision of market information to others was central to the *market maven* concept. They measured this behaviour by analysing the replies to a set of four questions covering a range of product categories (coffees, frozen entrees, diet soft drinks and breakfast cereals), and then reported the mean "information provision measure" scores, for each of the three *market maven* categories. The *market maven* and information provision scales were correlated, and the resulting product reported.

Table 7-18 shows the mean figures for the reported provision of marketplace information. In both studies, the lower a respondent's *market maven* score, the lower their provision of new product information score. Overall, the means for this study were significantly lower than those of Feick and Price (1987). Once again, neither study reported a positive mean response figure.

Table 7-18 Comparing The Studies: Comparison Of Market Maven New Product Information Provision Results (Mean Scores, Figures Rounded)

| Q25a-Q25f New Product Information Provision Measure | Market Maven Categories | | | Correlation With Market Maven Scale |
|---|-------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | Low | Medium | High | |
| De Vita (1997) | 1.4 (S.E. 0.09) | 1.8 (S.E. 0.11) | 2.4 (S.E. 0.11) | 0.43 (p<0.001) |
| Feick and Price (1987) | 2.1 (S.E. 0.09) | 2.8 (S.E. 0.09) | 3.4 (S.E. 0.11) | 0.40 (p<0.001) |

The author suggests that this particular result was influenced by two factors. The first is based upon the previously mentioned hypothesis, that UK respondents consistently undervalued their ability to influence others. This reticence would have directly affected their response to these questions, and as a consequence would have had a depressive effect upon their mean scores. The second, that significantly narrowing the product category of interest to that of pasta and related products, would by default, result in a larger number of disinterested or inexperienced respondents. Respondents whose only option, would have been to reply "never" or "don't know" to the question asked.

A further consequence of narrowing the product choice, was that of a slightly higher correlation between product information provision and the *market maven* scale. At 0.43 (p=< 0.001) it indicates a slightly more homogenous set of responses.

Whilst there were clear differences between the two studies' scores for information provision, overall the trends are similar. They support Feick and Price's (1987) view that there is a link between the information provision propensity of respondents, and their *market maven* score. The overall trend for those scoring higher on the *market maven* scale, to also have a higher mean new product information provision score, is confirmed, even after narrowing down the product category under investigation.

However, yet again, neither set of results reported positive mean figures. Those in the “High” *market maven* category were merely “less negative”, than other respondents had been.

7.8 Market Mavens’ Search Activities

Feick and Price (1987) posit that *market mavens* should “demonstrate higher levels of general market information seeking than other consumers”. They commented upon the fact that previous research on consumer search activities had been “both product and purchase specific (Feick and Price 1984; Newman 1977)”. This had resulted in findings which were limited in scope, and which concentrated upon measuring the types and sources of information used in making a specific purchase decision.

Rather than repeating the type of research they had just criticised, Feick and Price (1987), felt that examining “non-specific” product information gathering behaviour, would prove to be more enlightening. The first of the two measures they used to test this, involved ascertaining the frequency of readership of the US consumer publication *Consumer Reports*. They justified the inclusion of that particular publication in their study, by stating that it “dealt with a variety of issues, covering a wide variety of products and services”. When combined with the second measure (questions on information source importance), a clearer understanding of non-product-specific indicators of information seeking patterns was predicted.

7.8.1 Which Magazine Readership

Feick and Price (1987) stated that only those who had read more than half of the issues in the previous year, could be said to have demonstrated higher levels of general market information seeking, than other consumers. They reported that at 15%, respondents in the "High" *market maven* category were almost twice as likely to be regular readers of this type of publication than were those in the "Low" (6%) or "Medium" (7%) *market maven* categories.

In this study, the consumer publication Which Magazine, was substituted for Consumer Reports. Table 7-19 shows that whilst readership rates amongst the "Low" and "Medium" *market maven* categories were similar, only 5% of "High" *market maven* respondents were regular readers. Considerably lower readership levels than reported in Feick and Price (1987), the most significant factor was that here, "High" *market mavens* were even *less* likely to be regular readers than those in the "Low" or "Medium" categories.

Table 7-19 Cross Tabulation - Percentages Of Which Magazine Readership By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Q29 Which Magazine Readership | Market Maven Categories | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| None | 70 | 65 | 65 |
| 1 or 2 issues | 16 | 21 | 21 |
| 3 to 6 issues | 6 | 8 | 9 |
| 7 to 9 issues | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| 10 to 12 issues | 4 | 4 | 3 |

The conclusions that can be drawn from these results are somewhat limited, and have to be qualified by the fact that Which Magazine readership amongst the whole sample, was generally low. The reasons for this were either; a) due to chance occurrence (sampling error); b) the fact that in the UK Which Magazine is obtainable by subscription only, thus limiting potential readership; or c) that the measure does not transfer well into a UK setting, possibly as a result of cultural norms and external environmental factors. Factors that may for example, lead US respondents to turn to the more “objective” sources of information on products and services, that only a publication such as “Consumer Reports” can provide. A level of objectivity which is probably perceived as missing from other media such as television and radio. Both of which are media which often rely upon their very existence on commercial sponsorship, and consequently seen as being biased by a significant percentage of the audience.

The author suggest that whilst there may have been elements of all three factors at play here, it is the latter which is most likely to explain the difference between the two studies. Given that (as will be demonstrated in the following set of results), this result seemed to be completely out of character.

7.8.2 Information Source Importance

Feick and Price’s third proposition was that “*market mavens* would demonstrate higher levels of general market information seeking, through use of diverse sources in acquiring market information”. However, in their results section, it was not the *diversity* of information sources that was measured, but their rating in terms of *importance*. There is a subtle, but significant difference.

Table 7-20 compares the results of this study with those of Feick and Price's (1987) food sub-sample. Here the relationship between the *market maven* categories, and information source importance rating, was clearly evident. In each case, the more *market maven* the category, the higher the mean importance rating of the particular source of information.

Table 7-20 Comparing Means Of Search Activity Measures By Market Maven Category (Feick and Price 1987 in Brackets, Figures Rounded)

| Search Activity Measures | Market Maven Categories | | | Correlation With Market Maven Scale |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|-----------|-----------|-------------------------------------|
| | Low | Medium | High | |
| Free Samples | 4.8 (4.0) | 5.0 (5.2) | 5.7 (5.7) | 0.20 (0.35) |
| Magazines | 3.8 (3.6) | 4.3 (4.3) | 4.9 (4.8) | 0.29 (0.29) |
| Newspapers | 3.5 (3.9) | 4.0 (4.7) | 4.5 (5.3) | 0.27 (0.33) |
| Radio | 2.7 (3.1) | 3.3 (4.0) | 3.6 (4.7) | 0.24 (0.31) |
| Television | 4.3 (3.9) | 5.0 (4.9) | 5.5 (5.2) | 0.29 (0.30) |
| Salespeople | 2.2 (2.3) | 2.9 (2.7) | 3.4 (3.5) | 0.31 (0.27) |
| Relatives/ Friends | 4.1 (4.2) | 4.9 (4.9) | 5.1 (5.6) | 0.24 (0.35) |
| Browsing/ Shopping | 3.9 (3.7) | 4.6 (4.7) | 5.1 (5.3) | 0.28 (0.38) |
| N | 124 (228) | 127 (284) | 130 (219) | |

On the whole, the differences between the two studies were minimal. The exceptions were the ratings for newspapers and radio, where here, they were considered to be significantly less important than in Feick and Price (1987). The continued popularity of the "informative" broad-sheet style of newspaper over the relatively small circulation "tabloid" sector, may explain why many US residents still saw this as an important source of information. Those in the "High" *market maven* category considered it to be even more important than US television.

The proliferation, of often highly specialised and targeted US commercial radio stations, together with the relative lack of comparable UK stations, may well account for the differences in the rating of radio.

Transforming / summarising the search activity data into a single aggregate measure, enabled the author to further explore the relationship between it, and the *market maven* construct. In this instance correlation of the two measures resulted in a significant positive relationship (0.36 $p < 0.001$). This meant, that as a respondent's *market maven* score increased, so did their rating (in terms of importance), of a variety of new product information sources.

7.9 Market Mavens' Marketplace Attentiveness

With their fourth proposition, Feick and Price (1987) forwarded that *market mavens* would typically "give greater attention to the marketplace through greater coupon usage, enjoyment of shopping and attention to advertising". Table 7-21, compares the two studies.

In overall terms the results of this study were broadly similar with those of Feick and Price (1987). In every category, the higher the *market maven* score, the less negative were the response to the measure. The author wishes to stress however, that in both studies, the mean response was "positive" in only two of the five measures (questions 3c and 3h).

Table 7-21 Comparing Marketplace Attentiveness Measures By Market Maven Category (Feick and Price 1987 In Brackets, Figures Rounded)

| Marketplace Attentiveness Measure | Market Maven Categories | | | Correlation With Market Maven Scale |
|--|-------------------------|-----------|-----------|-------------------------------------|
| | Low | Medium | High | |
| Q1 To what extent do you enjoy shopping? | 2.2 (2.2) | 2.8 (2.9) | 3.4 (3.3) | 0.43 (0.36) |
| Q3c I Often Read Advertisements Out Of Curiosity. | 3.3 (3.9) | 3.8 (4.8) | 4.7 (5.6) | 0.32 (0.36) |
| Q3h I read advertisements because they are a good source of information. | 3.0 (3.8) | 3.6 (4.7) | 5.0 (5.7) | 0.46 (0.41) |
| Q18 To what extent do you enjoy shopping for food products? | 2.0 (2.2) | 2.5 (2.7) | 3.0 (3.1) | 0.42 (0.35) |
| Q29 When you shop for food products, how often do you use coupons? | 2.1 (2.7) | 2.2 (3.0) | 2.6 (3.5) | 0.24 (0.25) |

The author also wishes to draw the reader's attention to the fact that, whilst the mean marketplace attentiveness measure responses for the UK sample, were consistently lower than those reported in the Feick and Price study, three of the five correlations between the same measure and the *market maven* scale were more significant. This (coupled with the smaller variance in respondent's answers to the marketplace attentiveness rating questions in this study), point to a greater consistency of views and opinions amongst this sample, than was the case amongst their US counterparts.

In order to examine the relationship between marketplace attentiveness and the *market maven*, opinion leader and innovator measures, a single aggregate marketplace attentiveness measure (based upon the five individual measures) was developed. A correlation coefficient of 0.52 $p < 0.001$ revealed a relatively strong positive relationship between this and the *market maven* scale. At 0.46 $p < 0.001$ the correlation between the marketplace attentiveness measure and the innovator scale scores, were

only slightly lower. A correlation coefficient of 0.24 $p < 0.001$, indicated a significantly weaker relationship between marketplace attentiveness and the opinion leadership scale.

7.10 Market Maven's Demographic Characteristics

Considered a seminal piece of research, Feick and Price (1987) were more concerned with construct development and validity testing, than with classification. Their work used general measures, which, for replication / comparative study reasons, were also employed here.

Table 7-22 Comparing Demographic Characteristics Of Market Maven Categories (Feick and Price 1987 In Brackets)

| Variable | Market Maven Categories | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|---|---|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Age | 35-39 (43.8) | 35-39 (42.0) | 35-39 (43.3) |
| Education | Secondary (13.77 years) | 6 th Form College (13.52 years) | 6 th Form College (13.17 Years) |
| Income | £15,000 - £19,999 (\$28,200) | £15,000 - £19,999 (\$25,661) | £15,000 - £19,999 (\$26,777) |
| Household Size | 2.97 (2.78) | 3.19 (2.91) | 3.24 (3.00) |
| Children Under 18 | 0.89 (0.74) | 1.15 (0.90) | 0.94 (0.74) |
| Gender - % Female | 56.4 (53.8) | 63.1 (63.4) | 81.7 (74.9) |
| Marital Status - % Married | 55.3 (64.1) | 63.6 (64.5) | 61.7 (64.0) |
| Ethnicity - % White | 78.9 (92.2) | 85.2 (88.4) | 88.7 (82.4) |

Table 7-22 summarises the results of the demographic characteristics of the three *market maven* categories for both studies (a more detailed analysis of each characteristic is undertaken in following sections). The author draws the reader's attention, to the fact that the measurement scales used in the sections dealing with age,

education and income were not the same, and therefore the results are not directly comparable. Nevertheless underlying trends and distinct differences are clearly evident.

7.10.1 Age

Table 7-23, shows the percentage of respondents in each of the nine age categories used in this study.

Table 7-23 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Age Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| Age Category | Percent |
|--------------|---------|
| 40-44 | 18 |
| Under 25 | 16 |
| 30-34 | 15 |
| 25-29 | 12 |
| 35-39 | 12 |
| 60 and over | 12 |
| 50-54 | 7 |
| 45-49 | 6 |
| 55-59 | 5 |

A comparison between this data and actual census data, indicates under-representation of some age categories and over-representation of others. Corrective action in the form of a weighting factor was required, before further analysis could be undertaken. The results in Table 7-24, were therefore normalised for age.

Table 7-24 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Each Age Category As A Percentage Of The Total Sample And By Market Maven Category (Data Weighted And Figures Rounded)

| Age Category | % Of Total Sample | Market Maven Categories | | |
|--------------|-------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | | Low | Medium | High |
| Under 25 | 14 | 40 | 31 | 29 |
| 25-29 | 12 | 16 | 40 | 44 |
| 30-34 | 11 | 33 | 23 | 44 |
| 35-39 | 9 | 33 | 35 | 33 |
| 40-44 | 10 | 20 | 46 | 34 |
| 45-49 | 8 | 36 | 27 | 36 |
| 50-54 | 7 | 24 | 40 | 36 |
| 55-59 | 7 | 47 | 32 | 21 |
| 60 and over | 23 | 56 | 22 | 22 |

Feick and Price (1987), reported no significant age difference between the three *market maven* categories. All three had mean ages of between 42 and 44 years old. In this study, the mean age was also the same for all three categories, but at in the slightly younger 35 to 39 category. However, what *is* clearly evident from Table 7-24, is that at both ends of the age range (and particularly more noticeable amongst the over 55's), by far the largest percentage of respondents, are in the Low *market maven* category.

In an attempt to obtain a clearer understanding of the relationship between age and *market maven* category, the author combined the nine age categories into three. The "younger" category were those under 35. The "middle-aged" category were aged between 35 and 49. Those in the "older" category were 50 and above.

Table 7-25 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Each Age Category By Market Maven Category (Data Weighted And Figures Rounded)

| Age Category | Market Maven Categories | | |
|--------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Younger | 31 | 30 | 39 |
| Middle-aged | 27 | 40 | 34 |
| Older | 45 | 30 | 26 |

Table 7-25 suggests that a respondent's *market maven* score decreases with age. Chi-Squared analysis was used to test for the statistical significance of these findings. The result was a value of 10.1 (4 DF) at a significant $p < 0.04$ level. This enabled the author to confirm, that there was indeed a significant difference in age between *market maven* categories.

Suspecting that those in the "High" *market maven* category were younger respondents, the association between age and *market maven* category was investigated further. A Contingency Coefficient of 0.16 ($p < 0.04$) indicated a relatively weak, but significant relationship. The author went on to correlate age by *market maven*. This again resulted in a small but significant negative correlation of -0.12 $p < 0.01$. Thus, as respondents' age increased, their *market maven* score tended to decrease slightly. These results, enabled the author to reject the null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the age of respondents and their *market maven* score.

7.10.2 Gender and the Market Maven

A question which remained largely unanswered by Feick and Price's work, was that of the relationship between gender and the *market maven*. Table 7-26 shows that at 45%, by far the largest percentage of male respondents were in the least *market maven*-like Low category, with only 17% in the High. The distribution of female respondents was

very different. At 43%, the largest percentage were in the High *market maven* category, and only 26% in the Low.

Table 7-26 Cross-Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents By Sex And Maven Classification (Figures Rounded)

| Sex | Market Maven Categories | | |
|--------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Male | 45 | 37 | 17 |
| Female | 26 | 31 | 42 |

A Chi Square value of 25 (2 DF) at a significance level of $p < 0.001$, confirmed that there was a statistically significant difference in *market maven* scale score between the sexes. At 0.25 $p < 0.001$, the Cramer's V statistic indicated a relatively small but significant relationship.

Further analysis using the Mann-Whitney U test for two independent groups, resulted in a mean rank for the female group of 209. This was significantly higher than the male group, which was 150. The value of $W = 18418$ and the normal deviate was given as the Z figure -4.87, at a significance level $p < 0.001$. This clearly underlined the fact that female respondents in the sample, rated higher on the *market maven* scale than did their male counterparts.

The author felt that taken as a whole, these results showed that females respondents were significantly more likely to be *market mavens* than male respondents. This enabled the author to reject the null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the gender of a respondents and their *market maven* score.

7.10.3 Employment / Education Status

This section of the thesis examines the nature of the relationship between the employment status of respondents and their *market maven* score. Table 7-27 reports the employment / education profile for the entire sample, where by far the largest group were in full-time employment, followed by those in part-time employment.

Table 7-27 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Employment Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|-----------------------------|----|
| Full-time Employment | 44 |
| Part-time Employment | 20 |
| Other | 18 |
| Unemployed | 11 |
| Full-time Education | 7 |
| Part-time Education | 1 |

18% of respondents (those in the “other” category), were neither working or studying. Of these, by far the largest number said that they were “having a career break”. The author considered this to be a modern euphemism (substituted by certain astute respondents), for being unemployed. As it was impossible for the author to establish from the responses, who really was having a career break, and who was actually unemployed, no changes could be made.

Finally a major omission, which passed unnoticed at both the panel of experts and pilot study stages in this section, was that of failing to include a “retired” variable. In fact a sizeable number of those responding “other” to the question on employment category were in fact retired females.

Table 7-28 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Employment / Education Category Cross-Tabulated By Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Employment / Education Category | Market Maven Categories | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Full-time Employment | 30 | 36 | 34 |
| Part-time Employment | 23 | 34 | 43 |
| Full-time Education | 38 | 38 | 24 |
| Part-time Education | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Unemployed | 43 | 30 | 27 |
| Other | 39 | 28 | 34 |

Table 7-28 cross-tabulates employment / education category by *market maven* category. It shows for example, that of those in full-time employment 30% were in the Low *market maven* category and 34% in the High. Before further statistical analysis was possible, the number of cells in the table had to be significantly reduced. The data was therefore re-coded into three categories; the employed, those in full-time education, the unemployed and the “other” category. After initial results, the “other” category was dropped from further analyses, as it contributed in a disproportionate way to the unacceptably high percentage of empty cells in cross-tabulations.

Table 7-29, reports the results of these transformations. A cursory glance suggested that the employed had a higher probability of being *market mavens* than those in education or the unemployed.

Table 7-29 Percentage Of Respondents In Re-coded Employment / Education Category By Maven Classification (Figures Rounded)

| Employment / Education Category | Market Maven Categories | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Employed | 28 | 35 | 37 |
| In Education | 42 | 36 | 23 |
| Unemployed | 43 | 30 | 27 |

Further analysis, employing Chi-Squared statistics to establish whether there was an association between employment/education status and *market maven* category, resulted in a value of 6.06 (at 4 D.F) $p < 0.19$. As the possibility of it occurring by chance was 19%, the result was not significant.

Additional re-coding, leaving only the “employed” and “unemployed” categories in the analysis, produced a Chi-Squared result with an associated confidence levels of $p < 0.17$. Greater than that considered acceptable, the overall conclusion was that there is no difference in *market maven* response between employment / education categories, and that the hypothesis,

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the employment status of a respondents and their *market maven* score.

could not be rejected.

7.10.4 Marital Status

Table 7-30 shows the different marital status groupings and their distribution amongst the population under investigation. At 49% married respondents were the largest group, followed by those who were single. At 2%, the smallest were respondents who were separated.

Table 7-30 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Marital Status Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|-------------------|-----------|
| Married | 49 |
| Single | 21 |
| Re-married | 11 |
| Cohabiting | 9 |
| Widowed | 4 |
| Divorced | 3 |
| Separated | 2 |

Table 7-31 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Market Maven Category Cross-tabulated By Marital Status (Figures Rounded)

| Marital Status | Market Maven Categories | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|-------------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Married | 28 | 35 | 37 |
| Single | 35 | 30 | 35 |
| Re-married | 33 | 39 | 28 |
| Cohabiting | 33 | 25 | 42 |
| Widowed | 64 | 36 | 0 |
| Divorced | 39 | 39 | 23 |
| Separated | 33 | 33 | 33 |

The results of cross-tabulating the categories with the three *market maven* groups are shown in Table 7-31. From this, there was no evidence of a significant relationship. Re-coding the data into three categories; single / widowed, married / remarried and the divorced / separated, enabled Chi-Squared analysis to be performed. A value of 3.52 (4 DF) $P < 0.47$ confirmed the lack of relationship between the variables.

Thus the null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the marital status of respondents and their *market maven* score.

could not therefore be rejected.

7.10.5 Household Size

In this part of the study, the relationship between household size and the *market maven* construct was investigated. Table 7-32 reports the percentages of respondents in each household category.

Table 7-32 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Household Size Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|--------------|----|
| 2 | 32 |
| 4 | 22 |
| 3 | 20 |
| 1 | 11 |
| 5 | 8 |
| 6 | 5 |
| 8 And Above | 2 |
| Living Alone | 1 |
| 7 | 1 |

Re-coding the nine categories into three (0-3, 4-6 and 7 plus), resulted in the following cross-tabulation.

Table 7-33 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Household Size Category Cross-Tabulated By Maven Classification (Figures Rounded)

| Household Size Category | Market Maven Categories | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| 0-3 | 34 | 33 | 33 |
| 4-6 | 31 | 32 | 37 |
| 7 Plus | 25 | 50 | 25 |

Table 7-33 suggested no obvious relationship between the measures. Chi square and correlation coefficients results confirmed this, both reporting unacceptably high levels of chance occurrence. The null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between household size reported by the respondents and their *market maven* score.

was not therefore, rejected.

7.10.6 Number of Children

The fact that a household is large, could mean that it contains an above average number of children. On the other hand, it may indicate the presence of older members, in an extended family situation. Question 39 "How many household members are children under the age of 18?" was employed in order to resolve this potential uncertainty. Furthermore, it made it possible to assess whether the number of children in a household had an effect upon the respondent's *market maven* score.

Table 7-34, shows the distribution of household members under the age of 18 for the whole sample. Again, in order to carry out further analysis, the data was reduced. The resulting four groups were then cross-tabulated with the three *market maven* categories in Table 7-35.

Table 7-34 Percentage Of Respondents Living In Households With Children Under 18 (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|---|----|
| 0 | 50 |
| 2 | 20 |
| 1 | 19 |
| 3 | 7 |
| 4 | 3 |
| 5 | 1 |
| 7 | 1 |

Table 7-35 Percentage Of Respondents Living In Households With Children Under 18 Cross-Tabulated By Maven Classification (Figures Rounded)

| Number Of Children Under 18 | Market Maven Categories | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| None | 35 | 31 | 34 |
| 1 | 26 | 42 | 32 |
| 2 | 32 | 32 | 37 |
| 3 And Above | 33 | 35 | 33 |

It was clear that (minor variations accepted), respondents with no children in the household, were as equally distributed amongst the three *market maven* categories as, for example, were those with three or more children. Analysis of the relationship using Chi-Squared statistics, resulted in a unacceptably high probability of chance occurrence. Correlating the number of children in the household variable, with the *market maven* scale also resulted in a very low $r= 0.03$, at an unacceptable $p < 0.54$.

7.10.7 Education

Using the number of years a respondent spent in educational establishments as their measure, Feick and Price (1987) found that those in the High *market maven* category spent 0.6 of a year less in education, than those in the Low *market maven* category. The approach here was somewhat different, in that level of education attained was considered to be a much more meaningful measure, than number of years studied.

At first glance, Table 7-36 revealed no obvious trends. Those who completed the bare minimum level of study, that of Secondary education, were relatively evenly distributed amongst the three *market maven* categories. For the results of Feick and Price (1987) to be repeated, one would expect fewer and fewer of the respondents in the subsequent education categories, to be in the "High" *market maven* category. This was plainly not the case.

Table 7-36 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Each Education Category By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Highest Level Of Education Attained | Market Maven Category | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Secondary School | 35 | 32 | 33 |
| 6 th Form College | 36 | 19 | 45 |
| F.E. College | 29 | 37 | 34 |
| University | 21 | 46 | 33 |

By reducing the data into two categories (those educated up to and including 6th Form College and those educated at F.E. College and above), it was possible to establish whether or not there was a difference between a respondent's education level and their *market maven* category. At 0.07, the Chi-Squared significance level was deemed unacceptable.

It was therefore not possible to reject the null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the highest level of education attained by the respondents and their *market maven* score.

7.10.8 Country of Birth

This study investigated the extent to which country of birth, influenced a respondent's *market maven* score. Table 7-37, shows somewhat predictably, that the largest percentage of respondents were born in England. A significant percentage of respondents (11%) were born outside the UK and the Irish Republic.

Table 7-37 Percentage Of Respondents From Reported Country Of Birth (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|------------------|----|
| England | 75 |
| Elsewhere | 11 |
| Scotland | 5 |
| Wales | 4 |
| Northern Ireland | 3 |
| Irish Republic | 3 |

The results of cross-tabulating each *market maven* category by country of birth, can be seen in Table 7-38. However, at this level of detail, little of note was apparent. Data reduction and re-coding into three groups (those born in England, those born in Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic, and those born elsewhere), was necessary before further analysis could be undertaken.

Table 7-38 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents From Each Country Of Birth By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Country Of Birth | Market Maven Category | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| England | 29 | 34 | 38 |
| Scotland | 65 | 15 | 20 |
| Wales | 54 | 15 | 31 |
| Northern Ireland | 23 | 62 | 15 |
| Irish Republic | 46 | 18 | 36 |
| Elsewhere | 38 | 40 | 23 |

Table 7-39 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents From Each Country Of Birth By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Country Of Birth | Market Maven Category | | |
|--|-----------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| England | 29 | 34 | 38 |
| Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland And The Irish Republic | 49 | 26 | 25 |
| Elsewhere | 38 | 40 | 23 |

Table 7-39 and associated Chi-squared statistics of 12 (4 D.F.) at $p < 0.01$ significance level, both indicate that there was a difference in respondent's country of birth and *market maven* category. Further analysis using the Contingency coefficient to indicate the strength of association, resulted in a value of 0.18 ($p < 0.01$). This weak, but significant result, suggested that the further away from the current place of residence a respondent was born, the less likely they were to be in the "High" *market maven* category.

These findings enabled the author to reject the null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the country of birth of the respondents and their *market maven* score.

7.10.9 Ethnic Background

Table 7-40, illustrates the distribution of the responses to the question "How would you categorise yourself in ethnic terms?"

Table 7-40 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Ethnic Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|------------------------|-----------|
| White | 84 |
| Indian | 4 |
| Black Caribbean | 3 |
| Black African | 2 |
| Pakistani | 2 |
| Chinese | 2 |
| Other | 2 |
| Black Other | 1 |
| Bangladeshi | 1 |

Table 7-41, is the result of combining the three black ethnic categories into one, the Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi into a second, and omitting the Chinese and Other categories.

Table 7-41 Cross-tabulation of Ethnic Category By Market Maven Category

| ETHNICIT | | MAVE | | | Page 1 of 1 |
|--|--|-------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| ETHNICIT | Count Row Pct Col Pct Tot Pct | 1.00 | 2.00 | 3.00 | Row Total |
| | | White 1 | 95 29.5 79.8 25.7 | 111 34.5 88.8 30.1 | 116 36.0 92.8 31.4 |
| Black 2 | 12 60.0 10.1 3.3 | 6 30.0 4.8 1.6 | 2 10.0 1.6 .5 | 20 5.4 | |
| Indian 3 Pakistani Bangladeshi | 12 44.4 10.1 3.3 | 8 29.6 6.4 2.2 | 7 25.9 5.6 1.9 | 27 7.3 | |
| Column Total | 119 32.2 | 125 33.9 | 125 33.9 | 369 100.0 | |
| Chi-Square | | Value | DF | Significance | |
| Pearson | | 11.34858 | 4 | .02291 | |
| Likelihood Ratio | | 11.61225 | 4 | .02048 | |
| Mantel-Haenszel test for linear association | | 5.99438 | 1 | .01435 | |
| Minimum Expected Frequency - | | 6.450 | | | |
| Statistic | | Value | ASE1 | Val/ASE0 | Approximate Significance |
| Contingency Coefficient | | .17273 | | | .02291 *1 |
| Pearson's R | | -.12763 | .05197 | -2.46517 | .01415 *4 |
| Spearman Correlation | | -.15241 | .05072 | -2.95428 | .00334 *4 |
| *1 Pearson chi-square probability | | | | | |

This was an attempt to establish whether ethnic background, rather than actual country of birth was a significant factor in a respondent's ultimate *market maven* score. It is clear from the output, that the proportion of "High" *market maven* respondents

amongst the non-white categories, was significantly different from that of the white category. This was confirmed by the Chi-Squared value of 11.34 (4 D.F.) $p < 0.02$.

Having established that a difference existed, was the author correct to suspect that white respondents were more likely to be *market mavens*? At 0.17 ($p < 0.02$), the Contingency coefficient (whilst relatively weak), tended to support this view.

Overall, the fact that a significant relationship between the two measures was established, enabled rejection of the null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the ethnic background of the respondents and their *market maven* score.

7.10.10 Total Annual Household Income

Feick and Price (1987) reported no significant difference between the mean income of respondents in each of the three *market maven* categories. Using a slightly different measure, Table 7-42 shows the percentage of respondents in each household income category.

Table 7-42 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Household Income Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|-------------------|----|
| Under £10,000 | 25 |
| £15,000 - £19,999 | 17 |
| Over £35,000 | 15 |
| £20,000 - £24,999 | 12 |
| £10,000 - £14,999 | 11 |
| £30,000 - £34,999 | 11 |
| £25,000 - £29,999 | 10 |

Re-coding, condensed the data into a 4x3 table format (see Table 7-43). Chi-Squared statistics (Value 7.4, 6 D.F., $p= 0.28$), failed to report a difference between *market maven* and annual household income category.

Table 7-43 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Each Annual Household Income Category By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Income Category | Market Maven Category | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Under £10,000 - £14,999 | 37 | 32 | 31 |
| £15,000 - £24,999 | 29 | 31 | 41 |
| £25,000 - £35,000 | 22 | 39 | 40 |
| Over £35,000 | 23 | 44 | 33 |

The null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the total annual household income reported by the respondents and their *market maven* score.

could not therefore be rejected.

7.10.11 Geographical Location

Does living in a particular geographic location, have any bearing upon a respondent's *market maven* score? Can the constant barrage of external information sources present in a large town, desensitise its inhabitants to such an extent that information overload occurs (see Jacoby 1984; Schneider 1997; Elliott 1988; Herbig and Kramer 1994), resulting in minimal information search activities? Or is the reverse true, in that the more a *market maven* is exposed to information, the more it absorbs.

What about respondents living in rural localities? Does their relative isolation engender a more proactive approach towards general marketplace information gathering, or are they no more likely to exhibit typical *market maven* characteristics than individuals living in more densely populated areas. Whilst this study is clearly not in a position to answer all these questions, it can begin the process, by investigating whether there are indeed significant differences between geographic location and *market maven* score.

As mentioned in an earlier section, the survey was conducted in and around the county town of Bedford, and covered a mix of urban, suburban and rural areas, covered by the postcodes MK40-MK45. Table 7-44, shows that of those who reported their postcode, 28% lived in the MK42 area, which covers central-south Bedford including the outlying Harrowden and Elstow districts. 26% were from the central-north Bedford area MK41, and 18% from the significantly more rural MK43 area.

Table 7-44 Percentage Of Respondents In Each Postcode Area (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| | |
|--------------|-----------|
| MK 42 | 28 |
| MK 41 | 26 |
| MK 43 | 18 |
| MK 44 | 12 |
| MK 40 | 10 |
| MK 45 | 7 |

Table 7-45, shows the results after having been re-coded into two categories; the urban/suburban and the rural.

Table 7-45 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Respondents In Urban/Suburban And Rural Localities By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Locality | Market Maven Category | | |
|----------------|-----------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Urban/Suburban | 30 | 33 | 36 |
| Rural | 37 | 32 | 32 |

Chi-Squared was used to determine whether there was an association between the variables. The resulting value of 0.94 at 2 D.F., and a probability of $p = 0.62$, established that there was no difference in geographic place of residence between the three *market maven* categories. The author was therefore unable to reject the null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the geographical location of respondents and their *market maven* score.

7.11 Importance of Sources of New Food Product Information

Question 26 of the questionnaire, was intended to measure the level of importance respondents assigned to a series of sources of new food product information. This was to be used in a general sense to obtain an overview of current trends, but more specifically, to enable the author to test the following null hypothesis;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the degree of importance assigned by respondents to a variety of potential sources of new food products information and their *market maven* score.

In the first instance, aggregating the search activity measures into a single score, and correlating this with the *market maven* scale, resulted in a significant 0.40 ($p < 0.001$) correlation. Further investigation was therefore warranted.

Table 7-46 Comparing Means Of Search Activity Measures By Market Maven Category (Ordered And Figures Rounded)

| Search Activity Measures | Market Maven Categories | | | χ^2 (12 D.F.) ^a | Correlation With Market Maven Scale ^b |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|------------------------------------|--|
| | Low | Medium | High | | |
| Free Samples | 4.8 | 5.0 | 5.7 | 35 | 0.20 |
| Television | 4.3 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 40 | 0.29 |
| Relatives/ Friends | 4.1 | 4.9 | 5.1 | 44 | 0.24 |
| Browsing/ Shopping | 3.9 | 4.6 | 5.1 | 44 | 0.28 |
| Magazines | 3.8 | 4.3 | 4.9 | 42 | 0.29 |
| Newspapers | 3.5 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 39 | 0.27 |
| Radio | 2.7 | 3.3 | 3.6 | 34 | 0.24 |
| Salespeople | 2.2 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 36 | 0.31 |
| N | 124 | 127 | 130 | | |

^a $p < 0.001$ ^b $p < 0.001$

Table 7-46, shows that of the eight categories, the responses to newspapers, radio and salespeople, had means of four or below (equal to or below the midpoint neither agree / disagree part of the measurement scale). Only free samples, television, relatives / friends and browsing / shopping had scores of over five (agree), on the seven point scale. For practical reporting reasons, a decision was made to concentrate upon these variables.

7.11.1 Importance of Free Samples

Before further meaningful statistical analysis could be carried out, the data needed to be re-coded from the original seven point rating scale, into a three point (“unimportant”, “neither unimportant or important” and “important”) scale. Table 7-47 below, shows evidence of a significant relationship between respondents’ degree of importance rating for free samples and the *market maven* categories.

Table 7-47 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Responses To 'Free Samples' Search Activity Measure By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Degree Of Importance | Market Maven Categories | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Unimportant | 49 | 37 | 15 |
| Neither Unimportant Or Important | 36 | 32 | 32 |
| Important | 27 | 33 | 40 |
| $\chi^2 = 20.3$ (4 d.f.) $p < 0.001$ | | | |

Of those who considered free samples to be unimportant, 49% were in the "Low" *market maven* category and only 15% in the "High". At the other end of the scale, only 27% of those considering them to be important, were in the "Low" *market maven* category, whilst 40% were in the "High". Chi-Squared statistics went on to confirm the existence of a difference in assigned degree of importance, between the three *market maven* categories.

7.11.2 Importance of Television

Table 7-48 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Responses To "Television" Search Activity Measure By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Degree Of Importance | Market Maven Categories | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Unimportant | 55 | 32 | 13 |
| Neither Unimportant Or Important | 35 | 35 | 26 |
| Important | 24 | 34 | 42 |
| $\chi^2 = 31.2$ (4 d.f.) $p < 0.001$ | | | |

Table 7-48, shows the degree of importance respondents placed upon television, as a source of new food product information. As with free samples, the largest percentage of respondents, who considered television unimportant in finding out about new food products, were in the “Low” *market maven* category. The largest percentage of those considering it to be important, were once again “High” *market mavens*. Chi-Squared statistics ($\chi^2 = 31.2$ (4 d.f.) $p < 0.001$) confirmed these findings.

7.11.3 Importance of Relatives / Friends

Table 7-49 shows yet again, that importance rating seems to be closely linked to *market maven* category. The higher the *market maven* category, the more important they rated relatives and friends in finding out about new food items.

Table 7-49 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Responses To “Relatives / Friends” Search Activity Measure By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Degree Of Importance | Market Maven Categories | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Unimportant | 53 | 31 | 17 |
| Neither Unimportant Or Important | 29 | 37 | 33 |
| Important | 25 | 33 | 41 |

$\chi^2 = 26.3$ (4 d.f.) $p < 0.001$

7.11.4 Importance of Browsing / Shopping

Table 7-50, shows the relationship between importance rating of browsing / shopping by *market maven* category. Once more, a significant percentage of those who considered browsing / shopping to be unimportant, were in the “Low” *market maven*

category. On the other hand the largest percentage of those who considered it important (45%), were in the “High” *market maven* category. Chi-Squared statistics (value 36.3, 4 D.F., $p < 0.001$), confirm that the difference in reporting between the categories was significant.

Table 7-50 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Responses To “Browsing / Shopping” Search Activity Measure By Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Degree Of Importance | Market Maven Categories | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Unimportant | 51 | 34 | 19 |
| Neither Unimportant Or Important | 30 | 44 | 26 |
| Important | 24 | 32 | 45 |

$\chi^2 = 36.3$ (4 d.f.) $p < 0.001$

7.11.5 The Association Between Search Activity Measures and Market Maven Categories

Having established that the three *market maven* categories did indeed rate the search activity measures differently, the Contingency Coefficient was used to test the strength and direction of the relationship. Initial impressions, suggested that those who responded positively to the four search activity measures, also tended to rate higher on the *market maven* scale. Table 7-51, shows that this was indeed the case. In all four instances, a significant relationship was confirmed.

Table 7-51 Testing For Strength Of Association Between Search Activity Measures And Market Maven Category (Rounded And Ordered By Size)

| Search Activity Measure | Contingency Coefficient | Significance |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|
| Browsing/Shopping | 0.30 | p < 0.001 |
| Television | 0.28 | p < 0.001 |
| Relatives/Friends | 0.25 | p < 0.001 |
| Free Samples | 0.23 | p < 0.001 |

7.11.6 Search Activity Measures Summary

In overall terms, respondents rated free samples, television, relatives and friends and browsing / shopping, to be significantly more important to them as sources of new food product information, than magazines, newspapers, radio and salespeople.

Irrespective of the overall view, those in the “High” *market maven* category consistently rated the search activity measures as more important than their “Medium” and “Low” *market maven* counterparts.

Of the eight measures, only those which had clearly positive mean scores (above five on the seven-point scale), were investigated further. In all four instances, the largest percentage of respondents who considered the sources “unimportant”, were in the “Low” *market maven* category. Conversely, the largest percentage of respondents who considered the sources to be “important”, were in the “High” *market maven* category.

In the author’s opinion, for those in the “High” *market maven* category not to have considered all the sources of information as more important than other respondents, would have pointed to a degree of selectivity incompatible with Feick and Price’s “generalist” description of the *market maven*. Such selectivity was not evident in this

study and therefore the notion of the *market maven* as a marketplace generalist, was upheld.

Overall, these findings therefore made it possible to reject the negative hypothesis;

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between the degree of importance assigned by respondents to a variety of potential sources of new food products information and their *market maven* score.

7.12 Comparing Market Maven, Opinion Leader and Innovator Constructs

In section 5.7, the author reported that Feick and Price (1987) had established the discriminant validity of the *market maven* measure, and that it was distinct from the measures of opinion leadership and early purchaser / innovator. Interrelationships between the three categories are also discussed, but only at the factor analysis level. There was no discussion on, for example, socio-demographic differences that existed between the groups. It is at this point in this study, having extensively reported the results of the *market maven* construct, that the author can begin to examine and compare the three constructs.

Table 7-52 *Market Maven, Opinion Leadership and Innovator Correlation Coefficients*

| Construct | Opinion Leader | Innovator |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Market Maven | 0.34 (p< 0.001) | 0.41 (p< 0.001) |
| Opinion Leader | - | 0.19 (p< 0.002) |

Table 7-52 shows that the correlations between the *market maven*, and both innovator and opinion leader constructs, are significant. The author thus submits, that (as maintained by Feick and Price 1987), whilst irrefutably related, they are separate and

distinct, the difference between the innovator and opinion leader construct, being particularly marked.

Table 7-53, shows the results of a cross-tabulation of the three *market maven* subgroups with the opinion leadership subgroups. The Chi statistic confirms the association between the constructs, and at 0.29, the Contingency coefficient suggested a small but significant tendency for “High” *market maven* respondents to also be “High” opinion leaders.

Table 7-53 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Market Maven In Corresponding Opinion Leader Categories (Figures Rounded)

| Opinion Leadership Categories | Market Maven Categories | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Low | 49 | 35 | 17 |
| Medium | 30 | 37 | 36 |
| High | 21 | 28 | 48 |

$\chi^2 = 26$ (4 d.f.) $p < 0.001$ Contingency Coefficient = 0.29 $p < 0.001$

A similar pattern of association between *market maven* and innovator categories, was apparent in Table 7-54. Again the Chi statistic confirms the association between the constructs. At 0.39, the Contingency coefficient suggested, that there is a small but significant tendency, for “High” *market mavens* to also be “High” innovators.

**Table 7-54 Cross Tabulation Of Percentage Of Market Maven In Corresponding Innovator Categories
(Figures Rounded)**

| Innovator Categories | Market Maven Categories | | |
|----------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|
| | Low | Medium | High |
| Low | 56 | 36 | 14 |
| Medium | 26 | 40 | 27 |
| High | 19 | 25 | 59 |

$\chi^2 = 60$ (4 d.f.) $p < 0.001$ Contingency Coefficient = 0.39 $p < 0.001$

Having found a degree of interrelationship between the three categories, and having confirmed that clear differences (and relationships) exist, the author proceeded to examine whether there were any differences in key socio-demographic variables. Table 7-55 compares these variables by “High” *market maven*, opinion leader and innovator categories.

In overall terms, it showed that there was little difference between “High” *market maven* respondents and “High” innovator respondents, other than the fact that a significantly smaller percentage of “High” innovators were married. The differences between the “High” *market maven*, and the “High” opinion leader categories were however, somewhat more prominent.

Table 7-55 Comparing Demographic Characteristics Of The Market Maven, Opinion Leader and Innovator Constructs (Figures Rounded)

| Variable | Categories | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| | Market Maven | Opinion Leader | Innovator |
| Age | 35-39 | 35-39 | 35-39 |
| Education | 6 th Form College | 6 th Form College | 6 th Form College |
| Income | £15,000 - £19,999 | £20,000 - £24,999 | £15,000 - £19,999 |
| Household Size | 3.2 | 2.7 | 3.2 |
| Children Under 18 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 1.0 |
| Gender - % Female | 82 | 63 | 79 |
| Marital Status - % Married | 62 | 45 | 50 |
| Ethnicity - % White | 89 | 91 | 86 |

“High” Opinion leaders had higher average incomes, shared their home with fewer people, and had fewer children in the household, than their “High” *market maven* counterparts. In overall terms, whilst still in the majority, there were fewer female opinion leaders than males. And at 45% there were fewer married “High” opinion leaders than either of the other two categories.

7.13 Ethnic Food Influencing Factor Results

As mentioned in the literature review, the ethnic food industry had over the years enjoyed exponential growth rates in all segments, from the humble pizza, to taco sauces, through to oven ready meals. The reason for this growth was historically ascribed to four influencing factors. These were, increased international travel, the presence of ethnic minority groups, the influence of mass media (television and newspapers), and finally an increase in restaurant patronage. Little effort was made to measure the validity of these claims.

The author was advised during the course of his studies, that the obvious reason for this state of affairs, was the inability / difficulty of applying standard research techniques to the problem. Clearly a different approach was required. This was where the new *market maven* construct would (if substantiated), prove invaluable, as it was planned to employ the active information gathering and dissemination characteristics of the *market maven*, as a way in which to test the aforementioned factors.

Firstly measuring the degree of agreement (or disagreement) of all respondents to a series of five statements, the null hypothesis;

H_0 - The majority of respondents do not feel that their food consumption habits are influenced by international travel, ethnic minorities, television, restaurant patronage or the print media.

would be tested.

The *market maven* construct would then be used to measure the final hypothesis of the study;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the respondent's responses to the statements regarding the influence of international travel, ethnic minorities, television, restaurant patronage or the print media and their *market maven* score.

7.13.1 The Importance of Ethnic Food Influencing Factors

Table 7-56 showed that of the ethnic food influencing factors measured in this study, a significant percentage of respondents (78% and 69% respectively), did not consider restaurant patronage and television programmes to be influential. In the case of ethnic minority friends and foreign travel, whilst the majority considered them to be

unimportant, a significant minority (31% and 36% respectively), considered them important.

Table 7-56 Ethnic Food Influencing Factor Measure (% Of Responses) By Level Of Importance (Figures Rounded)

| Influencing Factor Measure | Unimportant | Neither Unimportant Or Important | Important |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|---|------------------|
| Restaurants | 78 | 12 | 10 |
| Television Programmes | 69 | 13 | 18 |
| Ethnic Minority Friends | 59 | 10 | 31 |
| Foreign Travel | 53 | 11 | 36 |
| Print Media | 44 | 22 | 34 |

The least clear-cut result was that of the perceived influence of print media, where whilst 44% of respondents considered it unimportant, 22% remained undecided, and a sizeable 34% believed that it was an important source of information for new food recipes.

Consequently, whilst the null hypothesis;

H_0 - A significant majority of respondents do not feel that their food consumption habits are influenced by international travel, ethnic minorities, television, restaurant patronage or the print media.

could not be rejected (given the previously set criteria for acceptance and rejection), in reality, the results were not as clear-cut as this may seem.

7.13.2 The Relationship Between Market Maven Category and the Ethnic Food Influencing Factors

To recap briefly, this study confirmed Feick and Price's thesis that *market mavens* were;

“individuals who have information about many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of markets, and initiate discussions with consumers and respond to requests from consumers for market information” (Feick and Price 1987).

In section 7.11, the information seeking characteristics of *market mavens* were discussed. The fact that respondents in the “High” *market maven* category, rated eight new food item information sources, as being consistently more important to them, than the other *market maven* categories, was significant. Of particular import here, was the fact that they were also the only category to record mean scores greater than 5 (agree on the seven point scale), for any of the eight sources. The author concluded from this, that “High” *market mavens* appreciated more than most, the importance of external sources of information.

In section 7.13.1, the majority of respondents stated that none of the five ethnic food factors had influenced their food consumption habits. This was surprising, as the literature review showed that practitioners and academics alike, had for many years considered these factors as being the main agents in the diffusion of ethnic foods. The author felt, that given their active general marketplace information seeking and provision characteristics, *market mavens* could be used as a standard, against which to check these results.

Following a similar pattern to that reported in section 7.11, mean “High” *market maven* scores for the ethnic food influencing factors, were consistently higher than those of the “Medium” and “Low” categories (see Table 7-57).

**Table 7-57 Comparing Means Of Ethnic Food Influencing Factors By Market Maven Category
(Ordered And Figures Rounded)**

| Influencing Factor Measure | Market Maven Categories | | | χ^2 (12 D.F.) ^a | Correlation With Market Maven Scale ^b |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|------------------------------------|--|
| | Low | Medium | High | | |
| Foreign Travel | 2.6 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 44 | 0.32 |
| Ethnic Minority Friends | 2.4 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 50 | 0.31 |
| Television Programmes | 2.0 | 2.3 | 3.7 | 76 | 0.42 |
| Restaurants | 1.7 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 56 | 0.36 |
| Print Media | 3.1 | 3.6 | 4.6 | 53 | 0.31 |
| N | 124 | 127 | 130 | | |

^a $p < 0.001$ ^b $p < 0.001$

However on this occasion, not even the "High" *market maven* category agreed with any of the food influencing factor statements (none being rated at 5 or above). It was clear, that further examination of each individual influencing factor was necessary, before considering the null hypothesis.

By re-coding the data, it was possible to study which of the three *market maven* categories agreed most with each of the influencing factor statements (see Table 7-58). In almost all cases, the proportion of those agreeing, rose significantly from the "Low" to the "High" *market maven* category. For example, only 14% of "Low" *market maven* respondents stated that they now regularly prepare dishes that they first saw on a television programme, as opposed to 68% of the "High" *maven* category. Similarly, only 22% of the "Medium" *market maven* category eat in restaurants, because they provide them with ideas for meals which they then prepare at home, compared to 56% of the "High" *market maven* category. In all cases, Chi-Squared results showed these differences to be statistically significant and Contingency coefficient results, also established that "High" *market mavens* believed that their food consumption had indeed been influenced by external factors.

Table 7-58 Distribution Of "Agree" Responses To The Ethnic Food Influencing Factor Measure By Each Market Maven Category (Figures Rounded)

| Influencing Factor Measure | Market Maven Categories | | | χ^2 (4 D.F.) ^a | Contingency Coefficient ^b |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|--------|------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | Low | Medium | High | | |
| Television Programmes | 14 | 18 | 68 | 62 | 0.38 |
| Restaurants | 22 | 22 | 56 | 25 | 0.25 |
| Ethnic Minority Friends | 21 | 27 | 52 | 37 | 0.32 |
| Print Media | 21 | 28 | 51 | 33 | 0.29 |
| Foreign Travel | 20 | 31 | 49 | 29 | 0.28 |

^a p < 0.001 ^b p < 0.001

Whilst strictly speaking, it was not possible to reject the null hypotheses;

H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the respondent's responses to the statements regarding the influence of international travel, ethnic minorities, television, restaurant patronage or the print media and their *market maven* score.

these results had shown that "*High*" *market maven* respondents, were consistently more likely to believe that such factors had influenced their food consumption habits. This was in agreement with the findings of earlier *market maven* studies (Elliott and Warfield 1993; Williams and Slama 1995; Price et al. 1995), and suggested (at least where food consumption was concerned), that *market mavens* possess a heightened awareness of those factors which had influenced them to adopt new products. Clearly, given the preliminary nature of this finding, this apparently new *market maven* trait, demands further investigation.

7.13.3 Summary of Market Maven Versus Influencing Factor Results

This part of the study, further supports the findings of Feick and Price (1987), which state that *market mavens* consistently exhibit a heightened awareness of general marketplace information. It has also proved, that those in the "High" *market maven* category, consistently rated a wide variety of information sources higher in importance, than those in the "Medium" and "Low" *market maven* categories. This underlined the author's belief, that *market mavens* not only absorb and retain more information than others, but are also significantly more proactive (being *in* the marketplace rather than for example just reading about it), and are willing recipients of a wide variety of information.

These results also lead the author to believe, that the *level of involvement* of the particular media carrying the influencing factor, is an important / influential issue which merits further future investigation. For example, in this study, where respondent involvement with the media is low (such as television), the relative differences between the *market maven* categories were small and lacked significant trends. On the other hand where involvement was significantly higher (e.g. magazines / newspapers), the less *market maven* the respondent, the less they tended to agree with the statement. Restaurant patronage, exhibited the most clear-cut of all the results in this respect. Whilst the author considers it to be a high involvement activity, in that one participates in a series of deliberate decision-making processes (for example choosing the restaurant, the food *and* drink). The level of perceived personal importance and interest evoked by the situation, is (in the author's opinion), more likely to be centred upon the person they are having the meal with, rather than on the stimulus provided by the ambience, or indeed the novelty value of the food or drink. Unless the respondent happened to be a food writer or reviewer (where risk reduction is clearly not an issue), the most common concern voiced by respondents, was that of selecting "the wrong dish" in the company of others. A risk which many respondents said they avoided, by taking their guests to restaurants which were already well-known to them, and once there, ordering familiar, tried and tested dishes.

8. Summary And Conclusions

This work was based upon a self-funded, part-time study, of consumer behaviour and its effect upon the diffusion of innovations. Employing a hypothetico-deductive approach, it revolved around a detailed study of Feick and Price's (1987) *market maven* construct, together with an associated investigation into ethnic food diffusion influencing factors.

A replication study approach, enabled the author to firstly test the *market maven* construct, and then compare the findings with those of the original Feick and Price (1987) study. Demographic / classification data was analysed, with a view to identifying key *market maven* attributes. Similarities and differences *between* the three *market maven* categories, were then examined. The study concluded with an investigation into the diffusion of ethnic foods, and the part that increased international travel, ethnic minorities, mass communications and restaurant patronage, played in their growth and popularisation. The findings have implications for both *market maven* and ethnic food diffusion research.

8.1 Replication / Comparative Study Issues

This study was conducted in and around the county town of Bedford, England. It covered both urban, suburban and rural areas. A questionnaire was administered by telephone. A total of 400 respondents were interviewed.

8.1.1 Comparing General Demographic Results

The demographic profile of the sample was broadly representative of the population under investigation. There were however, some notable differences. The first concerned the proportion of males versus females in the sample. As in the Feick and

Price study, females outnumbered males by a ratio of approximately 2:1. This differed markedly from the 1991 census findings, where equal numbers of males and females were reported. The fact that both surveys' opening statements included a reference to shopping patterns, was felt to have been particularly influential. Weighting for gender produced no significant results. For replication study reasons, unweighted results were reported.

The second notable difference concerned respondent age. The sampling frame excluded respondents aged under 18. The age profile was therefore expected to diverge from the norm. Results showed that the sample was significantly skewed in favour of those aged under 45. Whilst weighting for gender produced no significant differences in the results, weighting for age *did*, and was therefore employed to correct the imbalance.

An initial comparison of the marital status classification results, led the author to assume that single respondents were over-represented. On closer examination, much of the variance could be explained by the fact that the 1991 census, did not have individual classifications for separated and cohabiting respondents. If these respondents were combined with those who were single, the difference was not nearly so anomalous.

The fourth notable difference between the sample population and the 1991 census, concerned the significant under-representation of single person households. This was primarily due to the survey's concentration upon private residential areas. Persons in hospitals, sheltered housing and bed-sit accommodation for example, would not have been included in this study. These, and many other places where single occupancy would have been the norm, would have been included in the census. Weighting did not significantly alter the results, and was not therefore employed.

Given the degree of ethnic diversity present in the sampling area, it was important for the sample to include a representative number of ethnic minority respondents. By far the biggest percentage of respondents were "white". Nevertheless, a combination of telephone interviewing, and the use of experienced interviewers, resulted in more than satisfactory ethnic minority participation.

On the whole, the author concluded from this part of the study, that preparatory work on population definition, sample design and size, had resulted in a broadly representative sample of the population of interest. A systematic approach to data collection and the use of the telephone survey, was also felt to have directly contributed to a very low (3%), non-completion rate. However recent developments, such the increase in ex-directory subscribers, deregulation, and the growth of cable and cellular telephone communication services, are likely to make this method far less convenient (or indeed reliable), in the future.

8.1.2 Market Maven Scale and Construct Validity Result Comparisons

This section covers *market maven* scale and construct validity issues. It summarises key factors and compares the results with those reported in Feick and Price (1987).

The mean *market maven* scale score for this study, was significantly lower than that reported in Feick and Price (1987). The author concluded that the measures used to compile the scale, could be influenced by cultural differences. For example, a cornerstone of the concept of a *market maven*, includes provision of information to others. In this study, many respondents who said that they knew a great deal about a particular product, typically downplayed the influence they had on others. This would have had a direct, and depressive effect, upon their *market maven* scale score. This particular behaviour was not noted by Feick and Price (1987).

Factor analysis was used to test for construct validity. Applying it to the *market maven* and opinion leadership measures, resulted in a three factor solution. Factor one being the *market maven* factor, factor two an opinion leadership factor and factor three a lack of perceived personal influence factor. This result was different from that reported by Feick and Price (1987). In their study, only two factors (*market maven* and opinion leadership), were reported.

Further investigation into the relationship between the *market maven*, opinion leadership and innovator scales, found a high degree of positive correlation between the three measures. The distinction between the constructs, was therefore not as marked as in Feick and Price (1987). This cast doubt upon the implied notion, that a respondent who states that they are very knowledgeable about a *particular* product, cannot possibly be knowledgeable about a *wide* variety of *other* products.

Despite differences in degree of correlation between measures, and the apparent influence of cultural norms, this study had clearly identified the two main elements of primary interest, the *market maven* and opinion leader categories. Factor analysis confirmed the validity and stability of the measurement devices used by Feick and Price (1987), and most notably, they confirmed the presence of similar patterns of behaviour in a UK context.

8.1.3 The Key Market Maven Attributes

In this section, the key *market maven* attributes will be discussed and compared to Feick and Price (1987).

Feick and Price (1987), stated that the first fundamental attribute of a *market maven*, was the possession of general marketplace information. Early awareness of a variety of product categories and brands, were the key measures used to test for this. Apart from slight variations in mean scores and correlation coefficients, the results of this study were broadly similar.

Amongst the brands used to measure early awareness, Feick and Price (1987) included a non-existent "brand". Although not explicitly stated, it was clearly used to ascertain whether respondents (knowingly or unknowingly), had a tendency to inflate new product awareness. Direct comparisons could not be made between the studies, as Feick and Price did not report their results. This study however, found that the higher their *market maven* score, the more they tended to report awareness of the fictitious brand. A result with potentially serious implications, further investigations are clearly necessary in order to assess *market maven* reliability.

Feick and Price (1987), considered the provision of market information to others, as central to the *market maven* construct. Whilst the correlation between the information provision measure and the *market maven* scale was marginally stronger than that reported in Feick and Price (1987), the mean scores were significantly lower. Supporting the earlier construct validity findings, these results confirm that, in Feick and Price (1987) terms, UK respondents consistently undervalued their ability to influence others.

Feick and Price (1987), also posited that *market mavens* should “demonstrate higher levels of general market information seeking than other consumers”. The first measure of this behaviour was the reported readership of the US “Consumer Reports” publication. Here, “Which Magazine” was substituted for the US title. In this survey, the percentage of respondents who were regular readers was small. Feick and Price (1987) did not report general readership levels, so it was not possible to make direct comparisons. In this study however, “High” *market mavens* were less likely be regular readers, than respondents in the other two categories. This was the opposite of that reported by Feick and Price (1987). Given the uncharacteristic nature of the result, the author concluded that the measure had not converted well into a UK setting. Further work was patently required, before its efficacy, as a measure of information seeking, could be established.

The second information seeking measure, involved the importance rating of various sources of new food product information. In this instance, the results for the two studies were broadly similar; the higher the *market maven* score, the more importance respondents assigned to the various sources. Transforming / summarising the search activity data into a single aggregate measure, enabled the author to further explore the relationship between it, and the *market maven* construct. Correlation statistics reported a significant positive relationship. Again, as a respondent’s *market maven* score increased, so did their rating (in terms of importance), of a variety of new product information sources. Whilst initially this seemed a satisfactory outcome, the author questions whether this measure is actually gauging *search* activity. A respondent may consider magazines to be very important in finding out about new food products, but can one assume importance equals search? In the author’s opinion, a statement such as “I buy magazines regularly, because they provide me with a constant source of new food product information”, would have lead to an improvement in face validity.

Finally, according to Feick and Price (1987), *market mavens* would typically “give greater attention to the marketplace through greater coupon usage, enjoyment of shopping and attention to advertising”. As in the earlier study, the higher the *market maven* score, the less negative were their responses to the measure. Combining the questions into a single marketplace attentiveness measure, enabled further analysis to be carried out. This revealed a relatively strong correlation between the marketplace attentiveness measure and the *market maven* scale.

8.1.4 Market Maven Categories - Contrasting Demographic Characteristics

The demographic profile of the three *market maven* categories, varied little between the two studies. There were noticeable differences in age, education, household income, and ethnicity. The remaining three measures; household size, number of children under 18, and marital status results (whilst exhibiting some variance), were broadly similar to those reported in Feick and Price (1987). These results are broadly in line with the findings of previous information seeker studies. The author therefore concludes that demographic characteristics are clearly not effective in classifying or identifying *market mavens*.

8.1.5 Examining Market Maven Personality

Given the current inability to classify *market mavens* using demographic variables, the author re-examined past studies, and (together with the results of this research), investigated the relationship between the *market maven* construct and personality types. As this study was not developed with this specific analysis in mind, it is far from exhaustive, and the results of this examination should be viewed as purely indicative.

Personality is considered to be a sturdy and resilient concept, which enables us to predict and understand complex human behaviour (Briggs-Myers 1980; McCroskey and Daly 1987; Phares 1991; Hjelle and Zeigler 1992; Carver and Scheier 1992).

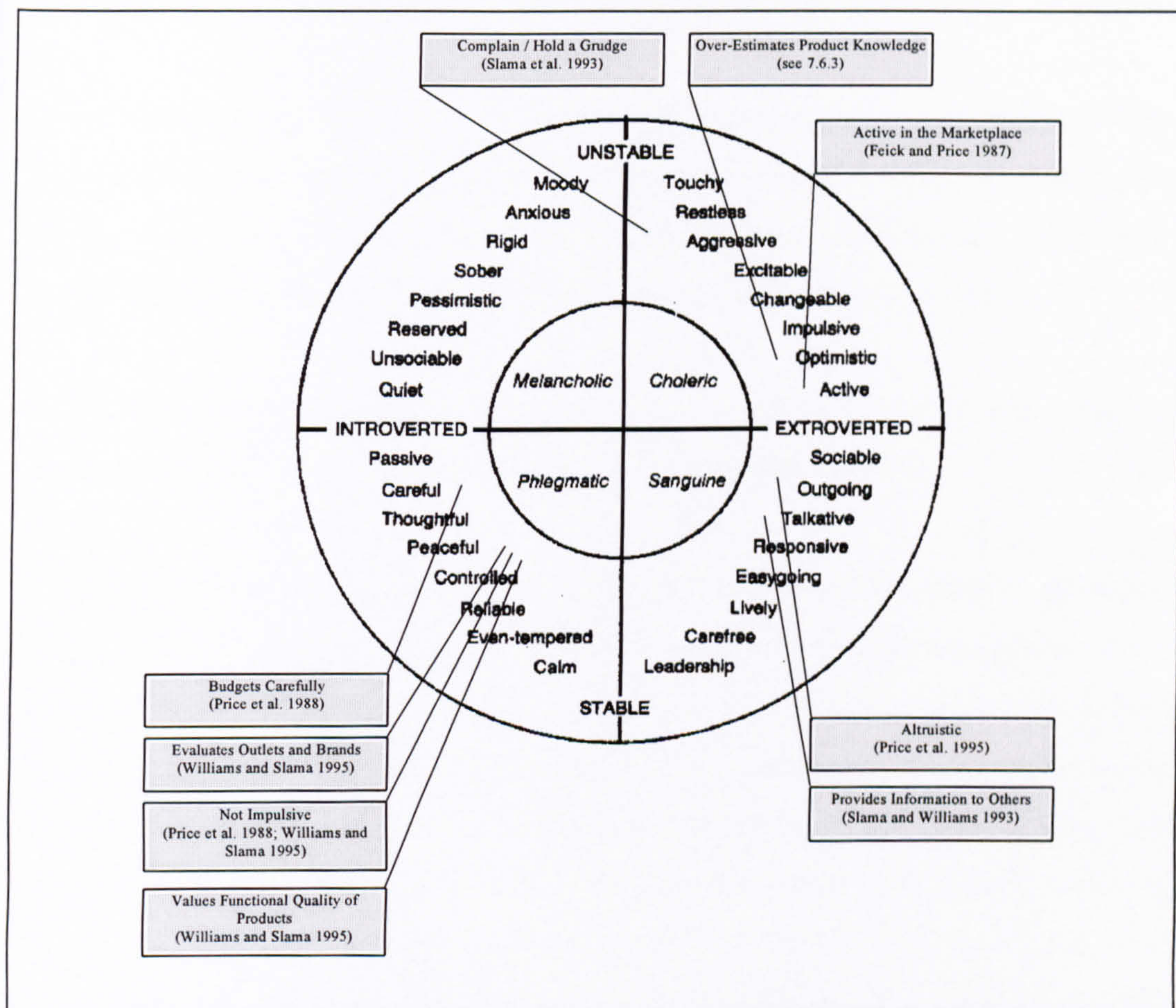
Others, however, question its predictive powers, arguing that; a) people do not always behave in a consistent manner when faced with different situations; and b) that some individuals personalities are far from stable (Mischel 1968; Aronoff and Wilson 1985).

Of the differing perspectives in personality theory including; psychodynamic, ego psychology, dispositional, learning-behavioural, social cognitive, cognitive, humanistic and phenomenological perspectives (Hjelle and Zeigler 1992), the one that appears most appropriate in this context, is the dispositional perspective.

Traits, needs and motives are the three dispositions said to help direct and energise behaviour (Phares 1991). Eysenck's theory of personality types (Eysenck 1947, 1952, 1953, 1970), developed from the work on trait theory originally started by Allport (1937) and Cattell (1946).

Eysenck (1947) concluded that there were two fundamental dimensions of personalities; a) introversion-extroversion; and b) stability-instability. Eysenck (1947) posited that these two dimensions were responsible for the major portion of human behaviour, and whilst introverts were generally more oriented to internal stimuli (their own reactions, thoughts and moods), and were subsequently more likely to be shy, self-controlled and preoccupied, extroverts were more likely to be ebullient, sociable individuals, often given to bouts of impulsive behaviour. Mischel (1968) had initially been highly critical of Eysenck's work, believing that the concept of personality traits as "broad predispositions" was untenable, and that a person's behaviour is controlled not by stable traits, but by the special characteristics in which the person functions (Mischel 1968). However, this highly dismissive stance was soon abandoned (Mischel 1973), with later studies (Bowers 1973; Bem and Allen 1974; Snyder and Kendzierski 1982; Epstein and O'Brien 1985; Kenrick and Funder 1988; Carson 1989; Block 1989), providing strong support for the trait position.

Figure 8-1 Eysenck's Dimensions of Personality: Introversion - Extroversion and Stability - An Analysis of Market Maven Personality



Adapted from: The Causes and Cures of Neurosis by H.J. Eysenck and S. Rachman (1965)

Figure 8-1 shows the position of typical *market maven* behaviour, when superimposed upon Eysenck's (1965) graphical representation of the two fundamental dimensions. It is immediately evident, that there appears to be no one, dominant, *market maven* personality trait.

To date, *market mavens* have not been found to possess unstable introvert tendencies. A number of factors did however, suggest that *market mavens* had stable introverted personalities given their propensity to; a) budget carefully (Price et al. 1988); b) carefully evaluate retail outlets and brands (Williams and Slama 1995); c) value the functional quality of products over more emotional / less substantive criteria (Williams

and Slama 1995); and d) remain in control, not giving in to impulsive behaviour (Price et al. 1988; Williams and Slama 1995).

Other factors suggested that *market mavens* had an unstable extrovert personality, given their; a) increased disposition to complain, and hold grudges for many years (Slama et al. 1993); b) active participation in the marketplace (Feick and Price 1987); c) over-optimistic estimation of their own product knowledge (see 7.6.3).

Finally, *market maven* altruistic market helping and information provision behaviour (Price et al. 1995), seems indicative of a stable extrovert personality.

As with the earlier attempt to classify *market mavens* using demographic techniques, this analysis of their personality types has proved to be somewhat inconclusive. Whilst being altruistic, providing others with information, and being active in the marketplace suggests a degree of extroversion in keeping with the main tenets of the construct. And a lack of impulsiveness, careful budgeting, valuing product functionality over emotional criteria and careful evaluation of both retail outlets and brands, underpins the role of thoughtful / credible information provider, the over-estimation of product knowledge and (most significantly), an increased tendency to complain and hold grudges over a long period of time suggest a touchy / restless side to their character, somewhat at odds with what appears to be a rather genial nature.

8.2 Hypothesis Results

As well as comparing the findings of this study with Feick and Price (1987), the author formulated and then tested a number of hypotheses. The following section summarises the findings.

8.2.1 Demographic / Classification Findings

This study underlined the fact that demographic / classification data is not an effective method of identifying *market mavens*. Of the measures employed, a significant relationship was found between age, gender, country of birth and ethnic background. No significant relationship was found between the *market maven* scale and employment status, marital status, household size, education, income or geographical location. Contrary to the findings of Feick and Price (1987, in this study, a young “white” female, born in England, was more likely to be a *market maven*, than any other member of the population.

8.2.2 Market Maven Search Activity Behaviour

In this part of the study, respondents were asked to rate how important free samples, magazines, newspapers, radio, television, salespeople, relatives / friends and browsing / shopping, were to them, in finding out about new food products. Initial analysis, reported a significant positive correlation between the aggregated search activity measure and the *market maven* scale. Detailed investigation found that irrespective of *market maven* category, magazines, newspapers, radio and salespeople, were (universally), considered unimportant. On the other hand, not only were free samples, television, relatives / friends and browsing / shopping, considered important, their importance rating increased consistently in relation to their *market maven* score. Chi-Squared statistics confirmed that there was indeed a difference in level of importance expressed by the three *market maven* categories. Contingency Coefficient results confirmed that the higher a respondent’s *market maven* score, the more importance they tended to place upon the search activity measure. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the author questions whether or not the ranking in importance of a series of sources of information, actually measures search activity. Measuring the degree of agreement to a statement such as “I always try free samples

because they are a good way of evaluating new products”, would have been more valid. However a replication study methodology prohibited major alterations of this kind.

8.2.3 Comparing the Market Maven, Opinion Leader and Innovator Constructs

This study also investigated the relationship between *market maven*, opinion leader and innovator constructs. The results largely supported the construct validity findings. There were modest but significant correlations between the *market maven* and opinion leadership scales and the same was true for the *market maven* and innovator constructs. The association between the opinion leader and innovator scale at 0.19, was however, significantly weaker.

A comparison of demographic data relating to “High” *market maven* respondents and “High” innovator respondents, revealed only minor differences. The main one being that significantly fewer “High” innovators were married. The differences between the “High” *market maven*, and the “High” opinion leader category, were more marked. Thus, the majority of “High” Opinion leaders were single, had higher average incomes, shared their home with fewer people, and had fewer children in the household, than their “High” *market maven* counterparts. Although still in the majority, far fewer opinion leaders, were female.

8.2.4 Ethnic Food Influencing Factors Issues

Initial analyses, found that the overwhelming majority of respondents did not feel that their food consumption habits had been influenced by international travel, ethnic minority friends, television programmes, the print media or restaurant patronage. This result was somewhat surprising, as many commentators on the subject considered the above-mentioned factors had been fundamental in the diffusion of food products world-wide. Before accepting these results, the author used the *market maven* construct to test their reliability. Further analysis, showed that despite the fact that the “High”

market maven mean scores, were consistently higher than those of the other two *market maven* categories, even these respondents did not believe that their food consumption patterns had been affected by the food influencing factors.

Examining in more detail the relationship between the *market maven* construct and their food influencing factor responses, showed that there were distinct differences between the three categories. “High” *market mavens*, were found to be consistently more likely to agree with the statements, than their “Medium” or “Low” *market maven* counterparts.

8.3 Conclusions

The study of communications across groups, has traditionally been closely associated with the diffusion of innovations process. The link between diffusion research and word-of-mouth communication, is also well established. The role that innovators and opinion leaders play in the diffusion of innovations, is equally well understood. Feick and Price’s (1987) new *market maven* construct, was however, virtually unknown.

8.3.1 The Research Contribution

During the 1980’s researchers had identified consumers who appeared to be particularly interested in marketplace issues (Raju 1980; Thorelli and Engledow 1980; Slama and Tashchian 1985). Together with opinion leaders and innovators, these were said to be active “information seekers” Thorelli and Engledow (1980). Feick and Price’s *market maven*, was clearly a closely related construct.

Prior to this work, no-one had attempted to replicate Feick and Price’s original 1987 *market maven* study. Subsequent studies, focused upon further investigating *market maven* behaviour (Slama and Williams 1991; Schnieder and Rogers 1993; Slama et al.

1993; Williams and Slama 1995; Abratt et al. 1995; Price, Feick and Guskey 1995). In all cases, the construct and its associated research underpinnings, remained largely untested and therefore unchallenged. To the author, it seemed that the search for marketing applications had been far more important, than that of developing a more complete understanding of the construct. As this study developed, it became (primarily), an attempt to redress the balance.

Borrowing much from Rogers and Cartano's opinion leadership scales (Rogers and Cartano 1962), the author expected Feick and Price's *market maven* scale, to be relatively robust. Whilst other studies did little more than report Cronbach's Alpha scores for internal consistency, both construct and discriminant validity tests carried out here, confirmed this.

However, conflicting with Feick and Price's (1987) earlier findings, this study found that the distinction between *market maven*, opinion leader and innovator constructs was not as marked. The degree of correlation between these two measures and the *market maven* scale, was much stronger than reported in any previous study. This questioned for the first time, the unwritten premise, that a respondent who rated highly on one scale, could not possibly rate highly on any other. The concept of mutual exclusivity was challenged.

The decision to concentrate in this study, on a far more defined segment of the UK food market, resulted in a far greater variance amongst innovativeness measure results. By focusing on the pasta based products and sauces sector, the author was able to demonstrate for the first time, that there was a significant relationship between a respondent's *market maven* category and their new product awareness. Thus, the more *market maven* the respondent, the more aware they were of a particular product and vice-versa.

This research broadly supported the Feick and Price (1987) view, that *market mavens* demonstrate higher levels of general market information seeking than other consumers. However, whilst the results of general market information seeking behaviour were comparable, readership of "Which Magazine", was much lower amongst UK respondents. In complete contrast to Feick and Price's results, further analysis found that the higher the *market maven* category, the less likely the respondent was to read the magazine. The author concluded that specific magazine readership, was an inherently unreliable, and therefore inappropriate measure of information-seeking behaviour.

In common with opinion leadership research, to date, none of the *market maven* studies have yet been able to classify a "typical" *market maven*. This study was no different. The author concluded that demographic / socio-economic measures were of no practical use in predicting a respondent's *market maven* category. In a similar vein, this study found that geographic location did not affect a respondent's *market maven* score. *Market mavens* were equally present in rural, suburban and urban locations. Significantly, (as with the majority of opinion leadership studies), both this and other *market maven* related studies carried out since Feick and Price (1987), showed that there was nothing to be gained from the use of expensive large-scale nation-wide studies. *Market mavens* were found to be present in significant numbers even in relatively small populations.

8.3.2 Market Mavens Scale and Construct Issues

Feick and Price's over-reliance upon a rating scale almost entirely based upon self-perception, has been criticised before (Williams and Slama 1995). The main weakness, was considered to be that some people could rate themselves as more or less influential than they actually were. An associated, but significantly more worrying finding to

come out of this study, was that the more *market maven-like* the respondent, the more likely he / she was to report awareness of a non-existent product. To have concluded at this point that *market mavens* knowingly lie, would have been premature. There was however clear evidence, that there was a tendency to over-estimate their product knowledge. Of fundamental concern, this issue clearly requires further investigation. To dismiss it at this stage as an aberration, would in the author's opinion be unwise. It could (in extremis), lead to valuable research and commercial resources being wasted on what may in fact be a potentially unreliable (and therefore ineffective), marketplace influencer.

The trichotomization process, used to categorise *market mavens* into "Low", "Medium" and "High" groups, was also (in the author's opinion), inherently flawed. Based upon the number of respondents in a survey, the method employed guaranteed (irrespective of their *market maven* scale item scores), that approximately one third of all respondents would fall into the "High" *market maven* category. If future *market maven* researchers insist on trichotomization, this should be applied to the measurement scale, with for example "Low" *market mavens* scoring between 6 and 18, "Medium" *market mavens* scoring between 19 and 29 and "High" *market mavens* 30 and above. The author however, questions the whole concept of "Medium" and "Low" *market maven* respondents, and in an attempt to focus upon the real protagonists, recommends that only those respondents who scored 5 and above (on each of the six *market maven* scale items), be considered *market mavens*.

To date, the author is alone in criticising the way in which Feick and Price (1987) interpreted their results. In particular, it was difficult to accept Feick and Price's assertion, that a score which differs across categories "in the expected direction", can reliably confirm or reject the behaviour being measured. In the author's opinion, irrespective of the degree of negativity, a "less negative" mean score *should not* be interpreted as being more positive.

8.3.3 Market Mavens - Credible Sources of Marketplace Information

This study has shown beyond doubt that the *market mavens* are one of *the* most receptive audiences for general marketplace information. An active participant in the general marketplace information gathering and disseminating process, they are considered to have high levels of source credibility, and also to be impartial. Thus, information targeted at this individual, is highly likely to be further disseminated throughout the wider community.

Likened by the author to the well thumbed magazine which reappears in many locations (usually ending its life in a waiting room of some description), the information held by the *market maven* can similarly be accessed on many occasions. Importantly, this study has also confirmed that other members of the “community” can readily identify these “information sponges”, which they can metaphorically squeeze in order to obtain a wide variety of information.

8.3.4 Ethnic Food Influencing Factor Measures

Prior to this work, international travel, ethnic minorities, restaurant patronage and the mass media, were believed to have been influential in the diffusion of ethnic foods. There was however, little incontrovertible evidence to support this view. In this study, respondents were asked to agree or disagree with a number of statements, which were designed to measure whether their individual food consumption patterns, had been affected by the above-mentioned influencing factors. The results showed that contrary to earlier beliefs, none of the factors were considered influential. Whilst accepting the preliminary nature of this study, these results cast doubt upon previous thinking, and underline the necessity for further investigative work. One way forward, may be to follow Gatignon and Robertson’s (1985) suggestion, and apply a causal model (based upon their modified model of the diffusion process which adds marketing and

competitive action dimensions to Rogers' (1983), innovation, personal / opinion leadership, adoption, innovator and social system factors), to the problem of understanding ethnic food diffusion.

8.4 Limitations and Criticisms

In addition to the methodological limitations already identified in section 2.4, in this section the author outlines a number of others which are associated with the results section of this study.

Lawrence Feick and Linda Price provided copies of the original questionnaire used in Feick and Price (1987), and without their assistance a replication / comparative study approach, would have been out of the question. It was however, difficult to determine from the questionnaire, what a particular question was trying to measure and therefore which scale it was related to. The process of identification, required the author to compare these questions with those used in previous consumer behaviour, opinion leadership, and diffusion of innovation studies. Because in some cases those used in Feick and Price (1987), had been worded slightly differently to those used in previous investigations, the author was forced to make a number of informed assumptions. Overall, a process which was clearly far from ideal.

The author could be criticised for having stuck too rigidly to the original Feick and Price (1987) study. For example, much of the re-coding which had to be carried out at the analysis stage could have been avoided, if three-point scales had been used, rather than the seven-point employed by Feick and Price (1987). In a similar vein, a better understanding of both UK consumer publication readership and coupon use in grocery shopping, should also have led to the author rejecting these very "American" measures in favour of more suitable ones. In hindsight, ascertaining the role and importance of television programmes dedicated to consumer issues such as "Watchdog", and

respondents' participation in customer loyalty schemes, may have proved much more revealing.

There are concerns regarding the practice of deriving conclusions about behaviour based entirely on surveys (Cohen 1979; Daneke 1979). Memory distortion due to the passage of time, selectivity and the effects of an (often) artificial setting were said to significantly affect the quality of the data (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). To avoid such problems Denzin (1989) championed the "more natural" technique of observation rather than the "artificial" interview. Fiske (1986) and Baron and Bronfen (1994) suggested that (when resources permitted), triangulation - using a variety of data gathering techniques - can help to minimise the degree of specificity of certain methods to particular bodies of knowledge. In hindsight, this study would have benefited from an additional observational / qualitative research element.

Criticism could also be directed at the method used to test *market mavens'* propensity to exaggerate product awareness. Despite what seemed rather conclusive evidence, the possibility of respondents making genuine mistakes when asked whether they had heard of a seemingly plausible product, was not taken into account. Given the importance of source credibility, if word-of-mouth communications are to be believed, the author should ideally have used a number of additional measures to further investigate this point.

In this study, the degree of correlation between *market maven*, opinion leader and innovator scales were much greater than that reported in Feick and Price (1987). There were many instances, where the same respondent could be classed as both a *market maven* and an opinion leader. In some cases, the respondent *could* be classed as all three. The author did not anticipate this outcome, and as a result was not able to further investigate these particular results.

Finally, as the survey was conducted within a relatively small geographic area, it was not possible to test for differences in *market mavenness* across the UK. Whilst the results proved that within the survey area, location had no effect upon *market maven* score, the author could not be certain that this holds true throughout the country. Further research therefore is needed, in order to validate these preliminary findings.

8.5 The Managerial Implications of the Research

New product diffusion is accelerated, by targeting marketing communications about new products, to consumers who buy early and who can influence others to purchase (Kotler and Zaltman 1976; Feick and Price 1987). Opinion leaders, innovators and early adopters have traditionally been sought out as targets, because they are believed to be amongst the first to adopt innovations. As they have been shown to engage others in product-related conversations, they are also considered to be particularly effective in influencing adoption via word-of-mouth. However, the fact that they almost always “promote” products which they have personally purchased, tends to diminish their source credibility (Bloch and Richins 1983; Chan and Misra 1990).

In 1987, Feick and Price claimed the existence of a new type of information seeker. Named the *market maven*, it was said to; a) demonstrate higher levels of general market information seeking than other consumers; b) absorb information from a wide variety of sources; c) be recognised by other members of the social system; and d) enjoy providing others with product information. Importantly, *market mavens* did not necessarily have to adopt a product to be considered by others as knowledgeable about it. This was considered a positive factor, which had the effect of increasing their credibility in the eyes of others. Most importantly, they were found *not* to behave in the same way as opinion leaders, who often acted as gatekeepers, being selective in what information they passed on to others (Spence 1994).

The fact that *market mavens* have been shown to be more proactive, have wider interests, and be less likely to knowingly withhold information than opinion leaders or innovators, makes them ideal targets for general marketing communications campaigns. Their (characteristically), eclectic range of interests, coupled with the fact that they have often not adopted the product, means that they both absorb, and then pass on to others, many marketing communications messages which are often immediately discarded by other consumers. *Market mavens* are (for example), less likely to selectively ignore messages because of past attitudes, experiences or beliefs (because the information they have, tends not to be based upon personal product adoption or use), and as a result, should be less influenced by them. Similarly, message rejection (due to a consumer's lack of immediate need), is also minimised by targeting *market mavens*, as their information gathering behaviour, is not influenced by personal need (Feick and Price 1987).

8.5.1 Using Market Mavens to Communicate Changes in the Marketing Mix

This study confirmed that *market mavens*; a) like introducing new products to their friends; b) provide them with information about specific products; c) tell them where specific products can be purchased; and c) know where to get the best value for money. Because opinion leaders, innovators and early adopters tend to be most interested in new (rather than modified) products, marketing communications practitioners should consider targeting *market mavens* when trying to communicate general messages about marketing mix changes to existing products.

Market mavens have been shown to be particularly interested in general marketplace issues, such as price promotions, changes in distribution channels, or even the addition of new product features. Using the retail sector as an example, this behaviour makes them ideal targets for information on changes in opening hours, product line extensions

and special offers. Confirmed as being particularly attentive *to*, and (most importantly), active *in* the marketplace, there are a variety of ways in which marketing information (such as leaflets, posters, point-of-sale material and in-store announcements), could be channelled through them, on to the majority of less attentive consumers.

8.5.2 New Food Product Adoption - Influencing Factors

As outlined in the literature review, the ethnic food market's share of total UK food sales, has grown exponentially, particularly over the last two decades. However, the underlying reasons for this relatively recent growth in popularity, were not clear. So far, attempts to investigate this phenomenon have been rather limited (Paulson-Box and Williamson 1990). This study, found that manufacturers and retailers alike, were convinced that four main factors; 1) international travel 2) mass communication 3) ethnic minorities, and 4) restaurant patronage, were particularly influential in the diffusion of ethnic foods. However, the findings of this study, suggest that the issue is not nearly as clear-cut as previously thought, and thus requires further investigation.

Here, respondents did not find foods they first encountered on foreign travels, had now become a regular part of their day-to-day diet. An ever-widening choice of affordable destinations, may further erode what (apparently) little influence this factor currently has. The author therefore believes that resources currently spent by manufacturers and retailers, on charting international travel trends (in the belief that they can predict the provenance of the next big ethnic food fashion), are largely being wasted and could probably be better spent elsewhere.

Similarly, ethnic minority friends were not considered by respondents, to be a good source of new culinary ideas. Irrespective of the underlying reasons for this result, the author believes that being both highly critical *and* unlikely adopters of a product aimed at the indigenous market, ethnic minorities are not appropriate targets of a marketing

communications campaign. The probability, of negative rather than positive word-of-mouth communications being spread amongst non-ethnic members of the their social circle, would be high. As the risks involved seem to outweigh any possible benefits, the author recommends that ethnic minorities groups should not be targeted as potential diffusers of new ethnic food product information.

There is clear evidence to suggest, that the recent increase in television programmes totally dedicated to food and food related issues, has (as far as they were prepared to admit), not materially affected respondents' food consumption patterns. Regular food features and a plethora of recipes in almost all magazines targeted at women, were similarly not considered to be valuable sources of new recipes. Whilst both media may be useful for raising short-term awareness, there is some doubt as to their effectiveness in changing long-term dietary habits. The author believes that the very popularity of television cookery programmes, have added to competitive clutter and information overload in such a way, as to seriously impair or inhibit consumer decision-making ability (see Malhotra 1982; Malhotra 1984; Jacoby 1984; Schneider 1997; Elliott 1988; Herbig and Kramer 1994). Any additional increases will only further inhibit what is (apparently), an already low level of message acceptance. Again, marketers should carefully evaluate whether advertising or product placement (in either media), is likely to prove effective before embarking on a major promotional campaign.

Finally, Paulson-Box and Williamson (1990) implied that many people use restaurants as sources of new culinary ideas, which they then try to reproduce at home. Again, the overwhelming majority of respondents to this survey, did not agree with this view. Nevertheless, some producers of branded products such as Hagen-Das, have successfully influenced opinion leaders, innovators and early adopters, by having their branded ice cream products prominently displayed on exclusive restaurants' menus. Whilst this strategy is obviously unsuited to the majority of branded ethnic food

products, there may be some specialist segment of the market such as sweets or drinks which could benefit from employing a similar approach.

8.6 Recommendations for Future Studies

Perhaps the most important contribution that this research has made to the study of diffusion of innovations, and in particular the area of personal influence in new product adoption, was that of confirming the existence of Feick and Price's (1987) *market maven* construct in a UK context. The replication study approach however, highlighted a number of issues which merit further investigation. Similarly, the examination of factors said to materially influence ethnic food diffusion, also produced interesting preliminary results. These suggested that earlier, widely-held beliefs, now seem to be unfounded. It is in this final section of the thesis, that recommendations for future studies in both main areas are made.

8.6.1 Identifying Market Mavens

As with earlier opinion leadership studies, demographic techniques have once again failed to categorise a "typical" *market maven*. A brief examination of *market maven* personality, was also inconclusive; no one, dominant personality trait emerging. The author recommends that future investigations concentrate on alternative methods (such as socio-cultural segmentation and psychological / psychographic segmentation), as identifying (and therefore targeting), *market mavens* remains *the* most intractable problem.

8.6.2 Measurement Scales and the Process of Trichotomization

This study found nothing of merit in using seven point scale questions in a telephone survey. Despite a relatively large sample, the resultant data was of limited statistical worth prior to extensive re-coding. Chi-squared statistics were especially affected. The

author recommends that in future *market maven* studies, a three point (agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree), scale be adopted.

In similar vein, the author criticised Feick and Price's (1987) trichotomization technique, in order to determine "Low", "Medium" and "High" *market maven* categories. The technique has a major failing, in that irrespective of the distribution of the *market maven* scores, approximately a third of all respondents will be considered "High" *market mavens*. The author recommends that these concerns be further investigated, and that the alternative of classifying only those respondents with scores of 30 and above (on Feick and Price's 1987 original 42 point scale), as *market mavens*, be examined.

8.6.3 Discriminant Validity

Feick and Price (1987) maintained that despite being closely related, factor analysis (used to test for discriminant validity), proved that the opinion leader, innovator and *market maven* constructs were indeed distinctly different. In this study, whilst discriminant validity was also confirmed, the distinction between the three "information seeker" constructs, was much less marked. Not only therefore is there a clear need to identify *what* factors have a significant effect upon discriminant validity, the question of *when*, or indeed *if*, a *market maven* can ever have too much (or too little), in common with other (related) constructs, needs to be addressed.

Connected to the issue of discriminant validity, both Feick and Price (1987) and this study showed that some respondents could actually be *market mavens*, opinion leaders and innovators, all at the same time. Whilst it was relatively rare for anyone to score "High" on all three scales, the fact that a few individuals had, was interesting. Further research examining this phenomenon, is evidently required.

8.6.4 The Permanence of the Market Maven Construct

Rather like a corporate balance sheet, this type of research is not able to provide more than a "snapshot" of an individuals' current information seeking propensity. And whilst it was possible to say with some certainty that a respondent is more *market maven*, opinion leader or innovator-like at the time of interview, it was not possible to say whether this particular state is either permanent or ever-changing. There is therefore a need to develop other types of *market maven* study (perhaps of a longitudinal nature), which can measure changes in people's *market maven* attitudes and behaviour over a much longer period than has been currently the case.

8.7 Ethnic Food Influencing Factors

By adopting a somewhat quantitative, questionnaire based approach, the majority of respondents to this study, tended to discount the influence that international travel, ethnic minorities, restaurant patronage and the mass media, had upon their food consumption patterns. Given the many other possible influences affecting adoption (Rogers 1983; Gatignon and Robertson 1985; 1991a; 1991b; Spence 1994), it would be somewhat premature to suggest that these results were definitive.

Sociologists, anthropologists and ethnologists (amongst many others), have been investigating food and nutritional issues for as long (if not longer), than most consumer behaviourists (Mennell 1992). As early as 1962, Rogers criticised the fact that researchers interested in the study of new product diffusion, rarely investigated research being carried out in other disciplines (Rogers 1962). In this respect, the author felt that this study was no better (or worse), than many others. However, it is clear that future progress on understanding what actually affects ethnic food adoption, requires a much more qualitative, multidisciplinary approach.

8.8 Organisational Buyer Behaviour and the Market Maven

In the study of consumer behaviour, lack of exposure and message rejection (due to source credibility and selective perception), are considered to be two of the most influential determinants in message acceptance (Assael 1995). In organisational buying, targeting, timing, competitive clutter and (perhaps most importantly), internal politics, add to the problem (Sheth and Ram 1987). Frambach (1993), also concluded that the availability, quality and value of new product information, significantly affected both the speed, *and* probability, of an organisation adopting an innovation. Similarly, Frambach (1993), suggested that the adoption of many industrial innovations, are often influenced by the fear of "individual blame" (where individuals were held responsible solely for their actions, rather than the system [organisation], of which they were members). As the decision to adopt or reject an innovation, is frequently attributed exclusively to the individual making the decision (rather than either supplier, or marketplace influences), the fear of "individual blame", regularly leads to innovations being either unnecessarily delayed, or hastily rushed through.

Given that this study verified the presence of significant numbers of *market mavens* in relatively small social systems (and that as far back as Rogers 1963, opinion leaders had been identified even in very small social groups), the author believes that the likelihood of *market mavens* being present in the workplace, is high. Performing much the same role of general marketplace information gatherer and disseminator within companies, as those *market mavens* found to be active in the wider community, the author suggests that they too, should be well known to others within organisations. Their apparent high level of source credibility, and unique, proactive, information search and information provision characteristics, would make ideal targets for industrial or business-to-business marketing, and would offset many of the effects that source credibility, selective perception and individual blame have on innovation adoption in an industrial setting. However, as no one has yet to identify them in an

organisational environment, this clearly needs to be investigated before further progress can be made. A major departure from the rather narrow potential envisaged for the construct by Feick and Price (1987), there is already commercial interest in the outcome of such studies.

9. References

- Abelson, Herbert. I. and Donald Rugg. (1958). Self-designated Influentiality and Activity. Public Opinion Quarterly, 22, 566-567.
- Adams, Gerald. and Jay D. Schvaneveldt. (1991). Understanding Research Methods. 2nd Edition London: Longman.
- Allport, G. W. (1937). Personality: A Psychological Interpretation. New York: Holt.
- Arndt, Johan. (1967). Role of Product-Related Conversations in the Diffusion of a New Product. Journal of Marketing Research, 4, 291-295.
- Aronoff, J. and J. P. Wilson. (1985). Personality in the Social Process. N.J: Erlbaum.
- Assael, Henry. (1984). Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action. 2nd Edition. Boston: Kent.
- Assael, Henry. (1984). Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action. 5th Edition. Cincinnati: International Thompson Publishing.
- Assael, Henry., Michael Etgar, and Michael Henry. (1983). The Dimensions of Evaluating and Utilizing Alternative Information Sources. Working paper - New York University.
- Atkin, Charles. (1972). Anticipated Communication and Mass Media Information Seeking. Public Opinion Quarterly, 36, 188-199.
- Bacharach, Samuel. B. (1989). Organizational Theories: Some Criteria For Evaluation. Academy of Management Review, 14, 496-515.
- Bagozzi, Richard P. and Robert E. Burnkrant. (1985). Attitude Organisation and the Attitude Behaviour Relationship: A Reply to Dillon and Kumar. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49, 47-57.
- Bailey, K. D. (1994). Methods of Social Research. 4th Edition NY: The Free Press.
- Balasubramanian, S. K. and Dipak C. Jain. (1994). Simple Approaches to Evaluate Competing Non-Nested Models in Marketing. International Journal of Research in Marketing, 11, 53-72.
- Barczak, Gloria J., Daniel C. Bello and Everett S. Wallace. (1992). The Role of Consumer Shows in New Product Adoption. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 9, (2) 55-67.

- Baron, Robert A and Marna I. Bronfen. (1994). A Whiff of Reality: Empirical Evidence Concerning the Effects of Pleasant Fragrances on Work-Related Behaviour. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 1179-1203.
- Bass, Frank. .M. (1969). A New Product Growth Model For Consumer Durables. Management Science, 15, 215-217.
- Bass, Frank. M., T.R. Krishnan, V. Trichy and D. C. Jain. (1994). Why the Bass Model Fits Without Decision Variables. Marketing Science, 13, (3) 203-223.
- Bauer, R. A. (1960). Dynamic Marketing for a Changing World. NY: AMA.
- Baumgatten, Steven A. (1975). The Innovative Communicator in the Diffusion Process. Journal of Marketing Research, 12, 12-18.
- BCC. (1996). GA-057R: Prepared Ethnic Foods - Trends and Developments. USA.
- Beal, George. M. and Everett M. Rogers. (1957). Validity of the Concept of Stages in the Adoption Process. Rural Sociology, 22, 166-168.
- Bem, D. J. and A. Allen. (1974). On Predicting Some of the People Some of the Time: The Search for Cross-Situational Consistencies in Behaviour. Psychological Review, 81, 506-520.
- Bhargava S. C., R. K. Bhargava and Ashok Jain. (1992). Requirement of Dimensional Consistency in Model Equations: Diffusion Models Incorporating Price and Their Applications. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 41, 177-188.
- Bhati, A. (1991). Finding New Recipes for Ready Made Success. The Sunday Times, 27/01/1991.
- Bloch, Peter H. (1986). The Product Enthusiast: Implications for Marketing Strategy. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 3 (Summer), 51-61.
- Bloch, Peter H. and Marsha L. Richins. (1983). A Theoretical Model for the Study of Product Importance Perceptions. Journal of Marketing, 47, 69-91.
- Block, J. (1989). Critique of the Act Frequency Approach to Personality. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 56, 234-245.
- Bonoma, T. (1983). Get More Out of Your Trade Shows. Harvard Business Review, January/February 75-83.
- Bowers, K. S. (1973). Situationism in Psychology: an Analysis and Critique. Psychological Review, 80, 307-336.

- Briggs-Myers, I. (1980). Gifts Differing. CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- British Independent Grocer's Association. (1990). Independent Food and Drink 1989/90. London: H.D.M. Associates.
- Brokaw, Stephen C. and C. Lakshman. (1995). Cross Cultural Consumer Research in India: A Review and Analysis. Journal of International Consumer Marketing. 7, (3) 53-80.
- Brown, L. A. (1981). Innovation Diffusion: A New Perspective. New York: Methuen and Co. Ltd.
- Bryman, Alan. (1995). Research Methods and Organization Studies. London: Routledge.
- Canadian Grocer. (1985). Ethnic - New Excitement Around Ethnic Foods. March 37-43.
- Carson, R. C. (1989). Personality. In Annual Review of Psychology. Rosenzweig, M. R. and L. W. Porter (Editors). Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.
- Carver, C. S. and M. F. Scheier (1992). Perspectives on Personality. 2nd Edition. MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Cattell R. B. (1946). Description and Measurement of Personality. New York: World Book.
- Cavaye, A. M. (1995). The Sponsor-Adopter Gap-Differences Between Promoters and Potential Users of Information Systems That Link Organisations. International Journal of Information Management. 15, (2) 85-96.
- Chaffee, Steven H. and Jack M. McLeod. (1973). Individual Vs. Social Predictors of Information Seeking. Journalism Quarterly. 50, 237-46.
- Chalmers, A. F. (1982). What is this Thing called Science? 2nd Edition Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Chan, K. L., and S. Misra. (1990). Characteristics of the Opinion Leader: A New Dimension. Journal of Advertising. 19, (3) 53-60.
- Chandrashekar, Murali and Rajiv K. Sinha. (1995). Isolating the Determinants of Innovativeness: A Split-Population Tobit (SPOT) Duration Model of Timing and Volume of First and Repeat Purchase. Journal of Marketing Research. 23, 444-456.

- Chatterjee, R. and Eliashberg, E. (1989) The Innovation Diffusion Process in a Heterogeneous Population: A Micromodeling Approach. Working paper, Marketing Department, Krannert Graduate School Of Management, USA: Purdue University.
- Chaudhuri, Arjun. (1994). The Diffusion of an Innovation in Indonesia. Journal of Product and Brand Management, 3, (3) 19-26.
- Chisnall, Peter M. (1995). Consumer Behaviour, 3rd Edition. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill.
- Churchill, G. A. (1991). Marketing Research, Methodological Foundations, 5th Edition Dryden.
- Cochran, W. G. (1977). Sampling Techniques, 3rd Edition. New York: Wiley.
- Cohen, R. (1979). Close Enough for All Practical Purposes. Public Opinion Quarterly, 43, 421-425.
- Conner, K. R. and Richard P. Rumelt. (1991). Software Piracy: An Analysis of Protection Strategies. Management Science, 37, 125-139.
- Cote, Joseph. A. and M. Ronald Buckley. (1987). Estimating Trait, Method, and Error Variance: Generalizing Across 70 Construct Validation Studies. Journal Of Marketing Research, 24, 315-318.
- Crask, M. R. and R. J. Fox. (1987). An Exploration of the Interval Properties of Three Commonly Used Marketing Research Scales: A Magnitude Estimation Approach. Journal Of the Marketing Research Society, 29, 317-339.
- Czepiel, John. A. (1975). Patterns of Interorganisational Communications and the Diffusion of a Major Technological Innovation in a Competitive Industrial Community. Academy of Management Journal, 18, 6-24.
- Daneke, G. and P. Klobus Edwards. (1979). Survey Research for Public Administrators. Public Administration Review, 421-426.
- Day, Ralph and Paul Herbig. (1990). How the Diffusion of Industrial Innovations is Different from New Retail Products. Industrial Marketing Management, 19, 261-266.
- De Vita, Carmine F. (1994). The Ethnic Food Business - An Overview of the Growth of the Ethnic Food Market. Local Economy Quarterly, 3, 90-108. Luton: University of Luton Press.
- Denzin, Norman, K. (1989). The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods, 3rd Edition N.J.: Prentice -Hall.

Deshpande, Rohit, John U. Farley and Frederick E. Webster Jr. (1993). Corporate Culture, Customer Orientation, and Innovativeness in Japanese Firms: A Quadrant Analysis. Journal of Marketing, 57, 23-27.

Dichter, Ernest. (1966). How Word-Of-Mouth Advertising Works. Harvard Business Review, 44, 147-66.

Dickerson, Mary D. and James W Gentry. (1983). Characteristics of Adopters and Non-Adopters of Home Computers. Journal of Consumer Research, 10, 225-235.

Dillman, Don A. (1978). Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Dodson, J. A. and A. Muller. (1978). Models of New Product Diffusion Through Advertising and Word-Of-Mouth. Management Science, 24, 1568-1578.

Douglas, S. P. and C. S. Craig. (1992). Advances in International Marketing. International Journal of Research in Marketing, 9, 291-318.

Duke, Robert. (1990). Success and Failure in Marketing Innovation: Videotape vs. Laservision. Management Decision, 28, 5-10.

Eastlick, Mary Ann. (1993). Predictors of Videotex Adoption. Journal of Direct Marketing, 7, 66-74.

Ehrenberg A. S. C. (1986). Reading a Table: An Example. Applied Statistics, 35, (3) 237-244.

Ellen, Pam S., William O. Bearden and Subash Sharma. (1991). Resistance to Technological Innovations: An Examination of the Role of Self-Efficacy and Performance Satisfaction. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 19, (4) 297-307.

Elliott, M. T. and A. E. Warefield. (1993). Do Market Mavens Categorise Brands Differently? Advances in Consumer Research, 20, 202-208.

Elliott, R. K. (1988). The Data Dilemma. World, 22, (2) 44-45.

Elmes, Michael. (1990). Radical Dissent and Learning in Human Systems. Consultation International Journal, 9, (2) 141-151.

Emory, F. E., and O. A. Oser. (1958). Information, Decision, and Action: A Study of the Psychological Determinants of Change in Farming Techniques. New York: Cambridge.

- Engel, James F. and Roger D. Blackwell. (1982). Consumer Behavior, 4th Edition. Hinsdale, IL: The Dryden Press.
- Engel, James F., Robert J. Kegerreis, and Roger D. Blackwell. (1969). Word-Of-Mouth Communication by the Innovator. Journal of Marketing, 33 (July), 15-19.
- Engel, James F., Roger D. Blackwell and Paul W. Miniard. (1995). Consumer Behavior, 8th Edition. Orlando, F.L.: The Dryden Press.
- Epstein, S. and E. J. O'Brien. (1985). The Person-Situation Debate in Historical Perspective. Psychological Bulletin, 98, 513-537.
- Eurostat. (1993). Retailing in the European Single Market 1993. Statistical Office of the European Communities ECSC-EEC-EAEC Brussels and Luxembourg.
- Evans, Martin J., Luiz Moutinho and W. Fred Van Raaij. (1996). Applied Consumer Behaviour. Harlow: Addison Wesley.
- Evans, Richard H. (1995). Incorporating Attitudes and Imitation in the Bass Model of Diffusion. Psychological Reports, 77, 1043-1048.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1947). Dimensions of Personality. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1952). The Scientific Study of Personality. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1953). The Structure of Human Personality. New York: Wiley
- Eysenck, H. J. (1970). The Structure of Human Personality, 3rd Edition. London: Methuen.
- Eysenck, H. J. and S. Rachman. (1965). The Causes and Cures of Neurosis. San Diego CA.: EdITS.
- Feder, G. and G. T. O'Mara G.T. (1982). On Information and Innovation Diffusion: A Baysean Approach. American Journal of Agricultural Economics, (February), 145-147.
- Feick, Lawrence F. and Linda L. Price. (1984). Thoughts on Search: Breaking Free of the Purchase Paradigm. In AMA Winter Educators' Proceedings. Paul Anderson and Michael Ryan (Editors). Chicago: American Marketing Association, 179-183.
- Feick, Lawrence F., Linda L. Price. (1987). The Market Maven: A Diffuser of Marketplace Information. Journal Of Marketing, 51, 83-97.

- Feick, Lawrence F., Linda L. Price and Robin A. Higie. (1986). People Who Use People: The Other Side of Opinion Leadership. In Advances in Consumer Research. Richard J. Lutz (Editor). Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research. 13, 301-305.
- Feldman, Lawrence P. and Gary M. Armstrong. (1975). Identifying Buyers of a Major Automotive Innovation. Journal of Marketing, 39, 47-53.
- Fieldhouse, Paul. (1986). Food and Nutrition: Customs and Culture. London: Croom Helm.
- Fiorelli, J. S. and H. Margolis. (1993). Managing and Understanding Large Systems Change: Guidelines for Executives and Change Agents. Organization Development Journal, 11, (3) 1-13.
- Fiske, Donald. W. (1986). Specificity of Method and Knowledge in Social Science. In Metatherapy in Social Science. Donald W. Fiske and Richard A. Shweder (Editors). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Fliegel, Frederick C. and Joseph E. Kilvin. (1966). Farmers' Perception of Farm Practice Attributes. Rural Sociology, 31, 197-206.
- Food Engineering. (1984). Ethnic Foods - America's Cuisine, 56, (4) 66-68. USA.
- Food Engineering. (1989). Mexican and Italian Dominate, 61, (2) 73-81. USA.
- Foster, Jeremy J. (1993). Starting SPSS/PC+ and SPSS for Windows, 2nd Edition. Wilmslow: Sigma.
- Fourt, L. A. and Woodlock, J.W. (1960). Early Prediction of Market Success for New Grocery Products. Journal Of Marketing, (October), 31-38.
- Foxall, Gordon. (1990). Consumer Psychology in Behavioural Perspective. London: Routledge.
- Foxall, Gordon. and Ronald E. Goldsmith. (1994). Consumer Psychology for Marketing. London: Routledge.
- Frambach, Ruud. T. (1993). An Integrated Model of Organisational Adoption and Diffusion of Innovations. European Journal of Marketing, 27, (5) 22-41.
- Frankfort-Nachmias, Chava and David Nachmias. (1996). Research Methods in the Social Sciences, 5th Edition. London: Arnold.
- Frey, J. H. (1989). Survey Research By Telephone. London: Sage.

- Friedman, Martin. (1985). New Twists Hit Pasta Market. Adweek Midwest, (October), 45.
- Frozen Food Age. (1989). Mexican Foods Spiced Up - '88 Department Sales, 37, (9) 1-40.
- Frude, Niel. (1987). A Guide to SPSS/PC+. London: Macmillan.
- Galtung, Johan. (1973). Theory and Methods of Social Research. London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd.
- Gatignon, Hubert J., E. Eliashberg and T. S. Robertson. (1989). Modelling International Diffusion Patterns; an Efficient Methodology. Marketing Science, 8, 231-247.
- Gatignon, Hubert. J. and Thomas S Robertson. (1985). Propositional Inventory for New Diffusion Research. Journal of Consumer Research, 11, 849-867.
- Gatignon, Hubert. J. and Thomas S Robertson. (1991a). Propositional Inventory for New Diffusion Research. In Perspectives in Consumer Behaviour, 4th Edition Kassarian, H and Thomas S. Robertson (Editors). London: Prentice-Hall International.
- Gatignon, Hubert. J. and Thomas S Robertson. (1991b). Innovative Decision Processes. In Handbook of Consumer Behaviour, Robertson Thomas S. and H. Kassarian (Editors). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Ghuri, N. P, Kjell Gronhaug and Ivar Kristianslund. (1994). Research Methods in Business Studies - A Practical Guide. London: Prentice Hall.
- Givon, Moshe., Vijay Mahajan and Eitan Muller. (1995). Software Piracy: Estimation of Lost Sales and the Impact on Software Diffusion. Journal of Marketing, 59, 29-37.
- Goslar, Martin D. (1987). Marketing and the Adoption of Microcomputers: An Application of Diffusion Theory. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 15, 42-48.
- Green, P. E., D. S. Tull, and G. Albaum. (1988). Research for Marketing Decisions, 5th Edition. London: Prentice Hall.
- Groves, R. M. and R. L. Kahn. (1979). Surveys By Telephone : A National Comparison With Personal Interviews, New York: Academic Press.
- Groves, R. M., P. Biemer, L. Lyberg, J. Massey, W. Nicholls and J. Waksberg. (1988). Telephone Survey Methodology. New York: Wiley.

- Guiltinan, Joseph P. and Kent B. Monroe. (1980). Identifying and Analyzing Consumer Shopping Strategies. In Advances in Consumer Research. Jerry Olson (Editor). Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research, 7, 745-748.
- Gupta, A. K. and Everett M. Rogers. (1991). Internal Marketing: Integrating R&D and Marketing Within The Organisation. The Journal of Consumer Marketing, 8, (3) 5-18.
- Gur-Arie, Oded, Richard M. Durand, and Subhash Sharma. (1979). Identifying Moderator Variables Using Moderated Regression Analysis. In Proceedings of the Southern Marketing Association. Robert S. Franz, Robert M. Hopkins. and Alfred G. Toma (Editors). Lafayette, IN: Southern Marketing Association, 189-192.
- Hanlon, A. (1982). Trade Shows in the Marketing Mix. MA: Wordsworth Publishing.
- Hannan, M. T. and J. Freeman. (1986). The Ecology of Organisations: Structural Inertia and Organizational Change. In Lindenberg, S., S.J. Coleman and S. Nowak (Editors). Approaches to Social Theory. New York: Russel Sage Foundation.
- Hawkins, Del I., Roger J. Best, and Kenneth A. Coney. (1983). Consumer Behavior: Implications for Marketing Strategy. Plano, TX: Business Publications, Inc.
- Hawkins, Del I., Roger J. Best, and Kenneth A. Coney. (1995). Consumer Behavior: Implications for Marketing Strategy. 6th Edition. Chicago: Irwin.
- Herbig, Paul A and Hugh Kramer. (1993). Innovation Inertia: The Power of the Installed Base. Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, 8, (3) 44-57.
- Herbig, Paul A. and Hugh Kramer. (1994). The Effect of Information Overload on the Innovation Choice Process. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 11, (2) 45-54.
- Herbig, Paul A. and Ralph L. Day. (1992). Customer Acceptance: The Key to Successful Introductions of Innovations. Marketing Intelligence and Planning, 10, 4-15.
- Hiebert, L. D. (1974). Risk Learning and the Adoption of Fertiliser Responsive Seed Varieties. American Journal of Agricultural Economics. (November), 764-768.
- Hirschman, Elizabeth C. (1980). Innovativeness, Novelty Seeking, and Consumer Creativity. Journal of Consumer Research, 7 (December), 283-295.
- Hjelle L.A. and D. J. Ziegler. (1992). Personality Theories: Basic Assumptions, Research and Applications. 3rd Edition New York: McGraw-Hill International.
- Horsky, D. (1990). A Diffusion Model Incorporating Product Benefits, Price, Income and Information. Marketing Science, 9, (4) 342-365.

- Horsky, D. and L. S. Simon. (1983). Advertising and the Diffusion of New Products. Management Science. (Winter), 1-18.
- Horton, Raymond L. (1984). Buyer Behavior. Columbus, OH: Charles Merrill.
- Horton, Raymond L. and Wayne D. Hoyer. (1981). What if Opinion Leaders Didn't, Know More? A Question of Nomological Validity. In Advances in Consumer Research. Monroe, K. B. (Editor). Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research 8, 299-303.
- Hotelling, H. (1933). Analysis of Complex Statistical variable into principle components. Journal Of Educational Psychology. 17, 65-70.
- Howard, John A. and Jagdish N. Sheth. (1969). The Theory of Buyer Behaviour. Wiley, New York.
- Howard, Keith and J. A. Sharp. (1983). The Management of a Student Research Project. Aldershot: Gower.
- ICC Keynote Market Reports. (1994). Keynote Market Review - UK Food Market - An Industry Sector Analysis. Report 016766.
- ICC Keynote Market Reports. (1995). Keynote Report Ethnic Foods - A Market Sector Overview. Report 016834.
- Jacoby, Jacob. (1972). Opinion Leadership and Innovativeness: Overlap and Validity. In Advances in Consumer Research. M. Venkatesan (Editor). MD: College Park. Association for Consumer Research. 3, 632-649.
- Jacoby, Jacob. (1984). Perspectives on Information Overload. Journal of Consumer Research. 10, 432-435.
- Jain, D. C. and R. C. Rao. (1989). Effect of Price on the Demand for Durables: Modelling, Estimation and Findings. Journal of Business and Economic Statistics. 8, (2) 163-170.
- Jain, D. C., V. Mahajan, and E. Muller. (1989). Innovation Diffusion in the Presence of Supply Restrictions. Working paper, Cox School of Business, USA: Southern Methodist University.
- Jensen, R. (1982). Adoption and Diffusion of an Innovation of Uncertain Profitability. Journal of Economic Theory. 27, 182-193.
- Kahn, William. A. (1995). Organizational Change and the Provision of a Secure Base: Lessons From the Field. Human Relations. 48, (5) 489-514.

- Kalish, S. (1985). A New Product Adoption Model With Pricing, Advertising and Uncertainty. Management Science, (December), 1569-1585.
- Kamakura, W. A. and S. K. Balasubramanian. (1988). Long -Term View of the Diffusion of Durables. International Journal of Research in Marketing, (5) 1-13.
- Kassarjian, Harold H. (1981). Low Involvement: A Second Look. In Advances in Consumer Research, Monroe, K. B. (Editor). Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research. 8, 31-34.
- Katona, George and Eva Mueller. (1955). A Study of Purchase Decisions. In Consumer Behavior: The Dynamics of Consumer Reaction, Clark, L. H. (Editor). New York: New York University Press, 30-87.
- Katz, D. (1944). The Measurement of Intensity. In Gauging Public Opinion, Cantril H. (Editor). Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Katz, Elihu. (1960). Communication Research and the image of Society: Convergence of Two Traditions. American Journal of Sociology, 65, 435-440.
- Katz, Elihu and Paul F. Lazarsfeld. (1955). Personal Influence: The Part Played by People In the Flow of Mass Communications. Glencoe, IL: The Free Press.
- Katz, Elihu. (1957). The Two-Step Flow of Communications: An Up-to-Date Report on an Hypothesis. Public Opinion Quarterly, 21, 61-78.
- Kaynak, E. (1989). A Comparison of Ethnic and Non-Ethnic Food Shopping Behaviour: A Canadian Case. In World Food Marketing Systems, Kaynak, E. (Editor). London: Butterworths.
- Kenrick, D. T. and D. C. Funder. (1988). Profiting From Controversy: Lessons From the Person-Situation Debate. American Psychologist, 43, 23-34.
- Kerlinger, F.N. (1973). Foundations of Behavioural Research, 2nd Edition. Japan: Holt - Saunders.
- Kiel, Geoffrey C. and Roger A. Layton. (1981). Dimensions of Consumer Information Seeking Behavior. Journal of Marketing Research, 18 (May), 233-239.
- King, Charles W. and John O. Summers. (1967). Dynamics of Interpersonal Communications: An Interaction Dyad. Risk Taking and Information Handling in Consumer Behavior, Boston: Harvard University Press.
- King, Charles W. and John O. Summers. (1970). Overlap of Opinion Leadership Across Consumer Product Categories. Journal of Marketing Research, 7, 43-50.

- Kish, L. (1965). Survey Sampling. New York: Wiley.
- Kitchell, Susan. (1995). Corporate Culture, Environment, Adaptation, and Innovation Adoption: A Qualitative / Quantitative Approach. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 23, 195-205.
- Kleka, W. R., and Turchfarber A.J. (1978). Random Digit Dialling : A Comparison To Personal Survey. Public Opinion Quarterly, 42, 105-114.
- Klepper, S. and E. Graddy. (1990). The Evolution of New Industries and the Determinants of Market Structure. Journal of Economics, 21, 27-44.
- Kotler, Philip and Gerald Zaltman. (1976). Targeting Prospects for a New Product. Journal of Advertising Research, 16, 7-18.
- Kviz, Frederick J. (1977). Toward a Standard Definition of Response Rate. Public Opinion Quarterly, 41, 265-7.
- Lackman, C. L. (1978). Gompertz Curve Forecasting: A New Product Application. Journal of the Market Research Society, (January), 45-47.
- Lambert, Zarrel V. (1972). Perceptual Patterns, Information Handling, and Innovativeness. Journal of Marketing Research, 9 (November), 427-431.
- Langeard, E., M. Crousillat, and R. Weisz. (1978). Exposure to Cultural Activities and Opinion Leadership. Advances in Consumer Research. Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research. 5, 606- 610.
- Lattin, J. M. and H. J. Roberts. (1989). Modelling the Role of Risk-Adjusted Utility in the Diffusion of Innovations. Working Paper, Graduate School of Business, Stanford University, USA.
- Lazarsfeld, Paul F. (1944). Controversy Over Detailed Interviews - An Offer For Negotiation. Public Opinion Quarterly, 8, 38-60.
- Lazarsfeld, Paul F., Bernard Berelson and Hazel Gaudet. (1948). The People's Choice. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Levy, Mark R. (1978). Opinion Leadership and Television News Use. Public Opinion Quarterly, 42, 402-6.
- Levy, Michael and Barton A. Weitz. (1995). Retailing Management, 2nd Edition. Irwin.
- Lionberger, Herbert F. (1951). Sources and Use of Farm and Home Information by Low Income Farmers in Missouri, Columbia. Missouri Agricultural Experimental Station Research Bulletin, 472.

- Lionberger, Herbert F. (1953). Some Characteristics of Farm Operators Sought as Sources of Farm Information in a Missouri Community. Rural Sociology, 18, 327-338.
- Lionberger, Herbert F. (1959). Community Prestige and the Choice of Sources of Farm Information. Public Opinion Quarterly, 23, 61-78.
- Lionberger, Herbert F. and C. Milton Coughenour. (1957). Social Structure and Diffusion of Information. Columbia. Missouri Agricultural Experimental Station Research Bulletin, 631.
- Liu, L. and Dominique Hanssens. (1981). A Bayesian Approach to Time-Varying Cross-Sectional Regression Models. Journal of Econometrics, 15, 341-356.
- Loverage, Ray. (1990). Incremental Innovation and Appropriate Learning Styles in Direct Services. In The Strategic Management of Technological Innovation. Loverage, Ray and Martyn Pitt (Editors). Chichester: Wiley.
- Lowrey, Tina, M. (1991). The Use of Diffusion Theory in Marketing: A Qualitative Approach to Innovative Consumer Behaviour. Advances in Consumer Behaviour, 18, 644-650.
- Lydecker, T. (1985). Fast Food Goes Ethnic. NRA News, (March), 12-15. USA.
- Mahajan, V. and R. A. Peterson. (1978). Innovation Diffusion in a Dynamic Potential Adopter Population. Management Science, (November), 1589-1597.
- Mahajan, V. and R. A. Peterson. (1979). Integrating Time and Space in Technological Substitution Models. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, (August), 231-241.
- Mahajan, V. and Yoram Wind. (1988). New Product Forecasting Models: Directions for Research and Implementation. International Journal of Forecasting, 4 (3) 341-358.
- Mahajan, V., E. Muller and Frank M. Bass. (1990). New Product Diffusion Models in Marketing: A Review and Directions for Research. Journal of Marketing, 54, 1-26.
- Mahajan, V., E. Muller and Srivastava. (1990). Using Innovation Diffusion Models to Develop Adopter Categories. Journal of Marketing Research, 27, 37-50.
- Mahajan, V., Yoram Wind and S. Sharma, S. (1983). An Approach to Repeat Purchase Diffusion Models. In A.M.A. Proceedings. Series 49, Murphy, P. E. et al., (Editors). Chicago: American Marketing Association. 442-446.
- Malhotra, N. K. (1982). Information Load and Consumer Decision Making. Journal of Consumer Research, 8, 419-430.

- Malhotra, N. K. (1984). Reflections on the Information Overload Paradigm in Consumer Decision Making. Journal of Consumer Research, 10, 436-437.
- Mansfield, E. (1961). Technical Change and the Rate of Imitation. Econometrica, (October), 24-38.
- Marsh, C. Paul and A. Lee Coleman. (1954). Farmers' Practice Adoption Rates in Relation to Adoption Rates of 'Leaders'. Rural Sociology, 19, 180-181.
- McCroskey, J. C. and J. A. Daly. (1987). Personality and Interpersonal Communication. California: Sage.
- McDaniel, Carl and Roger Gates. (1991). Contemporary Marketing Research. St. Paul, MN: West.
- Mennell, Stephen., Anne Murcott and Anneke H. van Otterloo. (1992). The Sociology of Food Eating Diet and Culture. London: Sage.
- Menzel, Herbert. and Elihu Katz. (1955). Social Relations and Innovation in the Medical Profession : The Epidemiology of a New Drug. Public Opinion Quarterly, 19, 337-352.
- Merton, Robert, K. (1957). Social Theory and Social Structure. Glencoe, Ill: Free Press.
- Midgley, David F. (1976). A Simple Mathematical Theory of Innovative Behavior. Journal of Consumer Research, 3, 31-41.
- Midgley, David F. and Grahame R. Dowling. (1978). Innovativeness: The Concept and Its Measurement. Journal of Consumer Research, 4, 229-242.
- Miller, D. C. (1991). Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement, 5th Edition. London: Sage.
- Mintel. (1991). Ethnic Foods. London: Mintel Publications Ltd.
- Mischel, W. (1968). Personality and Assessment. New York: Wiley.
- Mischel, W. (1973). Toward a Cognitive Social Learning Reconceptualization of Personality. Psychological Review, 80, 252-283.
- Montgomery, David B. and Alvin J. Silk. (1971). Clusters of Consumer Interests and Opinion Leaders' Spheres of Influence. Journal of Marketing Research, 8 (August), 317-321.

- Moore, Stephen. (1994). Understanding Innovation in Social Service Delivery Systems. Health Marketing Quarterly, 11, (3-4), 61-73.
- Morgan, G. (1984). Beyond Method - Strategies for Social Research. London: Sage.
- Morgenstein, Melvin and Harriet Strongin. (1992). Modern Retailing, 3rd Edition. N.Y.: Prentice-Hall.
- Myers, James H. and Thomas S. Robertson. (1972). Dimensions of Opinion Leadership. Journal of Marketing Research, 9, 41-47.
- Nachmias, David. (1992). Research Methods in the Social Sciences, 4th Edition. London: Edward Arnold.
- Nayak, P. R. and J. M. Ketteringham. (1986). Breakthroughs. London: Mercury.
- Neuman, W. L. (1994). Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches, 2nd Edition. MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Newman, J. W. (1977). Consumer External Search: Amount and Determinants. Consumer and Industrial Buying Behavior. Woodside, Sheth, and Bennett (Editors). New York: North-Holland.
- Norton, J. A. and Bass, F. M. (1987). A Diffusion Theory Model of Adoption and Substitution for Successive Generations of High Technology Products. Management Science, 33, 1069-1086.
- Norusis, Marija J. (1993). SPSS for Windows Base System User's Guide Release 6.0. Chicago IL: SPSS Inc.
- Norusis, Marija J. (1994). SPSS 6.1 for Windows Update. Chicago IL: SPSS Inc.
- Norusis, Marija J. (1994). SPSS Advanced Statistics 6.1. Chicago IL: SPSS Inc.
- O' Muirheartaigh, Colm. A. and Clive Payne. (1977). The Analysis of Survey Data - Volume 1 Exploring Data Structures. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.
- Office of Population Census and Surveys. (1992). 1991 Census County Report: Bedfordshire. (Part 1 and 2). London: HMSO.
- Oppenheim, A. N. (1992). Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement. London: Pinter.
- Oren, S. S. and Schwartz, R.G. (1988). Diffusion of New Products in Risk Sensitive Markets. Journal of Forecasting. (October), 273-287.

Paich, Mark and John D. Sterman. (1993). Boom, Bust and Failures to Learn in Experimental Markets. Management Science, 39, 1439-1458.

Parathasarathy, Madhavan., Ravipreet S. Sohi and Ronald D. Hampton. (1994). Dual Diffusion: Analysis and Implications for Sales Force Management. Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 2, (3) 1-14.

Parker, P.M. and H. Gatignon. (1994). Competitive Effects in Diffusion Models: An Empirical Analysis. International Journal of Research in Marketing, 11, 17-39.

Parker, Philip M. (1991). A Study of Price Elasticity Dynamics Using Parsimonious Replacement Multiple Purchase Diffusion Models. Working Paper, INSEAD. 91, 47.

Parker, Philip M. (1992). Price Elasticity Dynamics Over the Adoption Life Cycle. Journal of Marketing Research, 29, 358-367.

Parker, Philip M. and H. Gatignon. (1992). Order-of-Entry and the Diffusion of Trials for Frequently Purchased Brands in a New Category, Marketing Department, INSEAD.

Parker-Pope, Tara. (1994). Pasta Makers Find That Italian Consumers Are Sated But Sales Volumes Rise Elsewhere in Europe. In Marketscan, Wall Street Journal September 28th 1994.

Parten, M. (1966). Survey, Polls and Samples : Practical Procedures, New York: Cooper Square.

Pasta Information Centre. (1995). Pasta Sales Still Booming. (May) London.

Pasta Information Centre. (1996). Pasta Powers Ahead. (April) London.

Pasta Journal. (1985). Italian Foods Leads in Ethnic Grocery Sales. (January), p14. USA.

Paulson-Box, E. and P. Williamson. (1990). The Development of the Ethnic Food Market in the UK. British Food Journal, 92, (2) 10-15.

Peterson, R. A. and V. Mahajan. (1978). Multi-Product Growth Models. In Research in Marketing, Sheth, J. (Editor). JAI Press. 201-231.

Phares, E. J. (1991). Introduction to Personality, 3rd Edition. New York: Harper-Collins.

Pitt, Martyn. (1990). Managing the Future: Questions and Dilemmas. In The Strategic Management of Technological Innovation, Loverage, Ray and Martyn Pitt (Editors). Chichester: Wiley.

- Popper, K. (1969). Conjectures and Refutations: The Growth of Scientific Knowledge. 3rd Edition. London: Routledge.
- Prendergast, Gerard P. and Norman E. Marr. (1994). Disenchantment Discontinuance in the Diffusion of Self - Service Technologies in the Service Industry: A Case Study in Retail Banking. Journal of International Consumer Marketing. 7, (2) 25-40.
- Price, Linda L. and Lawrence F. Feick. (1984). The Role of Interpersonal Sources in External Search: An Informational Perspective. Advances in Consumer Research. 11, 250-253.
- Price, Linda L., Lawrence F. Feick and Audrey Guskey. (1995). Everyday Market Helping Behaviour. Journal of Public Policy and Marketing. 14, 255-266.
- Price, Linda L., Lawrence F. Feick and Audrey Guskey-Federouch. (1988). Couponing Behaviours of the Market Maven: Profile of a Super Couponer. Advances in Consumer Research. 15, 354-359.
- Processed Prepared Foods. (1979). Ethnic Food Market to Grow 100 percent. (April), p.15. USA.
- Rahim, S. A. (1961). The Diffusion and Adoption of Agricultural Practices : A Study in a Village in East Pakistan. Comilla: Pakistan Academy for Village Development.
- Rahudkar, W. B. (1958). Impact of Fertilizer Extension Programme on the Minds of the Farmers and Their Reactions to Different Extension Methods. Indian Journal of Agronomy. 3, 119-137.
- Raju, P. S. (1980). Optimum Stimulation Level: Its Relationship to Personality, Demographics, and Exploratory Behavior. Journal of Consumer Research. 7, 272-282.
- Raman, K and Rabikar Chatterjee. (1995). Optimal Monopolistic Pricing Under Demand Uncertainty in Dynamic Markets. Management Science. 41, (1) 144-162.
- Restaurant Business. (1984). New Concepts To Watch. (May), 171-218. USA.
- Restaurant Business. (1985). The Ethnic Food Boom. (October), 183-189, 208. USA.
- Restaurant Business. (1986). The Ethnic Food Explosion. (July), 142-149. USA.
- Restaurant Management Today. (1990). New Restaurant Survey Highlights Trends In Eating. Service - Ethnic Foods Take Out Couponing Polled. 10, (9) USA.
- Restaurants USA. (1991). Asian Update - Consumer Interest in Ethnic Foods is Booming. January. 40-42. USA.

- Richmond, Virginia P. (1977). The Relationship Between Opinion Leadership and Information Acquisition. Human Communication Research, 4, 38-43.
- Riecken, Glen and Ugar Yavas. (1983). Internal Consistency Reliability of King and Summers' Opinion Leadership Scale: Further Evidence. Journal of Marketing Research, 20, 325-326.
- Robertson, Thomas S. (1971). Innovative Behavior and Communication. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Robertson, Thomas S., and Hubert Gatignon. (1986). Competitive Effects on Technology Diffusion. Journal of Marketing, 50 (3) 1-12.
- Robertson, Thomas S., and James H. Myers. (1969). Personality Correlates of Opinion Leadership and Innovative Buying Behavior. Journal of Marketing Research, 6, 164-169.
- Robertson, Thomas S., Joan Zielinski, and Scott Ward. (1984). Consumer Behavior. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Rogers, Everett M. and David G. Cartano. (1962). Methods of Measuring Opinion Leadership. Public Opinion Quarterly, 26, 435-441.
- Rogers, Everett M. and F Floyd Shoemaker. (1971). Communication of Innovations. 2nd Edition. New York: Free Press.
- Rogers, Everett M. and Rabel J. Burdge. (1962). Community Norms, Opinion Leadership, and Innovativeness Among Truck Growers. Wooster Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station Research Bulletin, 912.
- Rogers, Everett. M. (1961). Characteristics of Agricultural Innovators and Other Adopter Categories. Wooster, Ohio: Agricultural Experiment Station Research Bulletin, 882.
- Rogers, Everett. M. (1962). Diffusion of Innovations. New York: Free Press.
- Rogers, Everett. M. (1976). New Product Adoption And Diffusion. Journal Of Consumer Research, 2, 291-301.
- Rogers, Everett. M. (1983). Diffusion of Innovations, 3rd Edition. New York: Free Press.
- Rogers, Everett. M. (1992). The Diffusion of Innovations Model. Paper presented at the NATO advanced Research Workshop on Modelling the Use and Diffusion of Geographic Information Technologies, Sounion, Greece April 1992.

- Rubenstein, Albert H. (1994). At the Front End of the R&D / Innovation Process: Idea Development and Entrepreneurship International. Journal of Technology Management, 9, 652-677.
- Ryan, Bryce, and N. C. Gross. (1943). The Diffusion of Hybrid Corn Seed in Two Iowa Communities. Rural Sociology, 8, 15-24.
- Saker, J. and B, Brook. (1989). Ethnic Food Businesses - Success and Failure. British Food Journal, 91, (2) 22-24.
- Salvage, B. (1981). Ethnic Foods - The Hottest New Market Segment! Processed Prepared Foods, 10, 30-40. USA.
- Sampford, M. R. (1962). An Introduction to Sampling Theory. Edinburg: Oliver and Boyd.
- Schmidt, Peter and Ann D. Witte (1989). Predicting Criminal Recidivism Using Split Population Survival Time Models. Journal of Econometrics, 40, 141-159.
- Schneider, Kenneth C. and William C. Rodgers. (1993). Generalised Marketplace Influencers' (Market Mavens') Attitudes Towards Direct Mail as a Source of Information. Journal of Direct Marketing, 7, 20-28.
- Schneider, S. C. (1987). Information Overload: Causes and Consequences. Human Systems Management, 7, (2) 143-153.
- Sharif, M.N. and K. Ramanathan. (1981). Binomial Innovation Diffusion Models With Dynamic Potential Adopter Population. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 20, 63-87.
- Shelly, Emer. (1994). Can Community Programmes Promote Healthy Lifestyles? The Irish Journal of Psychology, 15, 164-178.
- Sheth, Jagdish N. (1968). Perceived Risk and Diffusions. In Insights Into Consumer Behavior. Johan Arndt (Editor). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Sheth, Jagdish N. (1971). Word-Of-Mouth in Low-Risk Innovations. Journal of Advertising Research, (June), 15-18.
- Sheth, Jagdish N., and S. Ram. (1987). Bringing Innovation to Market: How to Break Corporate and Customer Barriers. NY: John Wiley and Sons.
- Shiffman, Leon G. and Leslie L. Kanuk. (1994). Consumer Behaviour, 5th Edition. NY: Prentice Hall.

- Silk, Alvin J. (1966). Overlap Among Self-Designated Opinion Leaders: A Study of Selected Dental Products and Services. Journal of Marketing Research, 3, 255-259.
- Sillup, G. P. (1992). Forecasting the Adoption of New Medical Technology Using the Bass Model. Journal of Health Care Marketing, 12, 42-51.
- Simon, H. (1979). Dynamics of Price Elasticity and Brand Life Cycles: An Empirical Study. Journal of Marketing Research, 16, 439- 452.
- Simon, H. and K-H. Sebastian. (1987). Diffusion and Advertising: The German Telephone Company. Management Science, 33, 451-466.
- Sinha, Ravi K and Murali Chandrashekar. (1992). A Split Hazard Model for Analysing the Diffusion of Innovations. Journal of Marketing Research, 29, 116-127.
- Slama, Mark E. and Armen Tashchian. (1985). Selected Socio-economic and Demographic Characteristics Associated with Purchasing Involvement. Journal of Marketing, 49, 72-82.
- Slama, Mark E. and Terrell G. Williams. (1990). Generalisation of the Market Maven's Information Provision Tendency Across Product Categories. Advances in Consumer Research, 17, 48-52.
- Slama, Mark. E., Marianne D'Onofrio and Kevin Celuch. (1993). Consumer Complaint Behaviours of Market Mavens. Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaint Behaviour, 6, 175-180.
- Smith, H. W. (1991). Strategies of Social Research, 3rd Edition. FL: Holt Rinehart and Winston.
- Snack Food. (1986). Washington Perspective - Ethnic Foods In Demand, 75, p.11. USA.
- Snyder, M. and D. Kendzierski. (1982). Choosing Social Situations: Investigating the Origins of Correspondence Between Attitudes and Behaviour. Journal of Personality, 50, 280-295.
- Solomon, Michael. R. (1994). Consumer Behaviour, 2nd Edition. Mass: Allyn and Bacon.
- Spence, W. R. (1994). Innovation: The Communication of Change in Ideas, Practices and Products. London: Chapman Hall.
- Stanforth, Nancy. (1995). Fashion Innovators, Sensation Seekers, and Clothing Individualists. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 81, 1203-1210.

- Stoneman, P. (1981). Intra-Firm Diffusion, Bayesian Learning and Profitability. Economic Journal, 91, 375-388.
- Strong, E. K. (1925). The Psychology of Selling. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Sudman, S. (1980). Improving the Quality of Shopping Center Sampling. Journal of Marketing Research, 17, 423-431.
- Sudman, S. and Bradburn N. M. (1982). Asking Questions. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sultan, Fareena., John U. Farley and Donald R. Lehmann. (1990). A Meta Analysis of Applications of Diffusion Models. Journal of Marketing Research, 27, 70-77.
- Summers, John O. (1970). The Identity of Women's Clothing Fashion Opinion Leaders. Journal of Marketing Research, 7 (May), 178-185.
- Summers, John O. (1971). Generalized Change Agents and Innovativeness. Journal of Marketing Research, 9, 313-316.
- Supermarket News. (1989). Mexican Food Sales Growing Fast. (September), 20-24. USA.
- Takada, Hirokazu and Dipak Jain. (1991). Cross-National Analysis of Diffusion of Consumer Goods in Pacific Rim Countries. Journal of Marketing, 55, 48-54.
- Tanny, S. M. and N. A. Derzko. (1988). Innovators and Imitators in Innovation Diffusion Modelling. Journal of Forecasting, 7, (4) 225-34.
- Tansuhaj, Patriya., James Gentry, Joby John, Lee. L. Manzer and Bong Jin Cho. (1991). A Cross National Examination of Innovation Resistance. International Marketing Review, 8, (3) 7-20.
- Tarde, Gabriel. (1903). The Laws of Imitation. New York: Holt.
- Taylor, J. W. (1974). The Role of Risk in Consumer Behaviour. Journal of Marketing, 38, 54-60.
- Tellis, Gerard J. (1988). The Price Elasticity of Selective Demand: A Meta-Analysis of Econometric Models of Sales. Journal of Marketing Research, 25, 331-341.
- Tellis, Gerard J. and Claes Fornell. (1988). The Relationship Between Advertising and Quality Over the Product Lifecycle: A Contingency Theory. Journal of Marketing Research, 15, 46-71.

- Tesler, E. (1979). Ethnic Foods: Parallel to Travel, Immigration Patterns. Food Product Development. (May), p.15. USA.
- The Grocer. (1987). Exotic Produce Sales Are Up. 7th November, 106-108.
- The Grocer. (1992a). Focus On Italian Food And Drink. 28th March 82-110.
- The Grocer. (1992b). Focus Ethnic Foods. 4th July 59-81.
- The Grocer. (1996c). A Touch of Spice. 3rd August, 35-41.
- The Grocer. (1996d). Supplies For a New Generation. 3rd August, 46.
- The Grocer. (1996e). A Question of Taste. 26th October, 49-52.
- The Grocer. (1996f). Cooking Up a Panful of Publicity. 18th May, 14-15.
- The Oxford English Dictionary. (1996). Oxford University Press.
- Thorelli, Hans B. and Sarah V. Thorelli. (1977). Consumer Information Systems and Consumer Policy. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.
- Thorelli, Hans B., Helmut Becker, and Jack Engeldow. (1975). The Information Seekers. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.
- Tiffin, Scott and Fola Osotimehin. (1992). Innovation of New and Emerging Technology for Industrial Development in Africa. Journal of Asian and African Studies. 27, 94-113.
- Tornatzky, L. G. and R. J. Klein. (1982). Innovation Characteristics and Innovation Adoption-Implementation: A Meta-Analysis of Findings. IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management. EM-29, 28-45.
- Twede, Diana. (1992). The Process of Logistical Packaging Innovation. The Journal of Business Logistics. 13, (1) 69-94.
- U.S. Distribution Journal. (1990). Ethnic Foods Add Spice. 217, No. 6, 24- 28. USA.
- Udell, J. G. (1966). Prepurchase Behavior of Buyers of Small Electrical Appliances. Journal of Marketing. 30, 50-52.
- Vilcassim, Naufel and Dipak C. Jain. (1991). Modelling Purchase-Timing and Brand-Switching Behaviour Incorporating Explanatory Variables and Unobserved Heterogeneity. Journal of Marketing Research. 28, 29-41.

Voughn, R. (1980). How Advertising Works: A Planning Model. Journal of Advertising Research, 20, 27-33.

Weerahandi, Samaradasa and Soumyo Moitra. (1995). Using Survey Data to Predict Adoption and Switching for Services. Journal of Marketing Research, 32, 85-96.

Weick, Karl. (1979). The Social Psychology of Organising, 2nd Edition. Reading MA: Addison Wesley.

West, Cynthia D. and Steven A Sinclair. (1992). A Measure of Innovativeness for a Sample of Firms in the Wood Household Furniture Industry. Forest Science, 38, 509-524.

Williams, Terrell E. and Mark E. Slama. (1995). Market Mavens' Purchase Decision Evaluative Criteria: Implications For Brand and Store Promotion Efforts. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 12, (3) 4-21.

Wills, James. A. Coskun Samli and Laurence Jacobs. (1991). Developing Global Products and Marketing Strategies: A Construct and Research Agenda. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 19, (1) 1-10.

Witcher, B. (1990). What Should a Ph.D. Look Like? Graduate Management Research, (Summer) 29-36.

Yates, Frank. (1953). Sampling Methods for Censuses and Surveys, 2nd Edition. London: Charles Griffin.

Yavas, Ugar and Glen Riecken. (1982). Extensions of King and Summers' Opinion Leadership Scale: A Reliability Study. Journal of Marketing Research, 19, 154.

Ziemer, D. R. (1992). A Decision Support System to Aid Scenario Construction for Sizing and Timing Marketplaces. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 42, 22-249.

10. Appendices

10.1 Appendix One - Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire

Begin...

*Original version
Study published in
J. Marketing
(includes marginalia)*

DATE _____

START TIME _____

FINISH TIME _____

1 2

6-7

AVERAGE TIME: 18.42 minutes

SHOPPING STUDY

Hello, my name is _____. I am working on a nationwide study about shopping patterns that is being conducted by the University of Pittsburgh in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. May I please speak to the male/female head of the household? [IF SPEAKING WITH APPROPRIATE PERSON, CONTINUE; OTHERWISE ASK TO SPEAK WITH APPROPRIATE PERSON AND REPEAT FIRST LINE].

I would like to ask you some questions about how you find out about new products and how you shop.

[IF ASKED HOW LONG INTERVIEW WILL TAKE, SAY: only about 10 to 15 minutes].

1A. In general, to what extent would you say that you enjoy shopping? Would you say...

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|-------|---|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { | Extremely.....1 | 7.2% | 8 |
| | | Very Much.....2 | 22.2 | |
| | | Somewhat.....3 | 31.5 | |
| | | Just a little, or.....4 | 22.5 | |
| | | Not at all?.....5 | 16.5 | |
| | | DOES NOT SHOP (skip to Q. 2)....6 | (1.0) | |

IF RESPONDENT INDICATES "IT DEPENDS ON THE TYPE OF SHOPPING", PROMPT THAT IT IS IN GENERAL.

1B. In your household, who has most of the responsibility for shopping?

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|---|-------|---|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { | Do you.....1 | 60.6% | 9 |
| | | Does someone else, or.....2 | 14.0 | |
| | | Do you share responsibility with someone else?....3 | 25.4 | |

FOR THOSE WHO SHOP: N=1516

IF RESPONDENT INDICATES "IT DEPENDS ON THE TYPE OF SHOPPING", PROMPT THAT IT IS IN GENERAL.

1

Figure 10-1 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Opening Statement)

2. Next, I am going to read you several statements. For each statement please tell me the extent that you agree or disagree with the statement using a 7 point scale, where 1 is STRONGLY DISAGREE and 7 is STRONGLY AGREE. You may use any number between 1 and 7 to indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement. The first statement is...

| START AT X | | STRONGLY DISAGREE | | | | | | | STRONGLY DON'T * AGREE KNOW | |
|---------------|---|----------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|--------------------------------|------|
| | A. I enjoy trying different brands of frequently purchased products. $\bar{x} = 4.02$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 10 |
| | | 16 | 14 | 12 | 14 | 17 | 12 | 16 | (.3) | |
| () | B. I like introducing new brands and products to my friends. $\bar{x} = 3.84$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 20 | 12 | 12 | 16 | 16 | 11 | 14 | (.1) | |
| | C. I often read advertisements just out of curiosity. $\bar{x} = 4.80$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 12 | 6 | 6 | 11 | 12 | 18 | 28 | (.1) | |
| | D. I find out about new products sooner than most other people. $\bar{x} = 3.45$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 22 | 15 | 15 | 18 | 15 | 8 | 9 | (2.6) | |
| () | E. I am the kind of person who would try any new product once. $\bar{x} = 4.36$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 18 | 9 | 9 | 11 | 15 | 14 | 25 | (.3) | |
| () | F. I like helping people by providing them with information about many kinds of products. $\bar{x} = 4.41$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 13 | 8 | 12 | 13 | 19 | 15 | 21 | (.4) | |
| () | G. People ask me for information about products, places to shop or sales. $\bar{x} = 4.00$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 17 | 12 | 12 | 16 | 17 | 14 | 13 | (.3) | |
| () | H. I read advertisements because they are a good source of information about new products. $\bar{x} = 4.73$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 11 | 7 | 9 | 12 | 18 | 16 | 27 | (.2) | |
| | I. Magazine advertisements are more useful than TV advertisements in finding out about specific features of products. $\bar{x} = 4.32$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 13 | 11 | 10 | 15 | 17 | 16 | 18 | (.1) | |
| () | J. If someone asked where to get the best buy on several types of products, I could tell him or her where to shop. $\bar{x} = 4.63$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 11 | 7 | 10 | 13 | 21 | 19 | 20 | (.7) | |
| () | (K) My friends think of me as a good source of information when it comes to new products or sales. $\bar{x} = 4.15$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | | 14 | 9 | 13 | 18 | 20 | 11 | 15 | (1.4) | |
| | L. I usually try a new product shortly after I learn that it is on the market. $\bar{x} = 3.86$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 21 |
| | | 18 | 14 | 13 | 14 | 16 | 11 | 14 | (.3) | (.7) |

* The numbers in parentheses are treated as missing for percentage breakdowns and computation of means.

Figure 10-2 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)

3. In the next few questions, we'd like you to talk about the products you're interested in. Some people are very knowledgeable about a particular kind of product. For example, some people know a lot about certain food, health, or drug items or perhaps electronic equipment or other products. Is there a particular kind of product that you feel you are very knowledgeable about?

YES (continue with Q. 3A).....1 53.3% 22
 NO (skip to Q. 4).....2 46.7%

3A. What particular type of product or products do you know a lot about? (WRITE IN PRODUCTS)

(see attached sheet for breakdowns)

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |

23,24

31,32

3B. (IF MORE THAN 1 PRODUCT IN Q. 3A, ASK). Of the products you just named, which one are you most knowledgeable about? [IF RESPONDENT IS "EQUALLY KNOWLEDGEABLE" ABOUT TWO OR MORE PRODUCTS, ASK: "WHICH ONE PRODUCT WOULD YOU LIKE TO TALK ABOUT?"]

(see attached sheet for breakdowns)

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
|--|--|

33,34

3C. Do you think that you ever influence other people in their purchase of or opinions about [INSERT THE ONE PRODUCT NAMED IN Q. 3A/3B]?

(N=802)

88.4 YES.....1
 7.7 NO.....2
 3.9 NOT SURE.....3

35

3D. Thinking now just of [INSERT THE ONE PRODUCT IN Q. 3A/3B], as I read a short list, please tell me the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the 1 to 7 scale you used before, where 1 is STRONGLY DISAGREE and 7 is STRONGLY AGREE. (DO NOT OFFER "DON'T KNOW", BUT RECORD IF THAT IS THE RESPONSE.)

| START AT X | | STRONGLY DISAGREE | | | | | | | STRONGLY AGREE | DON'T KNOW | |
|------------|---|-------------------|---|---|----|----|----|----|----------------|------------|----|
| () | A. I usually find out about new brands or models of this product sooner than most people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | 36 |
| | $\bar{x} = 5.05$ | 9 | 5 | 7 | 11 | 19 | 20 | 30 | (1.0) | | |
| | B. I make a conscious effort to try new brands or models. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | |
| | $\bar{x} = 4.69$ | 11 | 8 | 9 | 11 | 17 | 20 | 24 | (.7) | | |
| () | C. I like to talk about this type of product. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | |
| | $\bar{x} = 5.52$ | 4 | 4 | 4 | 11 | 19 | 20 | 39 | (.0) | | |
| | D. I provide other people with specific information about products of this type. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | |
| | $\bar{x} = 5.53$ | 5 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 10 | 16 | 36 | (.0) | | |
| () | E. People come to me for information on this product more often than to other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | 40 |
| | $\bar{x} = 4.82$ | 9 | 8 | 8 | 14 | 19 | 17 | 26 | (.1) | | |

Figure 10-3 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)

4. Do you know someone, other than yourself, who is very knowledgeable about a particular type of product?

47.9%YES (continue with Q. 4A)...1 41
 52.1%NO (skip to Q. 5).....2

4A. What type of product or products does this person know a lot about? (WRITE IN PRODUCTS)

(See Attached List)

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |

42.4

50.5

4B. Now, on a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT and 7 is VERY IMPORTANT, how important is this person to you for finding out about new brands or models for this/these type of product(s)? (DO NOT OFFER "DON'T KNOW" OR "DON'T USE PRODUCT - NOT IMPORTANT", BUT RECORD IF THAT IS THE RESPONSE.)

| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | VERY IMPORTANT | DON'T KNOW | DON'T USE PRODUCT | |
|----------------------|-----|-----|-----|------|------|----------------|------------|-------------------|----|
| 1 | | | | | | 7 | 8 | 9 (.3) | |
| 3.0 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 6.1 | 15.3 | 20.4 | 48.8 | (.8) | (skip to Q. 5) | 52 |

$\bar{x} = 5.84$

4C. Again, using the 1 to 7 scale, how important is this person to you in evaluating different brands or models of this type of product? (DO NOT OFFER "DON'T KNOW" OR "DON'T USE PRODUCT - NOT IMPORTANT", BUT RECORD IF THAT IS THE RESPONSE.)

| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | VERY IMPORTANT | DON'T KNOW | DON'T USE PRODUCT | |
|----------------------|-----|-----|-----|------|------|----------------|------------|-------------------|----|
| 1 | | | | | | 7 | 8 | 9 (.3) | |
| 1.9 | 1.7 | 3.3 | 5.0 | 17.7 | 23.0 | 47.5 | (.3) | (.3) | 53 |

$\bar{x} = 5.94$

5. Now, I'm going to read you a description of a person. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is NOT AT ALL LIKE YOU and 7 IS VERY MUCH LIKE YOU, I'd like you to tell me how well this description fits you. "Think about a person who has information about a variety of products and likes to share this information with others. This person knows about new products, sales, stores, and so on, but does not necessarily feel he or she is an expert on one particular product. How well would you say that this description fits you?"

| | | |
|----------------------------------|-------|----|
| NOT AT ALL LIKE RESPONDENT.....1 | 7.5% | 34 |
| 2 | 5.6 | |
| 3 | 11.0 | |
| 4 | 20.2 | |
| 5 | 26.8 | |
| 6 | 14.8 | |
| VERY MUCH LIKE RESPONDENT.....7 | 13.8 | |
| DON'T KNOW.....8 | (1.8) | |

$\bar{x} = 4.52$

Figure 10-4 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---------------------------|--|------------------------|-----|-------------------------|-----|------------------------|------|------------------------------------|------|-------------------------|------|----|
| 6. Do you know someone, other than yourself, who has information about a variety of products, stores, sales, etc. and likes to share this general information with others. | | 45.8 YES (continue with Q. 6A)...1 | 55 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 54.2 NO (skip to Q. 7).....2 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6A. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT and 7 is VERY IMPORTANT, how important is this person to you for finding out about new brands or models? (DO NOT OFFER "DON'T KNOW", BUT RECORD IF THAT IS THE RESPONSE.) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1.4 | 1.9 | 5.0 | 10.6 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 5 | 6 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 24.5 | 24.8 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | VERY IMPORTANT 7 | DON'T KNOW 8 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 31.8 | (.3) | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 36 | | | | | | | | | | |
| $\bar{x} = 5.56$ | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6B. Again, using the 1 to 7 scale, how important is this person to you in evaluating different brands or models? (DO NOT OFFER "DON'T KNOW", BUT RECORD IF THAT IS THE RESPONSE.) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1.4 | 2.3 | 4.4 | 12.8 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 5 | 6 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 23.5 | 26.4 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | VERY IMPORTANT 7 | DON'T KNOW 8 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 29.2 | (.3) | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 37 | | | | | | | | | | |
| $\bar{x} = 5.51$ | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6C. Do you also think of this person as being very knowledgeable about a particular type of product? | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 67.7% YES (continue with Q. 6D).....1 | 58 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 32.3% NO (skip to Q. 7).....2 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | (7.6) NOT SURE/DON'T KNOW (skip to Q. 7)....3 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6D. What particular type of product or products is this person very knowledgeable about? | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| (See Attached List) | | <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr><td> </td><td> </td></tr> <tr><td> </td><td> </td></tr> <tr><td> </td><td> </td></tr> </table> | | | | | | | 59,60 | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| _____ | | 63,64 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| _____ | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| NOTE: VERSION 2 RESULTS ARE REPORTED IN FOLLOWING QUESTIONS | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. In the next set of questions, we'd like to ask you specifically about non-prescription drugs and health and beauty products. In particular, to what extent do you enjoy shopping for non-prescription drugs and health and beauty products? Would you say... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| $\bar{x} = 3.68$ | READ BRACKETED LIST | <table border="0"> <tr><td>Extremely.....1</td><td>4.1</td></tr> <tr><td>Very Much.....2</td><td>9.9</td></tr> <tr><td>Somewhat.....3</td><td>27.9</td></tr> <tr><td>Just a little, or.....4</td><td>29.8</td></tr> <tr><td>Not at all?.....5</td><td>28.2</td></tr> </table> | Extremely.....1 | 4.1 | Very Much.....2 | 9.9 | Somewhat.....3 | 27.9 | Just a little, or.....4 | 29.8 | Not at all?.....5 | 28.2 | 65 |
| Extremely.....1 | 4.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Very Much.....2 | 9.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Somewhat.....3 | 27.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Just a little, or.....4 | 29.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Not at all?.....5 | 28.2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | DOES NOT SHOP (skip to Q. 11)...6 (3.4) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. How frequently do you shop for these kinds of products? Would you say... | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| $\bar{x} = 4.10$ | READ BRACKETED LIST | <table border="0"> <tr><td>Nearly every day.....1</td><td>.5</td></tr> <tr><td>Several times a w.....2</td><td>1.8</td></tr> <tr><td>About once per w.....3</td><td>15.2</td></tr> <tr><td>Once or a few tir. month, or.....4</td><td>33.8</td></tr> <tr><td>Less than once pe.....5</td><td>44.2</td></tr> </table> | Nearly every day.....1 | .5 | Several times a w.....2 | 1.8 | About once per w.....3 | 15.2 | Once or a few tir. month, or.....4 | 33.8 | Less than once pe.....5 | 44.2 | 66 |
| Nearly every day.....1 | .5 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Several times a w.....2 | 1.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| About once per w.....3 | 15.2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Once or a few tir. month, or.....4 | 33.8 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Less than once pe.....5 | 44.2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | DOES NOT SHOP (Skip Q. 11)...6 (3.8) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Figure 10-5 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Non - Prescription Drugs And Beauty Products Section)

9. When you shop for non-prescription drugs and health and beauty products, how often do you use coupons? Would you say...

\bar{x} = 3.24

READ
BRACKETED
LIST

| | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|---|----|
| Nearly all the time.....1 | 12.6% | } | 67 |
| Most of the time.....2 | 16.2 | | |
| Some of the time.....3 | 27.5 | | |
| Hardly ever, or.....4 | 22.1 | | |
| Never?.....5 | 21.7 | | |

10. In general, when new non-prescription drugs and health and beauty products first appear on the market which of the following best describes when you are likely to buy the item. Would you say:

\bar{x} = 3.7

READ
BRACKETED
LIST

| | | | |
|---|------|---|----|
| You are among the very first to buy it.....1 | 4.1 | } | 68 |
| You buy before the majority of people.....2 | 8.6 | | |
| You buy at about the same time as most people.....3 | 36.8 | | |
| You buy somewhat after most people, or.....4 | 17.7 | | |
| You buy much later than most people?.....5 | 28.1 | | |
| DON'T KNOW.....6 | 4.7 | | |

11. Next, we would like to ask you how often you personally use a few products. For each product, please tell me if you use it at least once a day, a few times a week, about once a week, 2 or 3 times a month, about once a month, once every few months, or less often?

| START AT X | At-least once a day | Few times a week | About once a week | 2-3 times a month | About once a month | Once every few months | Less often | |
|---|---------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|------------|----|
| () Cough medicines \bar{x} = 6.48 | 1 1.7 | 2 .1 | 3 1.1 | 4 2.1 | 5 6.3 | 6 18.2 | 7 70.5 | 69 |
| Pain relievers \bar{x} = 4.49 | 1 9.5 | 2 12.6 | 3 14.4 | 4 11.1 | 5 14.1 | 6 12.1 | 7 26.2 | |
| Vitamins \bar{x} = 3.95 | 1 42.6 | 2 5.0 | 3 2.6 | 4 2.0 | 5 2.1 | 6 3.4 | 7 42.2 | |
| () Deodorants \bar{x} = 1.58 | 1 87.0 | 2 2.1 | 3 1.3 | 4 .7 | 5 .7 | 6 .7 | 7 7.6 | 73 |
| Suntan products in season \bar{x} = 5.42 | 1 5.7 | 2 11.2 | 3 9.1 | 4 5.3 | 5 4.9 | 6 5.9 | 7 58.0 | |

12. Using a 7 point scale in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, please tell me to what extent you make a conscious effort to try new products in each of the following categories: You may use any number between 1 and 7. [DO NOT READ PRODUCT IF RESPONDENT SAID "LESS OFTEN" TO IT IN Q. 11]

| START AT X | NEVER | | | | | VERY FREQ. | DON'T KNOW | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|-----------|----|
| () Cough medicines \bar{x} = 2.93 | 1 33.2 | 2 21.0 | 3 12.2 | 4 10.0 | 5 9.6 | 6 5.2 | 7 8.7 | 8 (.1) | 74 |
| Pain relievers \bar{x} = 2.86 | 1 38.6 | 2 14.9 | 3 11.9 | 4 11.2 | 5 10.3 | 6 6.0 | 7 6.9 | 8 | |
| Vitamins \bar{x} = 2.94 | 1 40.1 | 2 11.7 | 3 11.0 | 4 12.6 | 5 9.9 | 6 5.4 | 7 9.4 | 8 | |
| () Deodorants \bar{x} = 3.18 | 1 37.1 | 2 12.1 | 3 10.3 | 4 8.4 | 5 11.7 | | 7 1.7 | 8 (.1) | 78 |
| Suntan products in season \bar{x} = 3.56 | 1 24.8 | 2 11.5 | 3 14.3 | 4 12.7 | 5 17.4 | | 7 1.5 | | |

Figure 10-6 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Non - Prescription Drugs And Beauty Products Section)

13. Again, using the 7 point scale in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, how often do you find out about new products in each of the following categories BEFORE most other people? [READ ALL PRODUCTS]

| START AT X | NEVER | | | | | | | VERY FREQ. | DON'T KNOW | |
|---|-------|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|---------------|---------------|--|
| () Cough medicines $\bar{x} = 2.52$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 79 | |
| | 46.0 | 14.7 | 11.3 | 11.3 | 7.9 | 3.7 | 5.0 | (3.4) | | |
| Pain relievers $\bar{x} = 3.08$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 80 | |
| | 33.4 | 13.5 | 12.9 | 15.2 | 10.2 | 7.0 | 7.8 | (1.7) | | |
| Vitamins $\bar{x} = 2.91$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 2/6 | |
| | 41.8 | 11.7 | 9.4 | 12.2 | 9.3 | 6.9 | 8.7 | (2.0) | | |
| () Deodorants $\bar{x} = 3.31$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 7 | |
| | 32.3 | 10.1 | 10.7 | 14.9 | 14.3 | 8.3 | 9.4 | (1.7) | | |
| Suntan products, in season $\bar{x} = 2.48$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 8 | |
| | 52.0 | 9.8 | 9.3 | 10.4 | 9.2 | 3.8 | 5.6 | (2.4) | | |

14. Using the same 7 point scale, in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, please tell me how often you provide other people with specific information on products in each of the following categories? [READ ALL PRODUCTS]

| START AT X | NEVER | | | | | | | VERY FREQ. | DON'T KNOW | |
|---|-------|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|---------------|---------------|--|
| () Cough medicines $\bar{x} = 2.27$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | |
| | 63.7 | 14.4 | 9.8 | 7.7 | 6.6 | 2.9 | 4.9 | (.4) | | |
| Pain relievers $\bar{x} = 2.83$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | |
| | 41.3 | 12.3 | 10.8 | 13.5 | 8.4 | 7.3 | 6.5 | (.3) | | |
| Vitamins $\bar{x} = 2.74$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | |
| | 47.1 | 11.5 | 10.2 | 7.1 | 9.1 | 5.8 | 9.1 | (.5) | | |
| () Deodorants $\bar{x} = 2.84$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | |
| | 43.5 | 12.8 | 12.0 | 9.3 | 9.9 | 5.6 | 6.9 | (.5) | | |
| Suntan products, in season $\bar{x} = 2.27$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 13 | |
| | 67.1 | 11.1 | 8.1 | 8.1 | 8.5 | 2.2 | 5.0 | (.4) | | |

15. We are interested in how important each of the following sources of information is to you in finding out about new non-prescription drugs and health and beauty products. Again, using a 7 point scale, where 1 is NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT and 7 is VERY IMPORTANT, please tell me how important each source is to you.

| START AT X | HOW IMPORTANT IS _____ | NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | | | | | VERY IMPORTANT | DON'T KNOW | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|------|------|------|------|-------------------|---------------|----|
| () Free samples $\bar{x} = 4.90$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 14 |
| | 14.5 | 5.2 | 7.4 | 8.6 | 13.4 | 14.7 | 36.2 | (.5) | |
| Magazines $\bar{x} = 4.22$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | 15.7 | 8.9 | 11.9 | 13.5 | 17.2 | 16.7 | 16.1 | (.3) | |
| Newspapers $\bar{x} = 4.31$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | 14.5 | 8.9 | 10.9 | 16.1 | 15.9 | 14.2 | 19.5 | (.4) | |
| () Radio $\bar{x} = 3.82$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | 20.1 | 13.4 | 12.8 | 12.7 | 14.8 | 11.1 | 15.1 | (.3) | |
| Television $\bar{x} = 4.63$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | 12.7 | 7.1 | 9.5 | 12.0 | 18.0 | 14.9 | 25.8 | (.1) | |
| () Salespeople $\bar{x} = 2.82$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| | 39.9 | 15.5 | 10.7 | 10.3 | 10.1 | 6.1 | | | |
| Relatives/friends $\bar{x} = 4.79$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | 8 | |
| | 8.8 | 5.9 | 9.4 | 12.3 | 22.3 | 19.9 | | | |
| Browsing/shopping $\bar{x} = 4.30$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | 8 | 21 |
| | 15.4 | 7.1 | 10.4 | 13.7 | 21.5 | 16.3 | 13.3 | | |

Figure 10-7 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (General Media Patterns)

16. Every year thousands of new products are offered for sale. As I read you a list of some new products please tell me whether or not you have heard of each one? (IF RESPONDENT HAS HEARD OF THE BRAND, ASK IF HE/SHE HAS TRIED IT).

| START AT X | Brand Names | Heard of? | | | Have you tried it? | | | |
|------------|-------------|-----------|----------|-----|--------------------|-----------|-----------|----|
| | | NO | NOT SURE | YES | YES | NO | NOT SURE | |
| U76 () | Cremacoat | 1 85.0 | 2 1.6 | → | 3 2.5 | 4 10.9 | 5 | 22 |
| 9 | Caltrate | 1 81.8 | 2 2.6 | → | 3 1.1 | 4 14.4 | 5 (.1) | |
| 0 | Eclipse | 1 76.7 | 2 1.7 | → | 3 4.7 | 4 16.8 | 5 | |
| 1 () | Dial Solid | 1 45.7 | 2 .9 | → | 3 18.5 | 4 34.3 | 5 (.5) | |
| 2 | Reepit | 1 92.6 | 2 1.2 | → | 3 .5 | 4 6.7 | 5 | |
| 3 | Nuprin | 1 59.2 | 2 1.7 | → | 3 6.1 | 4 32.5 | 5 (.5) | 27 |

RESPONSES SPECIFIC TO VERSION TWO END

17. Now we'd like to ask you a few questions about the magazines you read. What magazines, if any, do you read or look into regularly, that is, at least 3 out of the last 4 issues? [PROBE: What else?]
 [AFTER ALL MAGAZINES RECORDED, THEN ASK:] As I repeat the list of magazines that you read, please tell me whether you subscribe to each one. [IF RESPONDENT SUBSCRIBES, CIRCLE THE "1" UNDER "SUBSCRIBE".]

| | | Subscribe | |
|----|---------------------|-----------|------|
| A. | (See Attached List) | 1 | 28- |
| B. | | 1 | 31- |
| C. | | 1 | 34- |
| D. | | 1 | 37- |
| E. | | 1 | 40-4 |
| F. | | 1 | 43-4 |
| G. | | 1 | 46-4 |
| H. | | 1 | 49-5 |

CHECK IF RESPONDENT DOES NOT SUBSCRIBE TO ANY MAGAZINES

IF RESPONDENT DID NOT NAME CONSUMER REPORTS IN Q. 17, ASK Q. 17A. OTHERWISE, SKIP TO Q. 18.

17A. During the past year about how many issues of Consumer Reports, if any, have you looked into or read? Would you say...

| READ BRACKETED LIST | | | |
|---------------------|---|---|-------|
| | None..... | 1 | 51.0% |
| | 1 or 2 issues..... | 2 | 24.7 |
| | 3 to 6 issues..... | 3 | 15.5 |
| | 7 to 9 issues, or..... | 4 | 2.7 |
| | 10 to 12 issues?..... | 5 | 3.8 |
| | Plus regular reader of Consumer Reports | | 2.4 |
| | NEVER HEARD OF IT..... | 6 | |
| | (2.7) | | |

Figure 10-8 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (General Media Patterns)

18. In general, if you saw the same ad appearing in two different types of magazines:

| | | | | |
|-----------|---|--------------------------------------|------|----|
| READ | { | Would you react the same way, or...1 | 83.3 | 53 |
| BRACKETED | | would you react differently?.....2 | 16.7 | |
| LIST | | DON'T KNOW.....3 | | |

[IF RESPONDENT DOESN'T UNDERSTAND "REACT," REPLACE WITH "FEEL".]

18A. Now let me ask you about a specific instance. Think about...

START
AT X

- () A newsweekly, such as Time or Newsweek,
and
- () A woman's magazine, such as Family Circle or
Good Housekeeping.

FOR VERSION 2:

If you saw the same ad for a new non-prescription drug or health and beauty product in both types of magazines would you have...

| | | | |
|-----------|--|------|----|
| READ | the same reaction, or (skip to Q. 19A).....1 | 69.7 | 54 |
| BRACKETED | a different reaction? (go to Q. 18B).....2 | 23.1 | |
| LIST | DON'T KNOW (skip to Q. 19A).....3 | | |

18B. Would you react more favorably to the ad if it were in...
OF THOSE WITH DIFFERENT REACTION: for Version 2 n= 175

START
AT X'

| | | | | |
|-----------|---|-------------------------------|------|-----|
| READ | { | () A newsweekly.....1 | 35.4 | 55 |
| BRACKETED | | or | | |
| LIST | | () A woman's magazine?.....2 | 67.1 | |
| | | DON'T KNOW.....3 | | 7.6 |

19A. Including daytime and evening hours, on a typical weekday -- Monday through Friday -- how many hours of television, including cable and VCR time, do you watch on the average?

| | | | |
|--|--|------------------------|------|
| (5.2%) Don't Watch (not included in computation of mean) | | \bar{x} = 3.48 hours | 56.9 |
| 39.8 1-2 hours | | | |
| 36.6 3-4 hours | | | |
| 23.8 over 4 hours | | | |

19B. Including daytime and evening hours on a typical day during the weekend -- Saturday or Sunday -- how many hours of television do you watch on the average?

| | | | |
|---|--|------------------------|------|
| (10.1%) Don't Watch (not included in computation of mean) | | \bar{x} = 3.91 hours | 58.5 |
| 33.1 1-2 hours | | | |
| 34.9 3-4 hours | | | |
| 32.0 over 4 hours | | | |

Figure 10-9 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (General Media Patterns)

FINAL SECTION

Finally, we would like to ask you a few questions about yourself. I would like to emphasize that all of your responses are completely confidential and are for statistical purposes only. (IF RESPONDENT REFUSES, RECORD "R" FOR ANSWER)

20. First, please stop me when I reach your age group. (READ RESPONSES)

| | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|---|------|----|
| X = 5.15 about 43 years old | Under 25..... | 1 | 9.0 | 60 |
| | 25 to 29..... | 2 | 13.2 | |
| | 30 to 34..... | 3 | 13.4 | |
| | 35 to 39..... | 4 | 11.3 | |
| | 40 to 44..... | 5 | 9.2 | |
| | 45 to 49..... | 6 | 7.7 | |
| | 50 to 54..... | 7 | 8.3 | |
| | 55 to 59, or..... | 8 | 6.7 | |
| | 60 and over?..... | 9 | 21.1 | |

| | | | | |
|--|------------------------------------|---|------|----|
| 21. Are you currently employed? If "YES", ask: Is that full-time or part-time? | YES, Full-time (go to Q. 21A)..... | 1 | 52.2 | 61 |
| | YES, Part-time (go to Q. 21A)..... | 2 | 9.8 | |
| | NO (skip to Q. 22)..... | 3 | 37.7 | |
| | REFUSED (skip to Q. 22)..... | 4 | (.3) | |

21A. What is your occupation? Probe for specific job title and industry.
 IF TITLE IS UNCLEAR PROBE FOR RESPONSIBILITIES.

| | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------|
| Job Title (see attached sheet) | <input type="text"/> | <input type="text"/> | 62.6 |
| Industry (see attached sheet) | <input type="text"/> | <input type="text"/> | 64.6 |

22. Are you...

| | | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|------------------------------------|---|------|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { | Married (continue with Q. 23)..... | 1 | 53.8 | 66 |
| | | Divorced (skip to Q. 24)..... | 2 | 9.5 | |
| | | Separated (skip to Q. 24)..... | 3 | 1.7 | |
| | | Widowed, or (skip to Q. 24)..... | 4 | 9.5 | |
| | | Single? (skip to Q. 24)..... | 5 | 15.4 | |

| | | | | |
|---|---------------------|---|------|----|
| 23. Is your spouse currently employed? If "YES", ask: Is that full-time or part-time? | YES, Full-time..... | 1 | 63.3 | 67 |
| | YES, Part-time..... | 2 | 5.4 | |
| | NO..... | 3 | 29.9 | |
| | REFUSED..... | 4 | (.4) | |

24. Including yourself, how many people live in your household.
 (RECORD NUMBER. IF "1", SKIP TO Q. 26)

| | | | | |
|------------------------|--------|-------|----------------------|----|
| Percentage responding: | 1 | 17.7% | <input type="text"/> | 68 |
| | 2 | 31.4% | | |
| | 3-4 | 37.6% | | |
| | over 4 | 13.3% | | |

$\bar{x} = 2.88$

25. How many household members are children under the age of 18?
 (RECORD NUMBER) Of households with children: n = 656 or 42.8%

| | | | | |
|--|----------|-------|----------------------|----|
| | 1- | 41.8% | <input type="text"/> | 69 |
| | 2- | 36.3% | | |
| | 3- | 15.5% | | |
| | over, 3- | 6.4% | | |

$\bar{x} = 1.92$

Figure 10-10 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions)

26. Please stop me when I reach the educational level you have completed.
(READ RESPONSES)

| | | |
|---|------|----|
| Grade School.....1 | 4.9% | 70 |
| Some high school.....2 | 6.7 | |
| High school graduate.....3 | 33.0 | |
| Some college or technical school.....4 | 27.7 | |
| College graduate.....5 | 13.2 | |
| Graduate study without degree, or.....6 | 3.1 | |
| Graduate degree received?.....7 | 9.4 | |

27. Are you...

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|-----------------------|------|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { | Black1 | 9.4% | 71 |
| | | White2 | 87.6 | |
| | | Hispanic, or.....3 | 1.8 | |
| | | Oriental?.....4 | 1.0 | |
| | | Other (specify).....5 | .3 | |

28. Is your total annual household income...

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|--|-------|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { | Under \$30,000 or, (go to Q. 28A)....1 | 57.7% | 72 |
| | | \$30,000 or over? (go to 28B).....2 | 34.5% | |
| | | Don't Know (skip to Q. 29).....3 | 2.3% | |
| | | Refusal (skip to Q. 29).....4 | 5.5% | |

28A. Is it...?

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|---------------------------|-------|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { | Under \$15,000.....1 | 33.1% | 73 |
| | | \$15 to \$20,000.....2 | 24.5% | |
| | | \$20 to \$25,000 or.....3 | 18.4% | |
| | | \$25 to \$30,000?.....4 | 17.2% | |
| | | Don't Know.....5 | 2.3% | |
| | | Refusal.....6 | 4.5% | |

[IF AT BOUNDARY, CODE LOWER CATEGORY]

[GO TO Q. 29]

28B. Is it...?

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|----------------------------|-------|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { | \$30 to \$35,000.....1 | 30.8% | 74 |
| | | \$35 to \$50,000.....2 | 37.9% | |
| | | \$50 to \$75,000.....3 | 12.8% | |
| | | \$75 to \$100,000 or.....4 | 5.0% | |
| | | \$100,000 and over?.....5 | 3.3% | |
| | | Don't know.....6 | 2.1% | |
| | | Refusal.....7 | 8.1% | |

[IF AT BOUNDARY, CODE LOWER CATEGORY]

29. Finally, we are checking to make sure that this survey is truly random.
I'd like to verify your phone number. (READ FROM CALL SHEET)

Is it... - _____ 75-77

Figure 10-11 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions)

30. Is your phone number currently listed in the telephone directory? (DO NOT OFFER RESPONSES).

| | | |
|--|-------|----|
| Yes.....1 | 78.9% | 78 |
| No.....2 | 19.4% | |
| No, but it was supposed to be or will be listed.....3 | 1.6% | |

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION. WE GREATLY APPRECIATE YOUR TIME AND HELP.

31. Record sex

| | | |
|--------------|-------|----|
| Male.....1 | 35.7% | 79 |
| Female.....2 | 64.3% | |

INTERVIEWER'S NAME _____

RECORD FINISH TIME ON PAGE 1

Figure 10-12 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions)

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---------------------------|---|----------------|--|--|--|--|--|-------|
| 6. Do you know someone, other than yourself, who has information about a variety of products, stores, sales, etc. and likes to share this general information with others. | | YES (continue with Q. 6A)...1 | 55 | | | | | | |
| | | NO (skip to Q. 7).....2 | | | | | | | |
| 6A. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT and 7 is VERY IMPORTANT, how important is this person to you for finding out about new brands or models? (DO NOT OFFER "DON'T KNOW", BUT RECORD IF THAT IS THE RESPONSE.) | | | | | | | | | |
| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | |
| | | | 5 | | | | | | |
| | | | 6 | | | | | | |
| | | | 7 | | | | | | |
| | | | 8 | | | | | | |
| | | | VERY IMPORTANT | | | | | | |
| | | | DON'T KNOW | | | | | | |
| | | | 56 | | | | | | |
| 6B. Again, using the 1 to 7 scale, how important is this person to you in evaluating different brands or models? (DO NOT OFFER "DON'T KNOW". BUT RECORD IF THAT IS THE RESPONSE.) | | | | | | | | | |
| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | |
| | | | 5 | | | | | | |
| | | | 6 | | | | | | |
| | | | 7 | | | | | | |
| | | | 8 | | | | | | |
| | | | VERY IMPORTANT | | | | | | |
| | | | DON'T KNOW | | | | | | |
| | | | 57 | | | | | | |
| 6C. Do you also think of this person as being very knowledgeable about a particular type of product? | | | | | | | | | |
| | | YES (continue with Q. 6D).....1 | 58 | | | | | | |
| | | NO (skip to Q. 7).....2 | | | | | | | |
| | | NOT SURE/DON'T KNOW (skip to Q. 7)....3 | | | | | | | |
| 6D. What particular type of product or products is this person very knowledgeable about? | | | | | | | | | |
| _____ | | <table border="1"> <tr><td> </td><td> </td></tr> <tr><td> </td><td> </td></tr> <tr><td> </td><td> </td></tr> </table> | | | | | | | 59,60 |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| _____ | | 63,64 | | | | | | | |
| _____ | | | | | | | | | |
| <u>RESPONSES TO VERSION 1</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. In the next set of questions, we'd like to ask you specifically about food and common household products. In particular, to what extent do you enjoy shopping for food and common household products? Would you say... | | | | | | | | | |
| $\bar{x} = 3.3$ | READ BRACKETED LIST | Extremely.....1 | 5.8 | | | | | | |
| | | Very Much.....2 | 16.7 | | | | | | |
| | | Somewhat.....3 | 35.9 | | | | | | |
| | | Just a little, or.....4 | 23.4 | | | | | | |
| | | Not at all.....5 | 18.2 | | | | | | |
| | | DOES NOT SHOP (skip to Q. 11)..6 | (1.4) | | | | | | |
| | | | 65 | | | | | | |
| 8. How frequently do you shop for these kinds of products? Would you say... | | | | | | | | | |
| $\bar{x} = 3.01$ | READ BRACKETED LIST | Nearly every day.....1 | 1.2 | | | | | | |
| | | Several times a week.....2 | 3.6 | | | | | | |
| | | About once per week... ..3 | 22.5 | | | | | | |
| | | Once or a few times a . . .4 | 44.7 | | | | | | |
| | | Less than once per month . .5 | 21.7 | | | | | | |
| | | DOES NOT SHOP (skip to . .6 | (1.4) | | | | | | |
| | | | 66 | | | | | | |

Figure 10-13 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)

9. When you shop for food and common household products, how often do you use coupons? Would you say...

\bar{x} = 2.96

READ
BRACKETED
LIST

| | | |
|---------------------------|------|----|
| Nearly all the time.....1 | 21.4 | 67 |
| Most of the time.....2 | 13.8 | |
| Some of the time.....3 | 26.5 | |
| Hardly ever, or.....4 | 19.2 | |
| Never?.....5 | 17.0 | |

10. In general, when new food and common household products first appear on the market which of the following best describes when you are likely to buy the item. Would you say:

\bar{x} = 3.39

READ
BRACKETED
LIST

| | | |
|---|-------|----|
| You are among the very first to buy it.....1 | 5.6 | 68 |
| You buy before the majority of people.....2 | 10.4 | |
| You buy at about the same time as most people.3 | 40.9 | |
| You buy somewhat after most people, or.....4 | 20.4 | |
| You buy much later than most people?.....5 | 22.6 | |
| DON'T KNOW.....6 | (3.6) | |

11. Next, we would like to ask you how often you personally use a few products. For each product, please tell me if you use it at least once a day, a few times a week, about once a week, 2 or 3 times a month, about once a month, once every few months, or less often?

| START AT X | At-least once a day | Few times a week | About once a week | 2-3 times a month | About once a month | Once every few months | Less often | |
|--|---------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|------------|----|
| () Coffee \bar{x} = 2.63 | 66.7 | 4.0 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 2.3 | .8 | 22.8 | 69 |
| Frozen entrees and main dishes \bar{x} = 4.74 | 6.9 | 14.3 | 12.6 | 10.9 | 11.3 | 6.6 | 37.2 | |
| Diet soft drinks \bar{x} = 4.51 | 24.2 | 13.3 | 5.8 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 2.1 | 19.6 | |
| () Beer \bar{x} = 5.07 | 8.6 | 13.0 | 10.7 | 6.0 | 5.6 | 4.4 | 51.8 | |
| Breakfast cereals \bar{x} = 3.02 | 36.1 | 22.7 | 9.1 | 6.9 | 4.3 | 2.7 | 18.3 | 73 |

12. Using a 7 point scale in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, please tell me to what extent you make a conscious effort to try new products in each of the following categories: You may use any number between 1 and 7. [DO NOT READ PRODUCT IF RESPONDENT SAID "LESS OFTEN" TO IT IN Q. 11]

| START AT X | NEVER | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | DON'T KNOW | |
|--|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------------|----|
| () Coffee \bar{x} = 3.01 | 34.6 | 17.4 | 12.8 | 10.1 | 8.8 | 6.1 | 10.3 | (.4) | | 74 |
| Frozen entrees and main dishes \bar{x} = 3.69 | 17.8 | 13.7 | 14.1 | 17.0 | 19.9 | 8.7 | 8.7 | (.3) | | |
| Diet soft drinks \bar{x} = 3.81 | 21.9 | 13.1 | 13.1 | 9.8 | 13.9 | 13.1 | 15.2 | (.4) | | |
| () Beer \bar{x} = 3.03 | 30.6 | 21.2 | 10.2 | 13.1 | 10.5 | 6.4 | | | | |
| Breakfast cereals \bar{x} = 3.71 | 21.9 | 14.2 | 11.7 | 12.9 | 14.2 | 12.8 | 1 | (.3) | | 78 |

Figure 10-14 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)

13. Again, using the 7 point scale in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, how often do you find out about new products in each of the following categories BEFORE most other people? [READ ALL PRODUCTS]

| START AT X | NEVER | | | | | | VERY FREQ. | DON'T KNOW | |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|-----|
| () Coffee X = 2.95 | 1 34.8 | 2 15.7 | 3 12.0 | 4 13.3 | 5 11.7 | 6 6.3 | 7 6.2 | 8 (3.2) | 79 |
| Frozen entrees and main dishes X = 2.88 | 1 34.3 | 2 15.2 | 3 14.1 | 4 14.3 | 5 12.4 | 6 5.8 | 7 3.9 | 8 (3.2) | 80 |
| Diet soft drinks X = 2.94 | 1 39.3 | 2 12.8 | 3 9.1 | 4 13.7 | 5 10.7 | 6 7.7 | 7 6.8 | 8 (3.0) | 2/6 |
| () Beer X = 2.47 | 1 52.5 | 2 10.4 | 3 7.5 | 4 10.3 | 5 9.8 | 6 5.2 | 7 4.3 | 8 (3.0) | 7 |
| Breakfast cereals X = 3.49 | 1 26.2 | 2 11.6 | 3 12.1 | 4 14.5 | 5 16.4 | 6 10.8 | 7 8.4 | 8 (2.5) | 8 |

14. Using the same 7 point scale, in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, please tell me how often you provide other people with specific information on products in each of the following categories? [READ ALL PRODUCTS]

| START AT X | NEVER | | | | | | VERY FREQ. | DON'T KNOW | |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|------------|------------|----|
| () Coffee X = 2.75 | 1 40.5 | 2 14.6 | 3 13.2 | 4 10.7 | 5 9.4 | 6 6.7 | 7 5.9 | 8 (.4) | 9 |
| Frozen entrees and main dishes X = 2.56 | 1 45.9 | 2 12.4 | 3 12.1 | 4 11.0 | 5 10.2 | 6 4.7 | 7 3.8 | 8 (.4) | |
| Diet soft drinks X = 2.60 | 1 48.0 | 2 11.5 | 3 10.5 | 4 10.5 | 5 7.8 | 6 5.4 | 7 6.4 | 8 (.8) | |
| () Beer X = 2.20 | 1 60.7 | 2 9.4 | 3 6.8 | 4 8.0 | 5 6.4 | 6 4.5 | 7 4.2 | 8 (.4) | |
| Breakfast cereals X = 2.95 | 1 38.5 | 2 12.0 | 3 11.7 | 4 11.6 | 5 12.4 | 6 6.8 | 7 7.0 | 8 (.3) | 13 |

15. We are interested in how important each of the following sources of information is to you in finding out about new food and common household items. Again, using a 7 point scale, where 1 is NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT and 7 is VERY IMPORTANT, please tell me how important each source is to you.

| START AT X | HOW IMPORTANT IS | NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | | | | | VERY IMPORTANT | DON'T KNOW | |
|-------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------------|------------|----|
| () Free samples X = 5.0 | 1 10.1 | 2 8.7 | 3 7.9 | 4 7.7 | 5 13.0 | 6 15.6 | 7 37.1 | 8 | 14 |
| Magazines X = 4.25 | 1 12.2 | 2 11.3 | 3 10.1 | 4 14.9 | 5 21.7 | 6 16.6 | 7 13.2 | 8 | |
| Newspapers X = 4.64 | 1 8.3 | 2 8.5 | 3 11.1 | 4 14.2 | 5 18.7 | 6 19.5 | 7 19.8 | 8 | |
| () Radio X = 3.94 | 1 19.0 | 2 10.6 | 3 13.6 | 4 12.2 | 5 18.1 | 6 11.6 | 7 14.9 | 8 | |
| Television X = 4.67 | 1 9.6 | 2 8.4 | 3 9.5 | 4 13.0 | 5 19.7 | 6 17.1 | 7 22.6 | 8 (.1) | |
| () Salespeople X = 2.79 | 1 38.7 | 2 17.9 | 3 11.4 | 4 9.5 | 5 9.9 | 6 4.4 | 7 7.8 | 8 (.5) | |
| Relatives/friends X = 4.86 | 1 7.1 | 2 6.5 | 3 8.4 | 4 14.2 | 5 21.2 | 6 19.9 | 7 | 8 | |
| Browsing/shopping X = 4.56 | 1 10.3 | 2 7.1 | 3 9.2 | 4 15.3 | 5 23.0 | 6 18. | 7 | 8 | 21 |

Figure 10-15 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)

16. Every year thousands of new products are offered for sale. As I read you a list of some new products please tell me whether or not you have heard of each one? (IF RESPONDENT HAS HEARD OF THE BRAND, ASK IF HE/SHE HAS TRIED IT).

| START AT X | Brand Names | Heard of? | | | Have you tried it? | | | |
|------------|--------------------|-----------|----------|-----|--------------------|-----------|----------|----|
| | | NO | NOT SURE | YES | YES | NO | NOT SURE | |
| () | Lean Cuisine | 1 20.5 | 2 .5 | → | 3 33.4 | 4 44.9 | 5 .6 | 22 |
| | Diet Sprite | 1 10.0 | 2 .5 | → | 3 46.2 | 4 42.7 | 5 .5 | |
| | Post Fruit & Fiber | 1 13.5 | 2 .3 | → | 3 29.6 | 4 55.5 | 5 1.0 | |
| () | L.A. | 1 62.1 | 2 1.3 | → | 3 6.8 | 4 29.7 | 5 .1 | |
| | Respit | 1 94.8 | 2 1.2 | → | 3 .4 | 4 3.3 | 5 .4 | |
| | Master Blend | 1 24.2 | 2 1.7 | — | 3 28.6 | 4 44.1 | 5 1.3 | 27 |

17. Now we'd like to ask you a few questions about the magazines you read. What magazines, if any, do you read or look into regularly, that is, at least 3 out of the last 4 issues? [PROBE: What else?]
 [AFTER ALL MAGAZINES RECORDED, THEN ASK:] As I repeat the list of magazines that you read, please tell me whether you subscribe to each one. [IF RESPONDENT SUBSCRIBES, CIRCLE THE "1" UNDER "SUBSCRIBE".]

| | | Subscrib | |
|----|-------|----------|-------|
| A. | _____ | 1 | 28-30 |
| B. | _____ | 1 | 31-33 |
| C. | _____ | 1 | 34-36 |
| D. | _____ | 1 | 37-39 |
| E. | _____ | 1 | 40-42 |
| F. | _____ | 1 | 43-45 |
| G. | _____ | 1 | 46-48 |
| H. | _____ | 1 | 49-51 |

CHECK IF RESPONDENT DOES NOT SUBSCRIBE TO ANY MAGAZINES

IF RESPONDENT DID NOT NAME CONSUMER REPORTS IN Q. 17. ASK Q. 17A. OTHERWISE, SKIP TO Q. 18.

17A. During the past year about how many issues of Consumer Reports, if any, have you looked into or read? Would you say...

| | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|---|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | None..... | 1 | 52 |
| | 1 or 2 issues..... | 2 | |
| | 3 to 6 issues..... | 3 | |
| | 7 to 9 issues, or..... | 4 | |
| | 10 to 12 issues?..... | 5 | |
| | NEVER HEARD OF IT..... | 6 | |

Figure 10-16 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)

18. In general, if you saw the same ad appearing in two different types of magazines:

| | | |
|---------------------------|--|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { Would you react the same way, or...1 would you react differently!.....2 DON'T KNOW.....3 | 53 |
|---------------------------|--|----|

[IF RESPONDENT DOESN'T UNDERSTAND "REACT," REPLACE WITH "FEEL".]

RESPONSES TO VERSION 1 (CONTINUED)

18A. Now let me ask you about a specific instance. Think about...

START
AT X

- () A newsweekly, such as Time or Newsweek,
and
- () A woman's magazine, such as Family Circle or
Good Housekeeping.

If you saw the same ad for a new food or common household product in both types of magazines would you have...

| | | |
|---------------------------|---|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { the same reaction, or (skip to Q. 19A).....1 67.6 a different reaction. (go to Q. 18B).....2 25.4 DON'T KNOW (skip to Q. 19A).....3 7.0 | 54 |
|---------------------------|---|----|

18B. Would you react more favorably to the ad if it were in...

START
AT X

| | | |
|---------------------------|--|----|
| READ BRACKETED LIST | { () A newsweekly.....1 31.1 or () A woman's magazine.....2 60.7 DON'T KNOW.....3 8.2 | 55 |
|---------------------------|--|----|

Of those who would have a different reaction (n= 196)

19A. Including daytime and evening hours, on a typical weekday — Monday through Friday — how many hours of television, including cable and VCR time, do you watch on the average?

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
|--|--|

56.57

19B. Including daytime and evening hours on a typical day during the weekend — Saturday or Sunday — how many hours of television do you watch on the average?

| | |
|--|--|
| | |
|--|--|

58.59

Figure 10-17 Feick and Price (1987) Questionnaire (Food And General Household Products Variant)

10.2 Appendix Two - De Vita (1997) Questionnaire

Market Maven / Diffusion Survey 1

ID[][][]

Postcode MK[4]

Date [][][95]

Start Time []

Recall Time []

Finish Time []

Market Maven Study

Hello, my name is _____. I am working on a nationwide study about shopping patterns that is being conducted by researchers at Cranfield University.

I would like to ask you some questions about how you find out about new products and how you shop.

(IF ASKED HOW LONG INTERVIEW WILL TAKE, SAY: "only about 10 minutes.")

NOTES.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Figure 10-18 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opening Statement)

Q1. In general, to what extent would you say that you enjoy shopping? Would you say...

- Extremely []1
 Very Much []2
 Somewhat []3
 Just a little []4
 Not at all []5

Q2. In your household, who has most of the responsibility for shopping?

- Do you?..... []1
 Does someone else?..... []2
 Do you share responsibility with someone else?.. []3

Q3. For each of the following statements please tell me the extent that you agree or disagree with the statement using a seven point scale, where 1 is STRONGLY DISAGREE and 7 is STRONGLY AGREE. Please circle the number.

| | | Strongly Disagree | | Strongly Agree | | Don't Know | | | |
|----|---|----------------------|---|-------------------|---|---------------|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| A) | I enjoy trying different brands of frequently purchased products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| B) | I like introducing new brands and products to my friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| C) | I often read advertisements just out of curiosity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| D) | I find out about new products sooner than most other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| E) | I am the kind of person who would try any new product once. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| F) | I like helping people by providing them with information about many kinds of products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| G) | People ask me for information about products, places to shop or sales. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| H) | I read advertisements because they are a good source of information about new products. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |

Figure 10-19 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)

Market Maven / Diffusion Survey 3

- I) Magazine advertisements are more useful than TV advertisements in finding out about specific features of products. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- J) If someone asked where to get the best buy on several types of products, I could tell him or her where to shop. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- K) My friends think of me as a good source of information when it comes to new products or sales. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- L) I usually try a new product shortly after I learn that it is on the market. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Q4. In the next few questions, we would like you to talk about the products / service you are interested in. Some people are very knowledgeable about a particular kind of product / service. For example, some people know a lot about food, health or electronic products. What particular types of product or products do you know a lot about? (Please write them down in the spaces provided below.)

.....

 None..... []1

Q5. Of the products you have written down, which one are you most knowledgeable about?

.....

Q6. Do you think that you ever influence other people in their purchase of or opinions about the product / service which you consider most knowledgeable about?

Yes..... []1
 Not Sure..... []2
 No..... []3

Q7. Thinking now just of the product / service you mentioned (repeat answer to Q5) please tell me the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements, using the 1 to 7 scale you used before, where 1 is STRONGLY DISAGREE and 7 is STRONGLY AGREE. Please circle the number.

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|--|-------------------|---|----------------|---|------------|---|
| | | Strongly Disagree | | Strongly Agree | | Don't Know | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| A) | I usually find out about new brands or models of this product / service sooner than most people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Figure 10-20 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)

Market Maven / Diffusion Survey 4

- B) I make a conscious effort to try new brands or models. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- C) I like to talk about this kind of product. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- D) I provide other people with specific information about products of this type. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- E) People come to me for information on this product more often than to other people. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- Q8. Do you know someone, other than yourself, who is very knowledgeable about a particular type of product? (Please Tick)
 Yes (continue with Q9) []1
 No (skip to Q. 12) []2
- Q9. What particular types of product or products does this person know a lot about? Please write them down in the spaces provided below.

- Q10. Now, on a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT and 7 is VERY IMPORTANT, how important is this person to you for finding out about new brands or models for this / these type of product(s). Please circle the number.
- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|--|---------------|----------------------|
| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | | | | | | VERY IMPORTANT | | DON'T KNOW | DON'T USE PRODUCT |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 | 9 |
- Q11. Again using the 1 to 7 scale, how important is this person to you in evaluating different brands or models of this type of product? Please circle the number.
- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|--|--------------|----------------------|
| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | | | | | | VERY IMPORTANT | | DONT KNOW | DON'T USE PRODUCT |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 | 9 |

Figure 10-21 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)

Q12. "Think about a person who has information about a variety of products and likes to share this information with others. This person knows about new products and likes to share this information with others. This person knows about new products, sales, stores, and so on, but does not necessarily feel he or she is an expert on one particular product." On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is NOT AT ALL LIKE YOU and 7 is VERY MUCH LIKE YOU. I'd like you to tell me how well this description fits you. Please circle the number.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|--------------|--|--------------|--|
| NOT AT ALL WELL | | | | | | | VERY WELL | | DONT KNOW | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | | 8 | |

Q13. Do you know someone other than yourself, who has information about a variety of products, stores, sales etc. and likes to share this general information with others?

Yes (continue with Q14) []1
 No (skip to Q.18) []2

Q14. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 is NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT and 7 is VERY IMPORTANT, how important is this person to you for finding out about new brands or models? Please circle the number.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|--|--------------|--|
| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | | | | | | | VERY IMPORTANT | | DONT KNOW | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | | 8 | |

Q15. Again, using the 1 to 7 scale, how important is this person to you in evaluating different brands or models?

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|--|--------------|--|
| NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | | | | | | | VERY IMPORTANT | | DONT KNOW | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | | 8 | |

Q16. Do you also think of this person as being very knowledgeable about a particular type of product?

Yes (Continue with Q.17)..... []1
 No (Skip to Q.18)..... []2
 Not Sure / Don't know (Skip to Q.18).. []3

Q17. What particular type of product or products is this person very knowledgeable about? (Please write them down in the spaces provided below.)

.....

Figure 10-22 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Opinion Leadership, Early Adopter & Market Maven Section)

Q18. In the next set of questions, we'd like to ask you specifically about food products. In particular, to what extent do you enjoy shopping for food products? Would you say....

- Extremely 1
- Very Much 2
- Somewhat 3
- Just a little 4
- Not at all 5

Q19. How frequently do you shop for these kinds of products? Would you say...

- Nearly every day..... 1
- Several times a week..... 2
- About once per week..... 3
- Once or a few times a month..... 4
- Less than once per month..... 5

Q20. When you shop for food products, how often do you use coupons? Would you say

- Nearly all the time. 1
- Most of the time.... 2
- Some of the time.... 3
- Hardly ever..... 4
- Never..... 5

Q21. In general, when new food products first appear on the market, which of the following best describes when you are likely to buy the item. Would you say:

- You are among the very first to buy it..... 1
- You buy before the majority of people..... 2
- You buy about the same time as most people..... 3
- You buy somewhat after most people..... 4
- You buy much later than most people..... 5
- You don't know..... 6

Q22. Next we would like to ask you how often you personally use a few products. For each product, please tell me if you use it at least once a day, a few times a week, about once a week, 2 or 3 times a month, about once a month, once every few months, or less often? Please circle the number

| | At least once a day | Few times a week | About once a week | 2-3 times a month | About once a month | Once every few months | Less often | Never |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|
| A) Dry Pasta Products | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| B) Tinned Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |

Figure 10-23 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Pasta And Related Food Products Section)

Market Maven / Diffusion Survey 7

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| C) | Cook Chilled Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| D) | Pizza | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| E) | Fresh Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| F) | Pasta Sauce | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |

Q23. Using a 7 point scale in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, please tell me to what extent you make a conscious effort to try new products in each of the following categories. Please circle the number.

| | | NEVER | | | | | | | VERY FREQ. | DONT KNOW |
|----|--------------------|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------|--------------|
| A) | Dry Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| B) | Tinned Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| C) | Cook Chilled Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| D) | Pizza | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| E) | Fresh Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| F) | Pasta Sauce | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |

Q24. Again, using the 7 point scale in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, how often do you find out about new products in each of the following categories BEFORE most other people? Please circle the number.

| | | NEVER | | | | | | | VERY FREQ. | DONT KNOW |
|----|--------------------|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------|--------------|
| A) | Dry Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| B) | Tinned Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| C) | Cook Chilled Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| D) | Pizza | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| E) | Fresh Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| F) | Pasta Sauce | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |

Figure 10-24 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Pasta And Related Food Products Section)

Q25. Using the same 7 point scale in which 1 is NEVER and 7 is VERY FREQUENTLY, how often do you provide other people with specific information on products in each of the following categories? Please circle the number.

| | | NEVER | | | | | | | VERY FREQ. | DON'T KNOW |
|----|-----------------------|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------|---------------|
| A) | Dry Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| B) | Tinned Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| C) | Cook Chilled Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| D) | Pizza | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| E) | Fresh Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| F) | Pasta Sauce | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |

Q26. We are interested in how important each of the following sources of information is to you in finding out about new food items. Again using a 7 point scale, where 1 is NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT and 7 is VERY IMPORTANT, please tell me how important each source is to you. Please circle the number.

| | | NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT | | | | | | | VERY IMPORTANT | DON'T KNOW |
|----|---------------------|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|---------------|
| A) | Free samples | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| B) | Magazines | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| C) | Newspapers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| D) | Radio | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| E) | Television | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| F) | Salespeople | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| G) | Relatives / Friends | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |
| H) | Browsing / Shopping | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | 8 |

Figure 10-25 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Pasta And Related Food Products Section)

Q27. Every year thousands of new products are offered for sale. As I read you a list of some new products, please tell me whether or not you have heard of and / or tried each one. Please circle the number.

| BRAND NAMES | HEARD OF IT? | | | HAVE YOU TRIED IT? | | |
|--|--------------|----------|-----|--------------------|----------|-----|
| | NO | NOT SURE | YES | NO | NOT SURE | YES |
| A) Barilla Cannelloni | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| B) Raga' Pasta Sauce | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C) Batchelors Pasta 'n' Sauce | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D) 'La Favola' Egg Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| E) Lean Cuisine Chicken and Broccoli Pasta | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| F) Dolmio Tagliatelle Carbonara | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Q28. Now we'd like to ask you a few questions about the magazines you read. What magazines, if any, do you read or look into regularly, that is at least 3 out of the last 4 issues?

- | | |
|---------|------------|
| A | D |
| B | E |
| C | F NONE [] |

Q29. During the past year about how many issues of Which Magazine, if any, have you looked into or read? Would you say...

- None.....[]1
- 1 or 2 issues.....[]2
- 3 to 6 issues.....[]3
- 7 to 9 issues.....[]4
- 10 to 12 issues.....[]5

Q30. Including daytime and evening hours, on a typical weekday - Monday to Friday - how many hours of television, including cable and VCR time, do you watch on average? []

Q31. Including daytime and evening hours, on a typical day during the weekend - Saturday or Sunday - how many hours of television, including cable and VCR time, do you watch on average? []

Figure 10-26 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (General Media Patterns)

Q32. For each of the following statements please tell me the extent that you agree or disagree with the statement using a seven point scale, where 1 is STRONGLY DISAGREE and 7 is STRONGLY AGREE. Please circle the number.

| | Strongly Disagree | | | | Strongly Agree | | Don't Know | |
|--|----------------------|---|---|---|-------------------|---|---------------|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| A) Foods which I first encountered on foreign travels have become part of my day to day diet. | | | | | | | | |
| B) I find friends from differing ethnic backgrounds to myself to be a good source of new culinary ideas. | | | | | | | | |
| C) I now regularly prepare dishes that I first saw on a TV programme. | | | | | | | | |
| D) I eat in restaurants because they provide me with ideas for meals I then prepare at home. | | | | | | | | |
| E) I consider magazines and newspapers to be an invaluable source of information for new recipes. | | | | | | | | |

FINAL SECTION

Finally, we would like to ask you a few questions about yourself. I would like to emphasize that all of your responses are completely confidential and are for statistical / research purposes only.

Q33. First, please indicate your age group.

| | | | |
|----------|------|-------------|------|
| Under 25 | []1 | 45 to 49 | []6 |
| 25 to 29 | []2 | 50 to 54 | []7 |
| 30 to 34 | []3 | 55 to 59 | []8 |
| 35 to 39 | []4 | 60 and over | []9 |
| 40 to 44 | []5 | | |

Q34. Are you currently? (Tick more than one if applicable.)

| | |
|--------------------------------|------|
| In Full - time employment..... | []1 |
| In Part - time employment..... | []2 |
| In Full - time education..... | []3 |
| In Part - time education..... | []4 |
| Unemployed..... | []5 |
| Other (State)..... | []6 |

Figure 10-27 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Food Influencing Factor Section)

Q35. If you are in full or part - time employment could you please tell me your job title and the industry in which you work.

Job Title..... Industry.....

Q36. What is your marital status? (Prompt only if necessary)

| | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------|------|
| Single | (Skip to Q.38) | []1 |
| Married (First Marriage) | (Continue with Q.37) | []2 |
| Re-married | (Continue with Q.37) | []3 |
| Cohabiting | (Continue with Q.37) | []4 |
| Divorced (Decree Absolute) | (Skip to Q.38) | []5 |
| Separated | (Skip to Q.38) | []6 |
| Widowed | (Skip to Q.38) | []7 |

Q37. Is your spouse / partner employed?

Yes, Full - Time []1
 Yes, Part - Time []2
 No.....[]3

Q38. Including yourself, how many people live in your household? []

Q39. How many household members are children under the age of 18? []

Q40. What was the highest level of education you completed?

| | |
|---------------------------------|------|
| Secondary School Education..... | []1 |
| 6th Form College..... | []2 |
| F.E. College..... | []3 |
| University..... | []4 |
| Other (please state)..... | []5 |

Q41. Have you obtained any of the following qualifications? (Tick more than one if applicable.)

| | | | |
|---------------------------|------|--|-------|
| HNC..... | []1 | Nursing Qualification..... | []7 |
| HND..... | []2 | Teaching Qualification..... | []8 |
| Degree..... | []3 | Professional / Vocational Qualification..... | []9 |
| Postgraduate Diploma..... | []4 | Other (State)..... | []10 |
| Masters Degree..... | []5 | None..... | []11 |
| PhD..... | []6 | | |

Q42. Which is your country of birth?

| | |
|-------------------------------|------|
| England..... | []1 |
| Scotland..... | []2 |
| Wales..... | []3 |
| Northern Ireland..... | []4 |
| Irish Republic..... | []5 |
| Elsewhere (Please State)..... | []6 |

Figure 10-28 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions)

Q43. How would you categorise yourself in ethnic terms? (Prompt only if necessary.)

| | | | |
|---------------------------------|------|------------------------|------|
| White..... | []1 | Pakistani..... | []6 |
| Black Caribbean..... | []2 | Bangladeshi..... | []7 |
| Black African..... | []3 | Chinese..... | []8 |
| Black Other (Please State)..... | []4 | Any other ethnic group | |
| Indian..... | []5 | (Please state)..... | []9 |

Q44. Are you male or Female?

Male....[]1 Female..[]2

Q45. Is your total annual household income...

Under £10,000.....[]1
 £10,000 to £14,999.....[]2
 £15,000 to £19,999.....[]3
 £20,000 to £24,999 []4
 £25,000 to £29,999.....[]5
 £30,000 to £34,999 []6
 Over £35,000.....[]7

Thank you very much for your co-operation., we greatly appreciate it. Are there any questions you wish to ask us?

Figure 10-29 De Vita (1997) Questionnaire (Demographic / Classification Questions)

10.3 Appendix Three - Construct Validity Data

| FACTOR ANALYSIS | | | | | | | |
|--|---------|---------|--|----------|---------|---------|---------|
| Analysis number 1 Listwise deletion of cases with missing values | | | | | | | |
| | Mean | Std Dev | Label | | | | |
| Q3B | 3.19626 | 1.91578 | I like introducing new brands and produc | | | | |
| Q3F | 3.28972 | 1.85639 | I like helping people by providing them | | | | |
| Q3G | 3.22897 | 1.96899 | People ask me for information about prod | | | | |
| Q3J | 3.83178 | 1.91356 | If someone asked where to ge the best bu | | | | |
| Q3K | 3.27570 | 1.87238 | My friends think of me as a good source | | | | |
| Q12 | 4.07477 | 1.65697 | How well do you fit the general Market M | | | | |
| Q6 | 1.49533 | .66958 | Ever influence others about the product | | | | |
| Q7C | 4.88785 | 1.78584 | I like to talk about this kind of produc | | | | |
| Q7D | 4.85981 | 1.80738 | I provide other people with specific inf | | | | |
| Q7E | 4.65421 | 1.89689 | People come to me for information on thi | | | | |
| Q4 | .00467 | .06836 | What type of product or products do you | | | | |
| Number of Cases = 214 | | | | | | | |
| Correlation Matrix: | | | | | | | |
| | Q3B | Q3F | Q3G | Q3J | Q3K | Q12 | Q6 |
| Q3B | 1.00000 | | | | | | |
| Q3F | .59646 | 1.00000 | | | | | |
| Q3G | .52695 | .65609 | 1.00000 | | | | |
| Q3J | .55461 | .56226 | .67815 | 1.00000 | | | |
| Q3K | .59345 | .61579 | .77871 | .79266 | 1.00000 | | |
| Q12 | .33256 | .34702 | .28109 | .33122 | .29144 | 1.00000 | |
| Q6 | -.14934 | -.20287 | -.30009 | -.19115 | -.24425 | -.11817 | 1.00000 |
| Q7C | .19309 | .21802 | .24633 | .20053 | .21990 | .15040 | -.32632 |
| Q7D | .15442 | .36897 | .24125 | .29586 | .24871 | .19634 | -.34969 |
| Q7E | .18284 | .32190 | .27144 | .27104 | .32571 | .15913 | -.42267 |
| Q4 | -.04289 | .02628 | .02689 | -.06574 | -.04679 | .07980 | -.05081 |
| | Q7C | Q7D | Q7E | Q4 | | | |
| Q7C | 1.00000 | | | | | | |
| Q7D | .66710 | 1.00000 | | | | | |
| Q7E | .50406 | .73896 | 1.00000 | | | | |
| Q4 | .00431 | .04333 | .04873 | 1.00000 | | | |
| Determinant of Correlation Matrix = | | | | .0047365 | | | |

Table 10-1 Factor Analysis

- - - - - F A C T O R A N A L Y S I S - - - - -

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = .79748

Bartlett Test of Sphericity = 1115.9875, Significance = .00000

1-tailed Significance of Correlation Matrix:

' . ' is printed for diagonal elements.

| | Q3B | Q3F | Q3G | Q3J | Q3K |
|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Q3B | . | | | | |
| Q3F | .00000 | . | | | |
| Q3G | .00000 | .00000 | . | | |
| Q3J | .00000 | .00000 | .00000 | . | |
| Q3K | .00000 | .00000 | .00000 | .00000 | . |
| Q12 | .00000 | .00000 | .00002 | .00000 | .00001 |
| Q6 | .01448 | .00143 | .00000 | .00251 | .00016 |
| Q7C | .00229 | .00067 | .00014 | .00161 | .00060 |
| Q7D | .01193 | .00000 | .00018 | .00001 | .00012 |
| Q7E | .00366 | .00000 | .00003 | .00003 | .00000 |
| Q4 | .26632 | .35115 | .34783 | .16924 | .24797 |

| | Q12 | Q6 | Q7C | Q7D | Q7E |
|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Q12 | . | | | | |
| Q6 | .04230 | . | | | |
| Q7C | .01391 | .00000 | . | | |
| Q7D | .00197 | .00000 | .00000 | . | |
| Q7E | .00993 | .00000 | .00000 | .00000 | . |
| Q4 | .12254 | .22985 | .47499 | .26422 | .23915 |

| | Q4 |
|----|----|
| Q4 | . |

Extraction 1 for analysis 1, Principal Components Analysis (PC)

Table 10-2 Factor Analysis Cont.

- - - - - F A C T O R A N A L Y S I S - - - - -

Initial Statistics:

| Variable | Communality | * | Factor | Eigenvalue | Pct of Var | Cum Pct |
|----------|-------------|---|--------|------------|------------|---------|
| | | * | | | | |
| Q3B | 1.00000 | * | 1 | 4.42210 | 40.2 | 40.2 |
| Q3F | 1.00000 | * | 2 | 1.87627 | 17.1 | 57.3 |
| Q3G | 1.00000 | * | 3 | 1.04169 | 9.5 | 66.7 |
| Q3J | 1.00000 | * | 4 | .84515 | 7.7 | 74.4 |
| Q3K | 1.00000 | * | 5 | .72966 | 6.6 | 81.0 |
| Q12 | 1.00000 | * | 6 | .54317 | 4.9 | 86.0 |
| Q6 | 1.00000 | * | 7 | .51110 | 4.6 | 90.6 |
| Q7C | 1.00000 | * | 8 | .41220 | 3.7 | 94.4 |
| Q7D | 1.00000 | * | 9 | .28909 | 2.6 | 97.0 |
| Q7E | 1.00000 | * | 10 | .18184 | 1.7 | 98.7 |
| Q4 | 1.00000 | * | 11 | .14773 | 1.3 | 100.0 |

PC extracted 3 factors.

Factor Matrix:

| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 |
|-----|----------|----------|----------|
| Q3B | .68303 | .37153 | -.01003 |
| Q3F | .77877 | .21983 | .07121 |
| Q3G | .80328 | .29736 | .01350 |
| Q3J | .78850 | .32781 | -.09208 |
| Q3K | .82862 | .33608 | -.08399 |
| Q12 | .45887 | .12883 | .36968 |
| Q6 | -.44984 | .39703 | -.02334 |
| Q7C | .51373 | -.60783 | -.10785 |
| Q7D | .60139 | -.66859 | -.04589 |
| Q7E | .59737 | -.61189 | -.04185 |
| Q4 | .01140 | -.12637 | .93172 |

Final Statistics:

| Variable | Communality | * | Factor | Eigenvalue | Pct of Var | Cum Pct |
|----------|-------------|---|--------|------------|------------|---------|
| | | * | | | | |
| Q3B | .60467 | * | 1 | 4.42210 | 40.2 | 40.2 |
| Q3F | .65987 | * | 2 | 1.87627 | 17.1 | 57.3 |
| Q3G | .73387 | * | 3 | 1.04169 | 9.5 | 66.7 |
| Q3J | .73767 | * | | | | |
| Q3K | .80661 | * | | | | |

Table 10-3 Factor Analysis Cont.

| - - - - - F A C T O R A N A L Y S I S - - - - - | | | | | | |
|---|-------------|----------|------------|------------|---------|--|
| Variable | Communality | * Factor | Eigenvalue | Pct of Var | Cum Pct | |
| Q12 | .36383 | * | | | | |
| Q6 | .36053 | * | | | | |
| Q7C | .64500 | * | | | | |
| Q7D | .81079 | * | | | | |
| Q7E | .73302 | * | | | | |
| Q4 | .88420 | * | | | | |
| VARIMAX rotation 1 for extraction 1 in analysis 1 - Kaiser Normalization. | | | | | | |
| VARIMAX converged in 4 iterations. | | | | | | |
| Rotated Factor Matrix: | | | | | | |
| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | | | |
| Q3B | .77537 | .05853 | .00645 | | | |
| Q3F | .77223 | .22982 | .10354 | | | |
| Q3G | .83574 | .18337 | .04229 | | | |
| Q3J | .84138 | .15945 | -.06583 | | | |
| Q3K | .87943 | .17345 | -.05588 | | | |
| Q12 | .44992 | .10638 | .38740 | | | |
| Q6 | -.16183 | -.57297 | -.07779 | | | |
| Q7C | .10292 | .79575 | -.03458 | | | |
| Q7D | .14264 | .88832 | .03662 | | | |
| Q7E | .16999 | .83832 | .03653 | | | |
| Q4 | -.07245 | .02770 | .93712 | | | |
| Factor Transformation Matrix: | | | | | | |
| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | | | |
| Factor 1 | .83967 | .53965 | .06113 | | | |
| Factor 2 | .54291 | -.83702 | -.06813 | | | |
| Factor 3 | -.01440 | -.09040 | .99580 | | | |

Table 10-4 Rotated Factor Matrix

10.4 Appendix Four - Market Maven Construct Measure Statistics

| Q3B | | I like introducing new brands and products to my friends. | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------|---|----------|---------------|-------------|--|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent | |
| Strongly Disagree | 1 | 113 | 28.3 | 29.4 | 29.4 | |
| Disagree | 2 | 72 | 18.0 | 18.7 | 48.1 | |
| Disagree Somewhat | 3 | 60 | 15.0 | 15.6 | 63.6 | |
| Neither Disagree or Agree Somewhat | 4 | 60 | 15.0 | 15.6 | 79.2 | |
| Agree | 5 | 31 | 7.8 | 8.1 | 87.3 | |
| Strongly Agree | 6 | 29 | 7.3 | 7.5 | 94.8 | |
| | 7 | 20 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 100.0 | |
| | . | 15 | 3.8 | Missing | | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | | |
| Mean | 2.977 | Std err | .093 | Median | 3.000 | |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 1.832 | Variance | 3.356 | |
| Kurtosis | -.666 | S E Kurt | .248 | Skewness | .632 | |
| S E Skew | .124 | Range | 6.000 | Minimum | 1.000 | |
| Maximum | 7.000 | Sum | 1146.000 | | | |
| Valid cases | 385 | Missing cases | 15 | | | |

Table 10-5 Question 3B Statistics

| Q3F | | I like helping people by providing them with information about many kinds of products. | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------|--|----------|---------------|-------------|--|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent | |
| Strongly Disagree | 1 | 97 | 24.3 | 25.1 | 25.1 | |
| Disagree | 2 | 86 | 21.5 | 22.2 | 47.3 | |
| Disagree Somewhat | 3 | 60 | 15.0 | 15.5 | 62.8 | |
| Neither Disagree or Agree Somewhat | 4 | 63 | 15.8 | 16.3 | 79.1 | |
| Agree | 5 | 35 | 8.8 | 9.0 | 88.1 | |
| Strongly Agree | 6 | 26 | 6.5 | 6.7 | 94.8 | |
| | 7 | 20 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 100.0 | |
| | . | 13 | 3.3 | Missing | | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | | |
| Mean | 3.028 | Std err | .091 | Median | 3.000 | |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 1.786 | Variance | 3.188 | |
| Kurtosis | -.609 | S E Kurt | .247 | Skewness | .621 | |
| S E Skew | .124 | Range | 6.000 | Minimum | 1.000 | |
| Maximum | 7.000 | Sum | 1172.000 | | | |
| Valid cases | 387 | Missing cases | 13 | | | |

Table 10-6 Question 3F Statistics

| Q3G | | People ask me for information about products, places to shop or sales. | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------|--|----------|---------------|-------------|--|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent | |
| Strongly Disagree | 1 | 131 | 32.8 | 33.6 | 33.6 | |
| Disagree | 2 | 79 | 19.8 | 20.3 | 53.8 | |
| Disagree Somewhat | 3 | 45 | 11.3 | 11.5 | 65.4 | |
| Neither Disagree or Agree Somewhat | 4 | 56 | 14.0 | 14.4 | 79.7 | |
| Agree | 5 | 27 | 6.8 | 6.9 | 86.7 | |
| Strongly Agree | 6 | 30 | 7.5 | 7.7 | 94.4 | |
| | 7 | 22 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 100.0 | |
| | . | 10 | 2.5 | Missing | | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | | |
| Mean | 2.864 | Std err | .095 | Median | 2.000 | |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 1.885 | Variance | 3.552 | |
| Kurtosis | -.619 | S E Kurt | .247 | Skewness | .744 | |
| S E Skew | .124 | Range | 6.000 | Minimum | 1.000 | |
| Maximum | 7.000 | Sum | 1117.000 | | | |
| Valid cases | 390 | Missing cases | 10 | | | |

Table 10-7 Question 3G Statistics

| Q3J | | If someone asked where to ge the best buy on several types of products, I could tell him or her where to shop. | | | | |
|------------------------------------|--------|--|----------|---------------|-------------|--|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent | |
| Strongly Disagree | 1 | 83 | 20.8 | 21.4 | 21.4 | |
| Disagree | 2 | 62 | 15.5 | 16.0 | 37.5 | |
| Disagree Somewhat | 3 | 63 | 15.8 | 16.3 | 53.7 | |
| Neither Disagree or Agree Somewhat | 4 | 61 | 15.3 | 15.8 | 69.5 | |
| Agree | 5 | 45 | 11.3 | 11.6 | 81.1 | |
| Strongly Agree | 6 | 41 | 10.3 | 10.6 | 91.7 | |
| | 7 | 32 | 8.0 | 8.3 | 100.0 | |
| | . | 13 | 3.3 | Missing | | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | | |
| Mean | 3.450 | Std err | .098 | Median | 3.000 | |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 1.930 | Variance | 3.725 | |
| Kurtosis | -1.061 | S E Kurt | .247 | Skewness | .317 | |
| S E Skew | .124 | Range | 6.000 | Minimum | 1.000 | |
| Maximum | 7.000 | Sum | 1335.000 | | | |
| Valid cases | 387 | Missing cases | 13 | | | |

Table 10-8 Question 3J Statistics

| Q3K | | My friends think of me as a good source of information when it comes to new products or sales. | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------|--|----------|---------------|-------------|--|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent | |
| Strongly Disagree | 1 | 111 | 27.8 | 30.9 | 30.9 | |
| Disagree | 2 | 73 | 18.3 | 20.3 | 51.3 | |
| Disagree Somewhat | 3 | 42 | 10.5 | 11.7 | 63.0 | |
| Neither Disagree or Agree Somewhat | 4 | 59 | 14.8 | 16.4 | 79.4 | |
| Agree | 5 | 26 | 6.5 | 7.2 | 86.6 | |
| Strongly Agree | 6 | 28 | 7.0 | 7.8 | 94.4 | |
| | 7 | 20 | 5.0 | 5.6 | 100.0 | |
| | . | 41 | 10.3 | Missing | | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | | |
| Mean | 2.944 | Std err | .099 | Median | 2.000 | |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 1.869 | Variance | 3.494 | |
| Kurtosis | -.691 | S E Kurt | .257 | Skewness | .667 | |
| S E Skew | .129 | Range | 6.000 | Minimum | 1.000 | |
| Maximum | 7.000 | Sum | 1057.000 | | | |
| Valid cases | 359 | Missing cases | 41 | | | |

Table 10-9 Question 3K Statistics

| Q12 How well do you fit the general Market Maven description? | | | | | | |
|---|-------|---------------|----------|---------------|-------------|--|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent | |
| Not at all well | 1 | 39 | 9.8 | 12.0 | 12.0 | |
| Not well | 2 | 45 | 11.3 | 13.8 | 25.8 | |
| Not particularly wel | 3 | 35 | 8.8 | 10.8 | 36.6 | |
| Neither | 4 | 71 | 17.8 | 21.8 | 58.5 | |
| Somewhat well | 5 | 69 | 17.3 | 21.2 | 79.7 | |
| Well | 6 | 41 | 10.3 | 12.6 | 92.3 | |
| Very well | 7 | 25 | 6.3 | 7.7 | 100.0 | |
| | . | 75 | 18.8 | Missing | | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | | |
| Mean | 3.951 | Std err | .099 | Median | 4.000 | |
| Mode | 4.000 | Std dev | 1.777 | Variance | 3.158 | |
| Kurtosis | -.946 | S E Kurt | .270 | Skewness | -.124 | |
| S E Skew | .135 | Range | 6.000 | Minimum | 1.000 | |
| Maximum | 7.000 | Sum | 1284.000 | | | |
| Valid cases | 325 | Missing cases | 75 | | | |

Table 10-10 Question 12 Statistics

10.5 Appendix Five- Market Maven Construct Reliability Statistics

| R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A) | | | | |
|---|-----|--------|---------|-------|
| | | Mean | Std Dev | Cases |
| 1. | Q3B | 3.0420 | 1.8764 | 286.0 |
| 2. | Q3F | 3.1469 | 1.8674 | 286.0 |
| 3. | Q3G | 2.9825 | 1.9403 | 286.0 |
| 4. | Q3J | 3.5839 | 1.9098 | 286.0 |
| 5. | Q3K | 3.0070 | 1.8296 | 286.0 |
| 6. | Q12 | 3.9650 | 1.7806 | 286.0 |

| Covariance Matrix | | | | | |
|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | Q3B | Q3F | Q3G | Q3J | Q3K |
| Q3B | 3.5210 | | | | |
| Q3F | 2.1587 | 3.4871 | | | |
| Q3G | 1.8920 | 2.3324 | 3.7646 | | |
| Q3J | 2.0175 | 2.0122 | 2.5752 | 3.6473 | |
| Q3K | 2.0629 | 2.1007 | 2.6317 | 2.5959 | 3.3473 |
| Q12 | 1.1173 | 1.1841 | .9889 | 1.2065 | 1.0143 |

| Correlation Matrix | | | | | |
|--------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | Q3B | Q3F | Q3G | Q3J | Q3K |
| Q3B | 1.0000 | | | | |
| Q3F | .6161 | 1.0000 | | | |
| Q3G | .5197 | .6437 | 1.0000 | | |
| Q3J | .5630 | .5642 | .6950 | 1.0000 | |
| Q3K | .6009 | .6149 | .7414 | .7429 | 1.0000 |
| Q12 | .3344 | .3561 | .2862 | .3548 | .3113 |

| Q12 | |
|-----|--------|
| Q12 | 3.1707 |

Table 10-11 Market Maven Construct Reliability Statistics

| RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA) | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------------|----------------|---------|----------|
| N of Cases = | | 286.0 | | | | |
| Statistics for Scale | Mean | Variance | Std Dev | N of Variables | | |
| | 19.7273 | 76.7183 | 8.7589 | 6 | | |
| Item Means | Mean | Minimum | Maximum | Range | Max/Min | Variance |
| | 3.2879 | 2.9825 | 3.9650 | .9825 | 1.3294 | .1597 |
| Item Variances | Mean | Minimum | Maximum | Range | Max/Min | Variance |
| | 3.4897 | 3.1707 | 3.7646 | .5939 | 1.1873 | .0447 |
| Inter-item Covariances | Mean | Minimum | Maximum | Range | Max/Min | Variance |
| | 1.8593 | .9889 | 2.6317 | 1.6428 | 2.6613 | .3461 |
| Inter-item Correlations | Mean | Minimum | Maximum | Range | Max/Min | Variance |
| | .5296 | .2862 | .7429 | .4567 | 2.5957 | .0247 |
| Analysis of Variance | | | | | | |
| Source of Variation | Sum of Sq. | DF | Mean Square | F | Prob. | |
| Between People | 3644.1212 | 285 | 12.7864 | | | |
| Within People | 2551.6667 | 1430 | 1.7844 | | | |
| Between Measures | 228.4242 | 5 | 45.6848 | 28.0216 | .0000 | |
| Residual | 2323.2424 | 1425 | 1.6303 | | | |
| Total | 6195.7879 | 1715 | 3.6127 | | | |
| Grand Mean | 3.2879 | | | | | |
| Reliability Coefficients | | 6 items | | | | |
| Alpha = | .8725 | Standardized item alpha = | | .8711 | | |

Table 10-12 Market Maven Construct Reliability Statistics Cont.

| - - - S P E A R M A N C O R R E L A T I O N C O E F F I C I E N T S - - - | | | | | |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Q3F | .6017 | | | | |
| | N(378) | | | | |
| | Sig .000 | | | | |
| Q3G | .5382 | .6348 | | | |
| | N(380) | N(382) | | | |
| | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | | | |
| Q3J | .5559 | .5463 | .6351 | | |
| | N(377) | N(377) | N(381) | | |
| | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | | |
| Q3K | .6039 | .6402 | .7356 | .7233 | |
| | N(351) | N(352) | N(356) | N(355) | |
| | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | |
| Q12 | .3161 | .3576 | .3145 | .3163 | .3232 |
| | N(317) | N(317) | N(319) | N(315) | N(300) |
| | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | Sig .000 | Sig .000 |
| | Q3B | Q3F | Q3G | Q3J | Q3K |
| (Coefficient / (Cases) / 2-tailed Significance) | | | | | |
| " . " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed | | | | | |

Table 10-13 Market Maven Construct Reliability Statistics Continued.

10.6 Appendix Six - Market Maven Scale Data

| MAVEN | | Market Maven Measure | | | |
|-------------|-------|----------------------|---------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 3 | 1 | .3 | .3 | .3 |
| | 4 | 2 | .5 | .5 | .8 |
| | 5 | 13 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 4.0 |
| | 6 | 20 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 9.1 |
| | 7 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 12.1 |
| | 8 | 13 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 15.4 |
| | 9 | 11 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 18.1 |
| | 10 | 20 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 23.2 |
| | 11 | 17 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 27.5 |
| | 12 | 24 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 33.5 |
| | 13 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 35.3 |
| | 14 | 16 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 39.3 |
| | 15 | 19 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 44.1 |
| | 16 | 19 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 48.9 |
| | 17 | 18 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 53.4 |
| | 18 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 56.9 |
| | 19 | 15 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 60.7 |
| | 20 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 64.2 |
| | 21 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 67.3 |
| | 22 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 70.8 |
| | 23 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 73.0 |
| | 24 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 76.1 |
| | 25 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 79.6 |
| | 26 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 82.6 |
| | 27 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 84.4 |
| | 28 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 86.9 |
| | 29 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 89.4 |
| | 30 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 90.4 |
| | 31 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 91.9 |
| | 32 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 92.9 |
| | 33 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 94.5 |
| | 34 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 95.0 |
| | 35 | 5 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 96.2 |
| | 36 | 3 | .8 | .8 | 97.0 |
| | 37 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 97.5 |
| | 38 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 98.5 |
| | 39 | 3 | .8 | .8 | 99.2 |
| | 40 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 99.5 |
| | 42 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 100.0 |
| | . | 3 | .8 | Missing | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

| MAVEN | | Market Maven Measure | | | |
|-------------|--------|----------------------|----------|----------|--------|
| Mean | 17.912 | Std err | .439 | Median | 17.000 |
| Mode | 12.000 | Std dev | 8.737 | Variance | 76.343 |
| Kurtosis | -.445 | S E Kurt | .244 | Skewness | .506 |
| S E Skew | .122 | Range | 39.000 | Minimum | 3.000 |
| Maximum | 42.000 | Sum | 7111.000 | | |
| | | | | | |
| Valid cases | 397 | Missing cases | 3 | | |

Table 10-14 Market Maven Scale Scores

LOWMAVEN Low Market Maven Category

| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
|-------------|--------|-----------|----------|---------------|-------------|
| | 6 | 20 | 5.0 | 16.1 | 16.1 |
| | 7 | 12 | 3.0 | 9.7 | 25.8 |
| | 8 | 13 | 3.3 | 10.5 | 36.3 |
| | 9 | 11 | 2.8 | 8.9 | 45.2 |
| | 10 | 20 | 5.0 | 16.1 | 61.3 |
| | 11 | 17 | 4.3 | 13.7 | 75.0 |
| | 12 | 24 | 6.0 | 19.4 | 94.4 |
| | 13 | 7 | 1.8 | 5.6 | 100.0 |
| | . | 276 | 69.0 | Missing | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| Mean | 9.460 | Std err | .203 | Median | 10.000 |
| Mode | 12.000 | Std dev | 2.265 | Variance | 5.128 |
| Kurtosis | -1.270 | S E Kurt | .431 | Skewness | -.198 |
| S E Skew | .217 | Range | 7.000 | Minimum | 6.000 |
| Maximum | 13.000 | Sum | 1173.000 | | |
| Valid cases | 124 | | | | |

Table 10-15 Market Maven "Low" Category Scores

| MEDMAVEN Medium Maven Category | | | | | |
|--|--------|-----------|----------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 14 | 16 | 4.0 | 12.6 | 12.6 |
| | 15 | 19 | 4.8 | 15.0 | 27.6 |
| | 16 | 19 | 4.8 | 15.0 | 42.5 |
| | 17 | 18 | 4.5 | 14.2 | 56.7 |
| | 18 | 14 | 3.5 | 11.0 | 67.7 |
| | 19 | 15 | 3.8 | 11.8 | 79.5 |
| | 20 | 14 | 3.5 | 11.0 | 90.6 |
| | 21 | 12 | 3.0 | 9.4 | 100.0 |
| | . | 273 | 68.3 | Missing | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| Mean | 17.228 | Std err | .198 | Median | 17.000 |
| Mode | 15.000 | Std dev | 2.226 | Variance | 4.955 |
| Kurtosis | -1.155 | S E Kurt | .427 | Skewness | .181 |
| S E Skew | .215 | Range | 7.000 | Minimum | 14.000 |
| Maximum | 21.000 | Sum | 2188.000 | | |
| * Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown. | | | | | |
| Valid cases | 127 | | | | |

Table 10-16 Market Maven "Medium" Category Scores

| HIGHMAVE High Maven Category | | | | | |
|--|--------|-----------|----------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 22 | 14 | 3.5 | 10.8 | 10.8 |
| | 23 | 9 | 2.3 | 6.9 | 17.7 |
| | 24 | 12 | 3.0 | 9.2 | 26.9 |
| | 25 | 14 | 3.5 | 10.8 | 37.7 |
| | 26 | 12 | 3.0 | 9.2 | 46.9 |
| | 27 | 7 | 1.8 | 5.4 | 52.3 |
| | 28 | 10 | 2.5 | 7.7 | 60.0 |
| | 29 | 10 | 2.5 | 7.7 | 67.7 |
| | 30 | 4 | 1.0 | 3.1 | 70.8 |
| | 31 | 6 | 1.5 | 4.6 | 75.4 |
| | 32 | 4 | 1.0 | 3.1 | 78.5 |
| | 33 | 6 | 1.5 | 4.6 | 83.1 |
| | 34 | 2 | .5 | 1.5 | 84.6 |
| | 35 | 5 | 1.3 | 3.8 | 88.5 |
| | 36 | 3 | .8 | 2.3 | 90.8 |
| | 37 | 2 | .5 | 1.5 | 92.3 |
| | 38 | 4 | 1.0 | 3.1 | 95.4 |
| | 39 | 3 | .8 | 2.3 | 97.7 |
| | 40 | 1 | .3 | .8 | 98.5 |
| | 42 | 2 | .5 | 1.5 | 100.0 |
| | . | 270 | 67.5 | Missing | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| Mean | 28.262 | Std err | .447 | Median | 27.000 |
| Mode | 22.000 | Std dev | 5.101 | Variance | 26.024 |
| Kurtosis | -.199 | S E Kurt | .422 | Skewness | .802 |
| S E Skew | .212 | Range | 20.000 | Minimum | 22.000 |
| Maximum | 42.000 | Sum | 3674.000 | | |
| * Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown. | | | | | |
| Valid cases | 130 | | | | |

Table 10-17 Market Maven "High" Category Scores

10.7 Appendix Seven - King & Summers Opinion Leadership Scale Data

| KINGOL King & Summers Opinion Leadership Scale | | | | | |
|--|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 1 | 43 | 10.8 | 11.6 | 11.6 |
| | 2 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.8 | 15.3 |
| | 3 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 17.7 |
| | 4 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 20.2 |
| | 5 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 22.3 |
| | 6 | 5 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 23.7 |
| | 7 | 3 | .8 | .8 | 24.5 |
| | 8 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 25.5 |
| | 9 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 25.8 |
| | 10 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 26.3 |
| | 11 | 3 | .8 | .8 | 27.2 |
| | 12 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 28.8 |
| | 13 | 3 | .8 | .8 | 29.6 |
| | 14 | 5 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 30.9 |
| | 15 | 5 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 32.3 |
| | 16 | 11 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 35.2 |
| | 17 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 37.4 |
| | 18 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 39.2 |
| | 19 | 11 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 42.2 |
| | 20 | 13 | 3.3 | 3.5 | 45.7 |
| | 21 | 11 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 48.7 |
| | 22 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 51.1 |
| | 23 | 5 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 52.4 |
| | 24 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.8 | 56.2 |
| | 25 | 20 | 5.0 | 5.4 | 61.6 |
| | 26 | 16 | 4.0 | 4.3 | 65.9 |
| | 27 | 15 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 69.9 |
| | 28 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 72.6 |
| | 29 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.8 | 76.3 |
| | 30 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 79.6 |
| | 31 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 82.0 |
| | 32 | 11 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 84.9 |
| | 33 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 87.4 |
| | 34 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 88.4 |
| | 35 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.8 | 92.2 |
| | 36 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 94.9 |
| | 37 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 95.4 |
| | 38 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 97.6 |
| | 39 | 3 | .8 | .8 | 98.4 |
| | 40 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 98.9 |
| | 41 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 99.5 |
| | 42 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 100.0 |
| | . | 28 | 7.0 | Missing | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

| KINGOL King & Summers Opinion Leadership Scale | | | | | |
|--|--------|---------------|----------|----------|---------|
| Mean | 19.849 | Std err | .621 | Median | 22.000 |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 11.975 | Variance | 143.390 |
| Kurtosis | -1.132 | S E Kurt | .252 | Skewness | -.281 |
| S E Skew | .126 | Range | 41.000 | Minimum | 1.000 |
| Maximum | 42.000 | Sum | 7384.000 | | |
| Valid cases | 372 | Missing cases | 28 | | |

Table 10-18 King & Summers Opinion Leadership Scale Data

10.8 Appendix Eight - Feick and Price Innovation Measure Broad Product Categories Data

| INNBROAD Innovation Measure - Broad Product Categories Q21 | | | | | |
|--|-------|---------------|---------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 1 | 40 | 10.0 | 15.8 | 15.8 |
| | 2 | 39 | 9.8 | 15.4 | 31.2 |
| | 3 | 118 | 29.5 | 46.6 | 77.9 |
| | 4 | 45 | 11.3 | 17.8 | 95.7 |
| | 5 | 11 | 2.8 | 4.3 | 100.0 |
| | . | 147 | 36.8 | Missing | |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| Mean | 2.794 | Std err | .066 | Median | 3.000 |
| Mode | 3.000 | Std dev | 1.049 | Variance | 1.100 |
| Kurtosis | -.399 | S E Kurt | .305 | Skewness | -.183 |
| S E Skew | .153 | Range | 4.000 | Minimum | 1.000 |
| Maximum | 5.000 | Sum | 707.000 | | |
| Valid cases | 253 | Missing cases | 147 | | |

Table 10-19 Feick and Price Innovation Measure Broad Product Categories Data

10.9 Appendix Nine - Feick and Price Innovation Measure Specific Product Categories Data

| INNSPECI Innovative Measure - Specific Products Q23 | | | | | |
|---|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 1 | 56 | 14.0 | 14.3 | 14.3 |
| | 1 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 17.3 |
| | 1 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 17.6 |
| | 1 | 18 | 4.5 | 4.6 | 22.2 |
| | 2 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 25.3 |
| | 2 | 14 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 28.8 |
| | 2 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 29.1 |
| | 2 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 32.1 |
| | 2 | 22 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 37.8 |
| | 2 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 39.5 |
| | 2 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 39.8 |
| | 2 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 42.9 |
| | 3 | 11 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 45.7 |
| | 3 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 48.2 |
| | 3 | 17 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 52.6 |
| | 3 | 22 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 58.2 |
| | 3 | 16 | 4.0 | 4.1 | 62.2 |
| | 3 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 62.5 |
| | 3 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 65.1 |
| | 3 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 65.3 |
| | 4 | 28 | 7.0 | 7.1 | 72.4 |
| | 4 | 11 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 75.3 |
| | 4 | 18 | 4.5 | 4.6 | 79.8 |
| | 4 | 13 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 83.2 |
| | 4 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 85.5 |
| | 4 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 87.5 |
| | 5 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 89.0 |
| | 5 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 89.3 |
| | 5 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 91.1 |
| | 5 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 91.3 |
| | 5 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 93.6 |
| | 5 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 96.2 |
| | 5 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 97.7 |
| | 5 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 98.0 |
| | 5 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 98.5 |
| | 6 | 3 | .8 | .8 | 99.2 |
| | 6 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 99.5 |
| | 6 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 99.7 |
| | 6 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 100.0 |
| | . | 8 | 2.0 | Missing | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

| INNSPECI Innovative Measure - Specific Products Q | | | | | |
|---|-------|---------------|----------|----------|-------|
| Mean | 2.765 | Std err | .066 | Median | 2.833 |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 1.306 | Variance | 1.704 |
| Kurtosis | -.942 | S E Kurt | .246 | Skewness | .256 |
| S E Skew | .123 | Range | 5.333 | Minimum | 1.000 |
| Maximum | 6.333 | Sum | 1083.900 | | |
| Valid cases | 392 | Missing cases | 8 | | |

Table 10-20 Feick and Price Innovation Measure Specific Product Categories Data

10.10 Appendix Ten - Modified Feick and Price Early Awareness Measure Data

| EARLYAW Early Awareness Measure - Q24 | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 1 | 90 | 22.5 | 29.1 | 29.1 |
| | 1 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 31.1 |
| | 1 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 34.0 |
| | 2 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 35.9 |
| | 2 | 10 | 2.5 | 3.2 | 39.2 |
| | 2 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 41.1 |
| | 2 | 21 | 5.3 | 6.8 | 47.9 |
| | 2 | 11 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 51.5 |
| | 2 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 51.8 |
| | 3 | 3 | .8 | 1.0 | 52.8 |
| | 3 | 7 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 55.0 |
| | 3 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 57.6 |
| | 3 | 19 | 4.8 | 6.1 | 63.8 |
| | 3 | 7 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 66.0 |
| | 3 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 68.6 |
| | 4 | 10 | 2.5 | 3.2 | 71.8 |
| | 4 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 74.4 |
| | 4 | 3 | .8 | 1.0 | 75.4 |
| | 4 | 17 | 4.3 | 5.5 | 80.9 |
| | 4 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.6 | 83.5 |
| | 4 | 3 | .8 | 1.0 | 84.5 |
| | 5 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 85.8 |
| | 5 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 87.7 |
| | 5 | 3 | .8 | 1.0 | 88.7 |
| | 5 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 90.0 |
| | 5 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 90.3 |
| | 5 | 2 | .5 | .6 | 90.9 |
| | 6 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 91.3 |
| | 6 | 3 | .8 | 1.0 | 92.2 |
| | 6 | 2 | .5 | .6 | 92.9 |
| | 6 | 2 | .5 | .6 | 93.5 |
| | 6 | 2 | .5 | .6 | 94.2 |
| | 7 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 95.5 |
| | 7 | 3 | .8 | 1.0 | 96.4 |
| | 7 | 2 | .5 | .6 | 97.1 |
| | 7 | 5 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 98.7 |
| | 7 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 99.0 |
| | 8 | 2 | .5 | .6 | 99.7 |
| | 8 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 100.0 |
| | . | 91 | 22.8 | Missing | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

| EARLYAW Early Awareness Measure - Q24 | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------|---------------|---------|----------|-------|
| Mean | 2.716 | Std err | .099 | Median | 2.167 |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 1.736 | Variance | 3.013 |
| Kurtosis | .074 | S E Kurt | .276 | Skewness | .919 |
| S E Skew | .139 | Range | 6.833 | Minimum | 1.000 |
| Maximum | 7.833 | Sum | 839.167 | | |
| Valid cases | 309 | Missing cases | 91 | | |

Table 10-21 Modified Feick and Price Early Awareness Measure Data

10.11 Appendix Eleven - Early Awareness Measure - Recently Introduced Products Data

| NEWAWARE Early Awareness Measure - Awareness of Recently Introduced Products Q27a - Q27f | | | | | |
|--|-------|---------------|---------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 1 | 25 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 6.3 |
| | 1 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 8.0 |
| | 1 | 25 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 14.3 |
| | 2 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 16.0 |
| | 2 | 35 | 8.8 | 8.8 | 24.8 |
| | 2 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 27.8 |
| | 2 | 53 | 13.3 | 13.3 | 41.0 |
| | 2 | 28 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 48.0 |
| | 2 | 48 | 12.0 | 12.0 | 60.0 |
| | 3 | 32 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 68.0 |
| | 3 | 53 | 13.3 | 13.3 | 81.3 |
| | 3 | 18 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 85.8 |
| | 3 | 57 | 14.3 | 14.3 | 100.0 |
| | | ----- | ----- | ----- | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| Mean | 2.198 | Std err | .029 | Median | 2.333 |
| Mode | 3.000 | Std dev | .589 | Variance | .347 |
| Kurtosis | -.748 | S E Kurt | .243 | Skewness | -.433 |
| S E Skew | .122 | Range | 2.000 | Minimum | 1.000 |
| Maximum | 3.000 | Sum | 879.333 | | |
| Valid cases | 400 | Missing cases | 0 | | |

Table 10-22 Early Awareness Measure - Recently Introduced Products Data

10.12 Appendix Twelve - Information Provision Measure - Pasta and Related Products Data

| IPOTHERS Information Provision Measure - Provision Of Information To Others Q25 | | | | | |
|---|-------|---------------|---------|---------------|-------------|
| Value Label | Value | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cum Percent |
| | 1 | 183 | 45.8 | 47.8 | 47.8 |
| | 1 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 49.6 |
| | 1 | 18 | 4.5 | 4.7 | 54.3 |
| | 2 | 15 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 58.2 |
| | 2 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 60.1 |
| | 2 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 61.9 |
| | 2 | 20 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 67.1 |
| | 2 | 13 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 70.5 |
| | 2 | 9 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 72.8 |
| | 3 | 8 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 74.9 |
| | 3 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 77.5 |
| | 3 | 7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 79.4 |
| | 3 | 12 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 82.5 |
| | 3 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 84.1 |
| | 3 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 86.7 |
| | 4 | 11 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 89.6 |
| | 4 | 10 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 92.2 |
| | 4 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 92.7 |
| | 4 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 93.7 |
| | 4 | 6 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 95.3 |
| | 4 | 2 | .5 | .5 | 95.8 |
| | 5 | 4 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 96.9 |
| | 5 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 97.1 |
| | 5 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 97.4 |
| | 5 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 97.7 |
| | 5 | 3 | .8 | .8 | 98.4 |
| | 5 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 98.7 |
| | 6 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 99.0 |
| | 6 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 99.2 |
| | 7 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 99.5 |
| | 7 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 99.7 |
| | 8 | 1 | .3 | .3 | 100.0 |
| | . | 17 | 4.3 | Missing | |
| | Total | 400 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| Mean | 1.892 | Std err | .062 | Median | 1.333 |
| Mode | 1.000 | Std dev | 1.208 | Variance | 1.459 |
| Kurtosis | 2.401 | S E Kurt | .249 | Skewness | 1.532 |
| S E Skew | .125 | Range | 6.667 | Minimum | 1.000 |
| Maximum | 7.667 | Sum | 724.667 | | |
| Valid cases | 383 | Missing cases | 17 | | |

Table 10-23 Information Provision Measure - Pasta and Related Products Data