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Shopping Pattern Differences of Physically Active Korean and American University Consumers for Athletic Apparel

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THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

SHOPPING PATTERN DIFFERENCES OF PHYSICALLY ACTIVE KOREAN AND
AMERICAN UNIVERSITY CONSUMERS FOR ATHLETIC APPAREL

By

SUNGWON BAE

A dissertation submitted to the
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ABSTRACT

As sports are globalized, sports products are sold nationally and internationally. To sell more sports products to sports consumers, sports consumers shopping characteristics are an important area in sports marketing research. However, previous studies have not investigated specific shopping patterns in athletic apparel (Durvasula, Lysonski, & Andrews, 1993; Fan & Xiao, 1998; Hafstrom, Chae, & Chung, 1992; Hiu, Siu, Wang, & Chang, 2001; Lysonski, Durvasula, & Zotos, 1996; Sproles & Kendall, 1986; Walsh & Vincent, 2001). These studies focus only on general consumer's shopping behaviors. The purpose of this study was to apply a consumer decision-making model to specific shopping styles involving athletic apparel and to examine specific shopping pattern differences between selected university students in the United States and South Korea. This study analyze the effect of seven factors: brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness on a revised scale of Consumer Style Inventory (CSI), invented by Sproles and Kendall (1986), following a pilot study.

Nationality, gender, college classification, and interaction were compared, based upon four research questions, to determine if any significance existed among the seven factors. For this study, there were 822 American and 841 Korean college students from a total of 1,720 samples, enrolled in LAP classes at a university in the southeastern region of the United States and South Korea, were usable data. In order to analyze four research questions for this study, descriptive statistics, 2 X 2 X 4 MANOVA, ANOVA, and mean comparisons were performed. An alpha level of .05 was set.

As a result, American and Korean college-aged consumers demonstrated different shopping patterns on quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness. Moreover, male and female college-aged consumers were different shopping patterns in relation to on quality, confusion, price, and brand consciousness. Also, there were no statistically significant differences on quality, recreation, confusion,

fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness in relation to college classifications. Finally, in the interaction tests among nationality, gender, and college-aged classifications, there was an interaction between nationality and gender on quality, price, and brand consciousness.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As every person is a consumer, it is certainly reasonable to inquire about shopping behaviors, such as the motivations underlying where people shop and what they buy. Shopping centers and mall developments provide consumers with increased shopping alternatives within a localized central business district. Consumers are expected to derive greater utility from larger areas because of larger product classification, even though they are likely to spend more money and incur increased indisposition by traveling to more distant shopping areas (Bell, 1999).

During the 1980's, three-fourths of the national consumer population, in the United States, went to shopping malls at least once a month (Stoffel, 1988). Dual incomes increased flexible spending in this population, but individuals had less time for shopping (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001). Today, consumers shop not only in malls, but also access online shopping sites to buy or sell products. For example, today almost 50% of consumers are interested in purchasing brand-name clothing online especially through outlet, direct import and discount sites (Scandinavia-Japan Research, 2000). During the 21st century, increased access to retail stores, shopping malls and internet technology will have very specific consequences on consumer shopping patterns.

According to differences in consumers' needs and wants, they show different shopping patterns. The different shopping patterns are evident, based on the personalities and attitudes of consumers. Moreover, due to an individual's different economic situation, personal taste and environment, each consumer develops a unique shopping style. For example, some consumers may buy expensive brands or high quality products, while others may buy inexpensively priced, non-brand, or even low quality products. Therefore, many factors, such as brand, quality, and price, combine to determine an individual's unique shopping habits (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Consumers' unique shopping patterns are developed and affected by socialization agents, which include family, peers, media, and schools (Moschis, 1981). The agents can impact consumers' decision-making styles. These influences are critical consumer socialization agents among children and adolescents, and may often impact whether or not the young will buy certain products or brands (Moschis, 1981; Ward & Wackman, 1971). Ward and Wackman (1971) argue that young consumers change their shopping patterns depending on the relative presence or absence of interfamily communication about consumption matters and adolescents' media use. Furthermore, youthful consumption patterns influence consumer behavior as adults. For example, if parents prefer certain colors of clothing, the children learn these parental preferences. If parents show that they save their money during shopping, the children are likely to follow the same shopping process (Moschis, 1981).

When purchasing athletic or sportswear apparel products in South Korea and the United States, young consumers often look for specific brands, such as Nike, Adidas, New Balance, Axis, Reebok, or Puma. For example, the author has observed that Florida State University students who play soccer bought Nike and Adidas soccer shoes in local malls during the FIFA World Cup of 2002. Each sportswear consumer is typically affected by issues such as brand, price, design, or quality, but age and financial capability may also play key roles. These issues impact the uniqueness of the purchasing decision, which arises from the different shopping style characteristics exhibited by each consumer.

As sports are globalized, sports products are sold nationally and internationally. Sports consumer shopping characteristics are an important area in sports marketing research because each sports consumer has different shopping patterns (Walsh, Hennig-Thurau, Wayne-Mitcheel, & Wiedmann, 2001). This means that sports consumers have unique decision-making styles when shopping. The consumer's decision-making styles are based on previous purchasing experiences. Research shows that most consumers have a different kind of shopping consciousness relating to such factors as quality, fashion, price, brand, recreation, confusion, and habit when shopping (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Therefore, a consumer's decision-

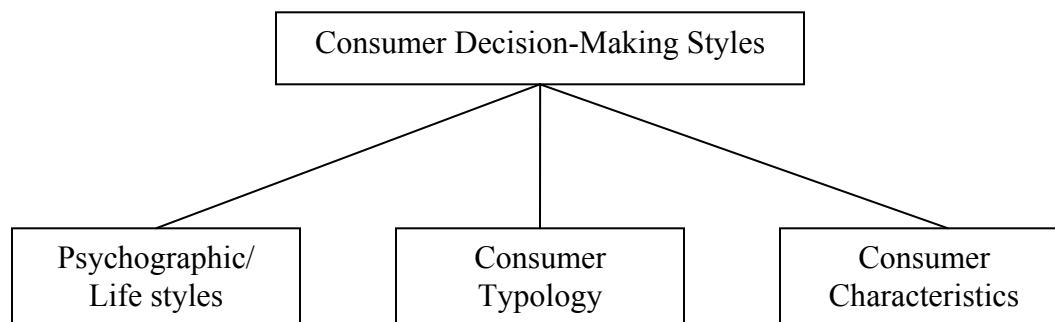
making style is a very important area to consider when attempting to identify and understand the consumer's shopping behavior and motivation, especially in the sports apparel market.

Conceptual Framework

Consumers demand good value on apparel, and purchase more comfortable and flexible fashions to fit their work and home lifestyle (Fischer & Arnold, 1994). Between the 1960's and 1980's, consumers made fashion a major consideration, often purchasing the latest items, the latest color and the trendiest look. Due to economic and societal changes, however, modern consumers consider value more important than fashion when they purchase items in a sporting goods store. They only consider apparel that fits their needs (Yohalem, 1995). Therefore, retailers deliver a large selection of merchandise in a variety of price ranges, as well as provide quality customer service and an appealing shopping environment. They also ensure that the products they are selling meet quality standards with regard to fit, design, construction, and durability.

Based on the consumer's different interest when shopping, the conceptual framework applied to and guiding this study was designed by Sproles and Kendall (1986) to determine specific differences in decision-making styles between college consumers in the United States and South Korea. The consumer decision-making styles are described as "a mental orientation characterizing a consumer approach to making choices" (Sproles & Kendall, 1986, p.268). Sproles and Kendall further suggest that the concept of the decision-making styles of the basic consumer is analogous to the individual personality in psychology.

To create a model of consumer decision-making style, Sproles and Kendall (1986) focus on three different approaches (see Figure 1). The first is the consumer characteristics approach, that focuses on consumers' decision-making in cognitive and affective directions (Sproles, 1985; Westbrook & Black, 1985), the second is the psychographic/lifestyle approach that shows consumers' different personality characteristics, attitudes, opinions, values, choices, and general styles that describe activities, interests, and opinions (Lastovicka, 1982; Wells, 1974), and the last



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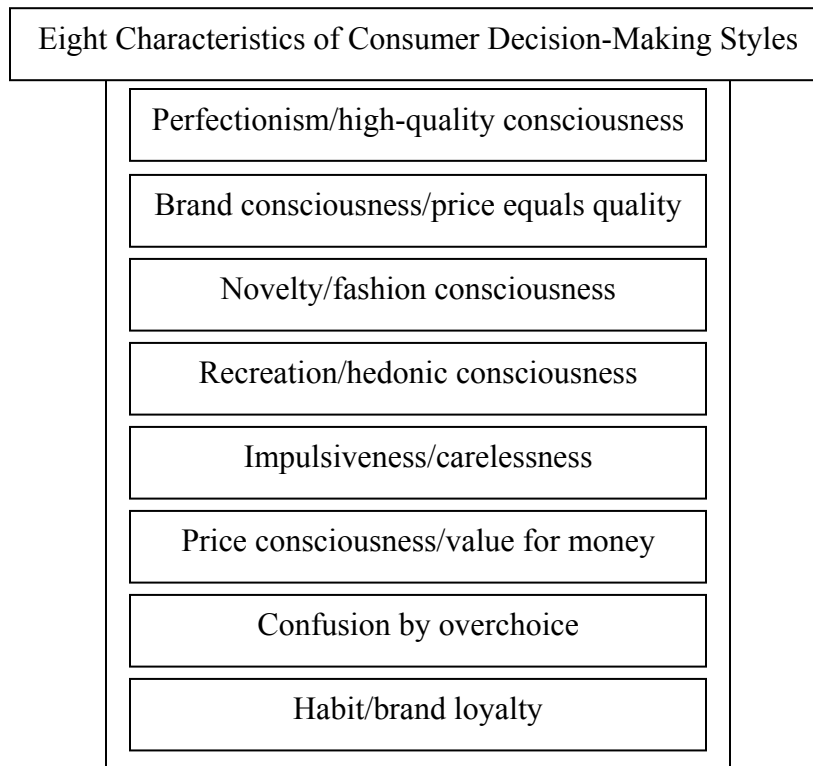
Figure 1.

Consumer Decision-Making Styles

approach is the consumer typology, that describes general consumer types: economic, personalizing, ethical, and apathetic (Darden & Ashton, 1974-75; Moschis, 1976; Stone, 1954). These approaches are powerful components in making a decision about a product (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

To identify a consumer's decision-making style from the aforementioned three approaches, fifty items relating to general mental orientation toward shopping and purchasing were originally proposed by Sproles (1985); however, to further develop fifty items to fit a consumer's individual shopping orientation, Sproles and Kendall (1986) created a more parsimonious scale with forty items, under the following eight characteristics of consumers' decision-making styles: (1) Perfectionistic/high-quality consciousness; (2) Brand consciousness/price equals quality; (3) Novelty/fashion consciousness; (4) Recreational/hedonic consciousness; (5) Price consciousness/value for money; (6) Impulsiveness/carelessness; (7) confusion by overchoice; and (8) Habit/brand loyalty (see Figure 2).

The first characteristic is perfectionistic/high-quality consciousness, which can be defined as an awareness of and desire for high quality products, and the need to make the best or perfect choice versus buying the first product or brand available.



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Figure 2.

Eight Characteristics of Consumer Decision-Making Styles

The second characteristic is brand consciousness/price equals quality, which is the need or desire to purchase well-known national brands, higher priced brands and/or the most advertised brands. The third characteristic is novelty/fashion consciousness, which can be defined as an awareness of new styles, changing fashions, and attractive styling, as well as the desire to buy something exciting and trendy. The fourth characteristic is recreational/hedonic consciousness, which is the enjoyment of shopping as a leisure-time activity, and includes wasting time in stores, shopping just for fun, and fast shopping trips. The fifth characteristic is price consciousness/value

for money, which is an awareness of the best value, buying at sale prices or the lowest price choice. The sixth characteristic is impulsiveness/carelessness shopping, which can be described as shopping that focuses on making impulsive, unplanned and careless purchases. The seventh characteristic is confusion by overchoice, which is a feeling of confusion about product choices because of a proliferation of brands, stores and consumer information. The last characteristic is habit/brand loyalty, which can be defined with references to consumers' favorite brands and buying habits, and consistently using the same store (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

The model of consumer decision-making styles has been used, since 1986, as a worldwide measurement of consumer decision-making styles in textile and other business markets. Sproles and Kendall (1986) tested the reliability and validity of the Consumer Style Inventory (CSI) using only a sample of U.S. high school students to find consumer decision-making styles. Due to consumers' different individual decision-making styles, Sproles and Kendall suggest validating the instrument across other populations in order to establish generality.

Most previous studies on consumer decision-making styles have tested young populations and have been conducted in a wide range of countries, including the United States, South Korea, China, New Zealand, Germany, Greece, and India (Durvasula, Lysonski, & Andrews, 1993; Fan & Xiao, 1998; Hafstrom, Chae, & Chung, 1992; Hiu, Siu, Wang, & Chang, 2001; Lysonski, Durvasula, & Zotos, 1996; Walsh & Vincent, 2001). However, these studies only focused on a scale development of consumer decision-making styles with comparison of two or more countries. To clearly identify consumer decision-making styles, it is necessary to explore and clarify international consumers' shopping characteristics to help marketers develop a precise and worldwide marketing strategy (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Up to the point of selection, consumers display different decision-making styles, based upon their individual personalities and characteristics. They have a unique focus when they enter a store and shop. Some consumers consider a good price and trendy fashion, while others are interested in brand names with high quality.

Depending upon what they want and need, consumers customize their decision-making styles. Consumer confusion, however, often takes over when they encounter other choices immediately prior to making a specific selection. This plays a crucial role in modifying pre-existing consumer shopping styles.

Statement of the Problem

Previous studies involving consumer decision-making styles, created by Sproles and Kendall (1986), have been conducted on the shopping patterns of general consumers (Durvasula, Lysonski, & Andrews, 1993; Fan & Xiao, 1998; Hafstrom, Chae, & Chung, 1992; Hiu, Siu, Wang, & Chang, 2001; Jenkins, 1973; Lysonski, Durvasula, & Zotos, 1996; Walsh & Vincent, 2001). These studies identified the basic characteristics of an individual's decision-making about shopping and treated cross-cultural issues between or among countries such as the United States (Sproles & Kendall, 1986), South Korea (Hafstrom, et al., 1992), China (Fan & Xiao, 1998), New Zealand, and Greece (Lysonski, et al., 1996) on general shopping styles. Due to the different shopping characteristics of each consumer, Sproles and Kendall (1986) recommend that consumer decision-making styles should not only be used for other youth and adult groups, but should also be used for testing among countries.

Most previous research employing consumer decision-making has found general decision-making styles involving general products (Fan & Xiao, 1998; Hafstrom, et al., 1992; Hiu et al., 2001; Jenkins, 1973; Kendall & Sproles, 1990; King & Ring, 1980; Lysonski, et al., 1996; Sproles, 1985; Sproles & Kendall, 1986; Walsh & Vincent, 2001). In fact, consumers wear a variety of specific clothing types, such as casual, formal, and sporting clothes. Of these clothing types, consumers view activity- or sports-wear as an important part of their daily wardrobes. For example, consumers can be seen, today, wearing sportswear in supermarkets and restaurants almost as frequently as at a sport venue or on sports fields. Therefore, to help sporting apparel companies and retail stores develop a precise marketing strategy to appeal to consumers, this study will focus on specific apparel, sports clothing.

Previous studies have not investigated specific shopping patterns in sports apparel. These studies focus only on general consumers' shopping behaviors.

According to Darley and Smith (1995), differences between the sexes are especially important because gender has been used, historically, as a basis for market segmentation. They also emphasize that if gender processing differences exist, it is important for marketers to understand them in order to produce effective promotions for different target segments. Therefore, to develop specific target market segmentation in the sports market, specific shopping pattern differences of nationality, gender, college classification were the focus of this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to apply a consumer decision-making model to examine specific shopping styles involving athletic apparel and to analyze specific shopping pattern differences between select populations in the United States and South Korea.

Research Questions

The research questions that were investigated, based on the conceptual framework in this study (See Figure 3), were:

RQ1. Will there be significantly different shopping patterns in brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness between college-aged consumers in the United States and South Korea?

RQ2. Will there be significant gender-specific shopping pattern differences in brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness between the United States and South Korea?

RQ3. Will there be significant college classification differences in brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness between university consumers?

RQ4. What interaction exists among nationality, gender, and college classifications in brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness?

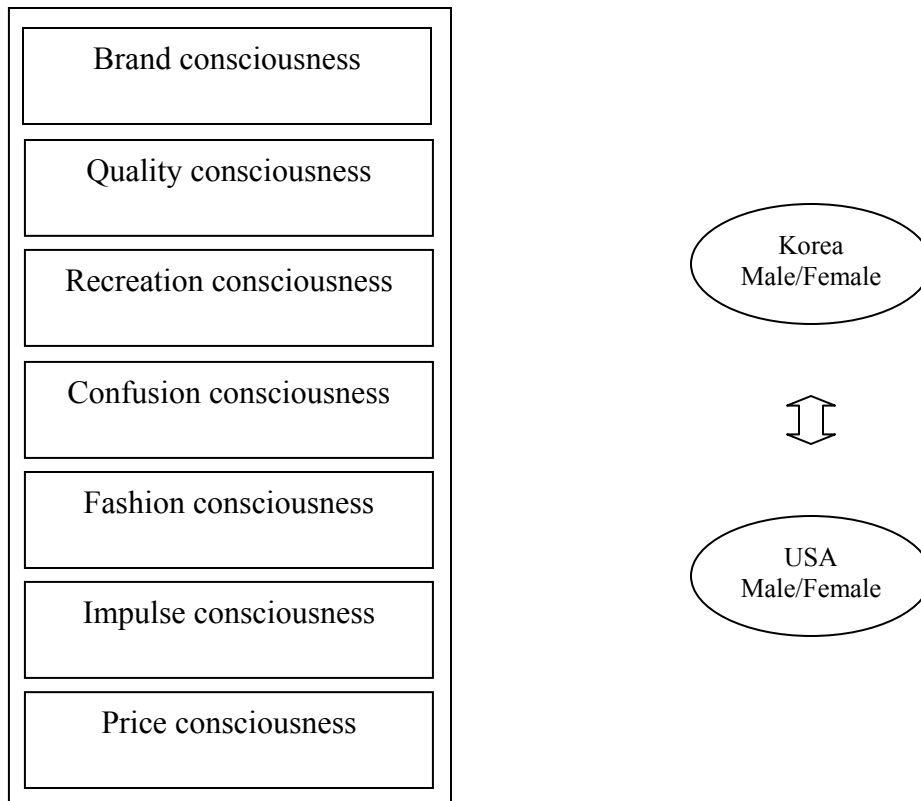


Figure 3.

Proposed Conceptual Model of Consumer's Decision-Making Styles.

Rationale for Research Questions

Many studies have been conducted internationally in relation to general shopping styles and general products, based on consumer's decision-making styles (Fan & Xiao, 1998; Hafstrom, et al., 1992; Hiu et. al., 2001; Jenkins, 1973; Kendall & Sproles, 1990; King & Ring, 1980; Lysonski, et al., 1996; Sproles & Kendall, 1986; Walsh & Vincent, 2001). According to previous studies (Darley & Smith, 1995; Fischer & Arnold, 1994; Krugman, 1966), women, in general, shop more frequently than men and spend more time shopping because female consumers frequently focus on family products such as clothing and groceries, whereas male consumers also spend more time shopping than female because male consumers are more involved in specialty shopping for such things as insurance, camping gear, and merchandise (Buttle, 1992). One Korean study focused on the actual condition and

consciousness for college students' revenue and expenditure. The study found that male and female consumers in South Korea did not show any statistically significant differences when food shopping (Hur, Lee, Kim, Moon, Lee, Choi, & Choi, 1997).

In the United States, however, around 7% of male consumers and 11 % of female consumers purchase gifts for their friends and family during the Christmas season. According to this research, of the total number of shopping trips undertaken during Christmas, female consumers go shopping more than male in the United States (Barbara, Laroche, Sadd, Cleveland, & Browne, 2000). As a result, depending on their situation or lifestyle, it is possible that male and female consumers will reflect different shopping styles relating to brand consciousness, quality consciousness, recreation consciousness, confusion consciousness, fashion consciousness, impulse consciousness, and price consciousness. South Korea and the United States are at different stages of environmental, cultural, and societal development; consequently, consumers from these countries may reflect different shopping styles (Kim, 2002). Hafstrom et al. (1992) explored a comparison of decision- making styles of young consumers between South Korea and the United States. They found that American and Korean consumers, in general, showed similar decision-making styles in shopping.

Fan and Xiao (1998), however, had a different opinion about consumer decision-making styles among countries. They studied the consumer decision-making styles of college-aged students in China. Using the results of this study, they subsequently compared three different countries, South Korea, the United States, and China, and found that the purchasing power of the average Chinese student is much lower than that of the average Korean or American student. This result is naturally due to the different economic levels of the countries involved and, further, suggests that, depending upon economic and cultural situations, shopping styles differ from country to country. Therefore, according to previous studies, it is possible to say that different shopping styles will be evident between South Korea and the United States.

Delimitations

The delimitations of this study are described below.

1. This study is delimited to college-aged students, ranging in age/classification from freshman to senior student. In addition, the study is delimited to students who are enrolled in Life-Activity Program (LAP) courses.
2. This study is delimited to college-aged male and female students who live in Tallahassee, in the United States, and Taegu, in South Korea.

Limitations

The potential limitations of this study are described below.

1. The study is limited to college students, attending Life-Activity Program (LAP) classes in Tallahassee, Florida, in the United States and in Taegu, in South Korea.
2. The results of this study cannot be used to reflect the delimited population as a whole. This study collects convenient samples from universities in Tallahassee, in the United States, and from universities in Taegu, in South Korea. Therefore, one cannot generalize the results of the study to the delimited population. This study can only reflect a specific and limited population's sport marketing needs.
3. Survey research plays an important part in creating a successful study. The success of this study depends upon whether the questions will be clearly understood and answered, as well as upon whether or not the respondents honestly and diligently answer the questions and complete the survey for this study.
4. Due to the data collection procedures that will be used, the Korean students will not benefit from the researcher's presence. Any questions or confusion may result in improper completion of a survey.

Definition of Terms

The following conceptual definitions will help in understanding this study.

Perfectionistic/High-Quality Consciousness

Quality consciousness is defined as an awareness of and desire for high quality products and the need to make the best or perfect choice versus buying the first product or brand available (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Brand Consciousness/Price Equals Quality

Brand consciousness is defined as consumers' orientations toward buying the more expensive, well-known national brands (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Price consciousness/Value for the money

Price consciousness is defined as finding the best value, buying at sale prices or the lowest price choice (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Novelty/Fashion Consciousness

Fashion consciousness is defined as an awareness of new styles, changing fashions, and attractive styling, as well as the desire to buy something exciting and trendy (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Recreational shopping consciousness

Recreation and shopping consciousness are defined as pleasant activities, enjoyable shopping as a leisure-time activity, wasting time in stores, shopping just for fun, and fast shopping trips (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Impulsiveness/Carelessness

Impulsive/careless shopping is defined as making impulsive, unplanned and careless purchases (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Habit/Brand Loyalty

Habitual/ brand loyal consumers are those that have favorite brands, stick with a brand, and consistently use the same store (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Confusion by Overchoice

For many consumers, there exists a feeling of confusion about product choices because of a proliferation of brands, stores and consumer information (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Significance of the Study

This study is needed for the development of new insights into the subject of shopping styles between university consumers in the United States and South Korea. An exhaustive literature search reveals that no studies exist that focus on specific shopping styles in the sport industry. Most previous studies employing a model of consumer decision-making styles have been conducted in relation to general shopping styles between and among countries (Fan & Xiao, 1998; Hafstrom, et al., 1992; Hiu et. al., 2001; Jenkins, 1973; Kendall & Sproles, 1990; King & Ring, 1980; Lysonski, et al., 1996; Sproles & Kendall, 1986; Walsh & Vincent, 2001). As sports have become globalized, sports marketers need to develop a precise marketing strategy in each country. By analyzing consumers in two different countries, this study can provide sport marketers a better understanding of how they are able to meet sports consumers' needs and wants and to develop a precise marketing position with respect to two different cultural backgrounds, the United States and South Korea.

Men and women may have the same or different shopping styles, based on their shopping characteristics. The sexes' differences are especially important in sports apparel markets, because gender has historically been used as a basis for market segmentation (Darley & Smith, 1995). According to previous studies (Darley & Smith, 1995; Fischer & Arnold, 1994; Krugman, 1966), women, in general, shop more frequently than men and spend more time shopping. This type of research may be needed as scientific evidence to enhance the decisions and actions of marketing managers for better marketing strategies of the sport product. This study may also enlighten sport management faculty to better educate future sport marketers with the latest knowledge and ways of thinking about shopping styles relating to gender-specific strategies in the United States and South Korea.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The process of consumers' decision-making is becoming increasingly a complex phenomenon for consumers. Most retail shops develop an enormous arrangement of choices for the consumers. Moreover, retailers consider a shop's environment to make consumers consider more expenditure. More stimuli in retail shops can excite more consumers to visit and to buy.

Consumers demand good value on apparel, and purchase more comfortable and flexible fashions to fit their work and home lifestyle (Fitzerald, 1994). Between the 1960's and 1980's, consumers made fashion a major consideration, often purchasing the latest items, the latest color and the trendiest look. However, due to economic and societal changes, modern consumers consider value more important than fashion when they purchase items in a sporting goods store. They only consider apparel that fits their needs (Yohalem, 1995). This chapter will review definitions of shopping style, factors of consumers' decision-making styles, different shopping patterns between male and female consumers in the United States, different shopping patterns between male and female consumers in South Korea, general consumption patterns of Generations X and Y, consumer socialization and the learning process for shopping, and learning shopping style from family and media.

Definition of Shopping Style

Shopping is "an activity that consumers look forward to and it may be worthwhile to analyze the decision-making process and its impact" (Islamabad, 2000, p.1). Shopping is a way to acquire needed products and services. Shopping activity can be divided into two important dimensions: utilitarian (functional) and hedonic (reasons). The activity of shopping is also defined by many consumption behaviors, such as impulsive purchasing, compulsive purchasing and browsing (Babin, Darden,

& Griffin, 1994). The characteristics of utilitarian consumers are related to basic principles of reward and punishment (Katz, 1960). They have been described as “ergic, task-related, and rational” (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Sherry, 1990b). Utilitarian attitudes dictate that shopping will produce pleasure or pain (Solomon, 2002). It follows that utilitarian shoppers will see shopping in terms of reward. For example, if a utilitarian plays soccer, he/she will typically have a positive attitude toward watching soccer on television; the same applies to the shopping experience.

However, hedonic consumers act more “festive, ludic or epicurean” (Sherry, 1990a). Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) indicate that consumers interact with products in multisensory, fantasy, and emotion while shopping. Moreover, hedonic consumers are more subjective and personal than utilitarian, and like more fun and derive more gratification from fun and playfulness than task completion (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Solomon, 2002). For example, when a consumer purchases a BMW, he/she may have strong feeling about the luxurious image and safety while driving.

Factors of Consumer’s Decision-Making Styles

There have been a substantial number of studies designed to investigate consumer behavior; among these, Sproles and Kendall specifically designed a model to investigate and describe consumer decision-making styles, in 1986. This model has been used by a great many researchers, internationally, to identify the different shopping characteristics or decision-making styles of consumers. Sproles and Kendall (1986) emphasized that mental characteristics of consumer decision-making is an important part of market segmentation; the eight mental characteristics are described as below.

Perfectionistic/High-Quality Consciousness

Perfectionistic or quality consciousness is defined as an awareness of and desire for high quality products, and the need to make the best or perfect choice versus buying the first product or brand available (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Kumar (2000) indicates that quality characteristics are also related to performance,

convenience and comfort. The author emphasizes that consumers are insensitive to price if the quality provides comfort and a sense of well-being; therefore, many quality conscious consumers select high-priced brands because they believe price is an indicator of quality. It is likely that these consumers can, however, find low-priced alternatives with similarly high quality.

Product quality affects consumer decision-making in a positive manner. Around 40% of shoppers who have classified themselves as sophisticated independents reported quality as a positively important consideration. Similarly, approximately 45 % of self-declared active fashion leaders, and 50% of price-value conscious shoppers, have also indicated that quality is an important factor when purchasing clothing products (Kim, 1988).

Chinen, Jun, and Hampton (2000) not only examined the quality of products from various countries, but also investigated consumer decision-making on various products purchased. Some of their results are based on images of foreign products sold in the United States. They found that many American consumers evaluate the quality of Japanese products as superior to those manufactured elsewhere. The results suggest that American consumers are affected more by product quality than market presence, making quality consciousness a significant measurement of consumer decision-making.

Brand Consciousness/Price Equals Quality

Many consumers are interested in brand names when they buy products. Sproles and Kendall (1986) define brand consciousness as the need or desire to purchase well-known national brands, higher priced brands and/or the most advertised brands. In fact, well-known brand names often make a social statement about an individual's status, such as Rolex watches, BMW vehicles, Sony electronics, and GUCCI textiles (Wanke, Bohner, & Jurkowitsch, 1997). This belief may or may not be accurate or realistic; however, it reflects a specific decision-making outcome for the consumers that purchase these items. This outcome consists partially of the positive perceptions of others about the consumer of expensive brand items;

therefore, brand consciousness plays an important part in society, and breeds the belief that higher prices mean higher quality.

The consumer decision-making style results previously stated indicate that this is certainly true in both the United States and South Korea (Hafstrom, Chae, & Chung, 1992). Many product manufacturers recognize this social belief and produce the same items under different brand names to capitalize on different economic situation. The belief that price dictates quality, however, is something of an economic inversion, not an absolute, and rarely applies to impulsive purchases for items such as beverage and foods.

Stobart (1994) argues that brand power includes quality in only the strongest international brands. However, brands are often perceived as a sign of quality, yet this does not indicate inherent quality (Stijn, Osselaer & Alba, 2000). Brand conscious shoppers believe that these types of brands result in better quality and that improved quality justifies higher prices. The shoppers are ultimately concerned with having and making better choices (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). They found that brand consciousness ranks second among the eight factors in consumer decision-making styles. Brand influences are, therefore, an important element of consumer purchasing processes (Clever, 1985; Sproles & Kendall, 1986; Fitzsimons & Morwitz, 1996).

Today, companies focus less on products and services and more on fitting products and services into lifestyles. Gunin (1998) emphasizes that most consumers want to use products that make their lives easier and free them from stress. Since consumers trust brand names, they look toward them for purchasing direction. Consumers feel that brands empower them to feel good about their shopping decisions.

Young consumers are no exception to this behavior; they frequently use brand names when they think and talk about certain products. Several studies (Clever, 1985; Macklin, 1996) indicate that consumers learn brand names through pictures or colors. Macklin (1996) studied children's brand recognition from visual cues. The results indicate that when a picture and a color are provided with brand names, young consumers remember it better. Moreover, Clever (1985) finds that after young consumers memorize certain brands, they are able to recall multiple brands. When

they shop, therefore, young consumers are clearly cognizant of the exact brands they want.

Novelty/Fashion Consciousness

Fashion consciousness is defined as an awareness of new styles, changing fashions, and attractive styling, as well as the desire to buy something exciting and trendy (Sproles & Kendall, 1986); ultimately, it represents the consumer's relationship with design and style (Sproles, 1979). Some researches still emphasize fashion as an important factor in consumer decision-making (Gutman & Mills, 1982; Kim, 1988; King & Ring, 1980; Sproles, 1979; Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

King and Ring (1980) tested the market position of men's fashion apparel in localized market-monitoring, utilizing consumer perceptions of key patronage determinants. They investigated brand names, merchandise price points, and general fashion-ability of merchandise in three different markets. Moreover, to find store types relating to consumer behavior, they targeted four different stores in their study: high-fashion specialty chains, department stores, mid-range fashion specialty chains, and discount/mass merchandiser. The results of their study show that consumers who use high-fashion specialty stores are concerned with high quality, up-to-date clothing and the latest fashions. In contrast, consumers who shop in department stores consider store location, advertising, and conservative, everyday clothing choices. Consumers who use discount/mass merchandising stores are less likely to be involved with fashion than those who use department and mid-range fashion specialty stores. Finally, consumers frequenting mid-range fashion specialty shops are concerned with fashion but, also consider the best value for the money and appreciate knowledgeable and helpful clerks.

According to Kim (1988), fashion conscious consumers of the late 20th century measured both retailer quality and the value of their own time. They also had strong fashion leadership from the mass media; ideas relating to fashion were often considered before shopping. Fashion conscious consumers never purchased products that were on sale. Also, they never shared information, never searched for brand

names, never placed importance on clothing, and were never concerned about high-perceived value. Finally, they preferred to shop less and cared less about quality.

More recent consumers, however, think that trend-setting fashion is the least important reason to select a store. These consumers seek styles that are right for them; color and individual taste, in addition to price and return policy, are considerations that are more likely to sway contemporary shoppers. For purchasers of sportswear, in particular, fit is a key element of decision-making (Yohalem, 1995).

Recreational/Hedonic Consciousness

Recreational/hedonic consciousness is defined as the enjoyment of shopping as a leisure-time activity, which includes wasting time in stores, shopping just for fun, and fast shopping trips (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Bellenger and Korgaonkar (1980) examine the importance and nature of recreational shopping to retailers. They find that around 70 % of consumers enjoy shopping as a use of leisure time. They also emphasize that recreational shoppers are actively involved in information gathering and participate in a greater amount of impulsive purchasing.

Three decades ago, Newman and Staelin (1972) found that many consumers viewed visits to retail shops as an important source of information gathering. Contemporary consumers, however, do not go from shop to shop to compile information and compare products and prices. These consumers prefer to use out-of-store sources of information, especially past shopping experiences and discussions with friends (Udell, 1966). Udell observed that advertising also plays a crucial role in the decision-making process of shoppers.

Recreational shoppers are engaged by window displays. Attention-getting window displays can be a key source of decision-relevant information in the external retail environment. Research suggests that consumers may seek out store windows primarily as a leisure activity, to have fun and feel good, as well as to stay abreast of current product choices (Bloch, Sherrell, & Ridgeway, 1986).

Price Consciousness/Value for the Money

Price consciousness is defined as an awareness of the best value, buying at sale prices or the lowest price choice (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Most consumers are affected by price when they purchase products. As consumers' price consciousness increases, “demand for products that offer the highest benefit-to-cost ratio is likely to increase” (Creyer & Ross, 1997, p.281). Kim (1988) emphasizes that price conscious shoppers shop frequently, get price information from newspapers and television, exercise cautious consumption, and desire perceived value. These same shoppers, however, rarely rely on the radio, don't consider retail quality, aren't particularly fashion conscious, don't place a particular importance on clothing, and have little concern for new designs.

During a price conscious shopper's individual decision-making process, he/she may consider the greatest value at the most reasonable cost, the lowest price, or display brand loyalty, especially when there is limited shopping time. Four different grocery shopping styles have been identified: budget shoppers, convenience shoppers, brand loyal shoppers and value shoppers. Around 80 % of consumers shop for food in supermarkets, while around 10 % shop clubs or warehouses. Consequently, it may be argued that three out of ten consumers consider lower prices when shopping (Falkman, 1996).

Creyer and Ross (1997) examined the preferences of consumers choosing between price and quality. For their study, three different product categories, tires, cereals, and ground beefs, are examined. They find that most consumers select lower priced products, with a higher value option, rather than higher priced products, with a higher quality option.

According to Bucklin et al. (1998), price significantly influences consumer choice and incidence of purchase. The authors emphasize that discount pricing makes households switch brands and buy products earlier than needed. Additionally, consumers generally evaluate market price, against an internal reference price, before they decide on the attractiveness of the retail price (Janiszewski & Lichtenstein, 1999). If all product options are at the same benefit level, consumers find and buy the

lowest priced alternative. As a result, these researchers conclude that price consciousness is an important component of the decision-making process.

Impulsiveness/Carelessness

Impulsive/careless shopping is defined as making impulsive, unplanned and careless purchases (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Impulsive buying is an enveloping aspect of consumers' behaviors. It is also a key concept to understand from a retailer point of view (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998).

Bellenger, Robertson, and Hirschman (1978) examined different degrees of consumers' impulse purchasing in a merchandise store. They find that nearly 40% of purchases are impulsive and that around 30-to-60% of all department store purchases are unplanned. Moreover, age groups under 35 and over 65 years old show a larger percentage of impulse purchases, ranging from \$35 to \$50. However, most purchases are in the \$5 to \$10 range. Regarding race, African-American shoppers are more impulsive with purchases of men's apparel, furniture, and customized jewelry, whereas Caucasians are more impulse-oriented in relation to men's sportswear and casual clothing, rain-gear, women's sportswear, and curtains/draperies.

By merit of their location at the purchase site, windows can also directly entice consumers into the store to make specific impulsive purchases (Sen, Block, & Chandran, 2002). Window displays function both as advertising and sales promotion (Klokis, 1986; Horvitz, 1998). Window displays help create and maintain an overall image of the retailer in consumers' minds (Park, Jaworski, & Macinnis, 1986). Recently, surveys suggest that consumers are very likely to pay attention to and acquire information from window displays (Castaneda, 1996).

There are two different characteristics affecting impulsive shoppers: the positive and the negative psychological aspects of the consumer at the point of purchase (Watson & Tellege, 1985). Consumers with positive emotions are more likely to engage in approach than avoidance behavior; they feel like rewarding themselves. Positive mood behaviors produce the freedom to act (Cunningham, 1979; Isen & Levin, 1972). According to Beatty and Ferrell (1998), consumers'

positive moods influence shopping enjoyment, in-store browsing, impulse purchasing and considerations of budget.

Negative psychological aspects, however, influence consumers' processing of persuasive messages; these aspects negate the urge to buy impulsively. Approach behaviors decrease in consumers, as unclear moods increase. While persuasive messages usually produce negative moods when consumers are struggling with negative emotions, they sometimes produce positive moods (Bless & Forgas, 2000; Wanke, et al., 1997).

Confusion by Overchoice

For many consumers, there exists a feeling of confusion about product choices because of the proliferation of brands, stores and consumer information (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). There are many different brand-name products in retail shops. In retail and department stores, consumers have a difficult time purchasing specific products because of the many choices available. Moreover, because of the increased proliferation of brands in recent years, many companies are employing an imitation strategy to sell more products.

Company developers aim to position their new products next to well-known brands, creating hesitation in the consumers who intended to purchase those brands (Foxman, Muehling, & Berger, 1990). This situation exacerbates the confusion many shoppers feel when making purchasing decisions. Brand imitation is an issue in automotive industries, sportswear and travel companies, as well as with food establishments, grocery products, jewelry and electronics (Fletcher, 1987).

Many brands confuse consumers because there are so many different brands to choose from in-store arrangements. For example, a sports retail store, Foot Locker, stocks many different athletic apparel brand names, such as Nike, Adidas, and New Balance, among others. Consumers must, therefore, define the specific purpose of each product item. If a consumer prefers jogging, he/she will seek athletic shoes with more cushions in the soles. Because potential ankle injuries must also be considered, he/she will need to choose between high-top and low-top sneakers. The athletic shoe consumer needs to get more information, therefore, concerning athletic shoes.

Different sizes, prices, qualities, and colors also make consumers feel confused (Evans-Correia, 1992; Fletcher, 1987; Foxman, Muehling, & Berger, 1990). Even though each brand markets a variety of products, they also target to specific consumer age groups. There are, therefore, variances in confusion, by overchoice options, among different age groups. When consumers shop at stores, they sometimes need assistance with product purchases because they may spend a lot of time finding specific items if the products are not arranged clearly.

Habit/Brand Loyalty

Habitual/ brand loyal consumers are those that have favorite brands, stick with a brand, and consistently use the same store (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Store attractiveness keeps many consumers coming back to the store. Stores appeal to shoppers through the use of aromas, light colors, signs, and music (Alpert & Alpert, 1990; Areni & Kim, 1994; Blumenthal, 1988). How consumers view store image has long been considered an integral part of consumer decision-making (Baker, et al., 1992; Bell, 1999; Martineau, 1958). The image influences the consumer's perceptions of goods and services purchased (Kunkel & Berry, 1968).

Depending on store quality, consumers often visit the same retail store habitually. Store quality is related to area layout, product arrangement, merchandise variety, and price-levels. Essentially, there are two different store attributes that impact consumers; these are the psychological and physical attributions. The psychological attributions relate to the environmental characteristics that evoke an emotional response from the consumers, creating in them feelings of excitement, warmth, displeasure, and/or arousal (Martineau, 1958).

Different Shopping Patterns between Male and Female Consumers in the United States

A decade ago, male and female consumers spent more than 100 billion dollars per year for gifts that represent over 3 percent of the annual budget of the average household in the USA (Garner & Wagner, 1991). They showed different shopping patterns (Darley & Smith, 1995; Fischer & Arnold, 1994) due to different social roles

(Darley & Smith, 1995). In society, female consumers are represented as more obedient and influenceable (Sistruck & McDavid, 1971), while male consumers are described as self-assertive and independent thinkers (Worchel & Cooper, 1976).

Moreover, male and female consumers have different information processing strategies (Barbara, et al., 2000). They are able to show different aspects of their consumer behavior based upon products on advertising. For example, advertising encourages female consumers to buy products more often than male (Krugman, 1966). Moreover, even though they select the same products, they frequently shop differently by spending time in shops and actively searching for information (Zeithaml, 1985). Generally, female consumers make effort to find comprehensive analysis for all products and information, whereas male consumers do not undertake comprehensive processing of information (Barbara, et al., 2000).

During shopping, female consumers are more dominant than males. Buttle (1992) emphasizes that the majority of female consumers focus on family products such as clothing and groceries. However, male consumers can be called special shoppers, involved in purchasing insurance, camping gear, and mechanical goods (Wilson, 1992). Moreover, female consumers, in general, are more involved in an important position of decision-making for family products than male consumers, since female consumers are associated with their roles in family (Davis, 1971).

Barbara et al. (2000) studied in-store information searches for Christmas clothing gifts with respect to gender differences. They found that approximately 7% of male and about 11% of female consumers purchase gifts during the Christmas season. As a result, of the total number of shopping trips undertaken during the Christmas, female consumers shopped more often than male.

Male consumers go directly to a salesclerk to obtain product information rather than attempting to process all the available information, since they generally consider less sources of information. Moreover, they believe that the brand name serve as a replacement for detailed product information (Barbara, et al., 2000). Female consumers, however, spend more time in both general and specific informational searches, but engage more in specific than general informational searches. Moreover, they invest time and effort in the gift search process (Meyers-

Levy, 1988). If under a strict budget, they try to find a good bargain. Married women spend less time searching for products, while well-educated women refer to a salesperson before making a purchase decision. Interestingly, both male and female consumers consult salespeople to obtain information (Barbara, et al., 2000).

Different Shopping Patterns between Male and Female Consumers in South Korea

A personality attribute of both men and women, in South Korea, is extroversion; both sexes prefer to remain in the company of friends rather than being alone (Kim & Kim, 2002). Moreover, both sexes tend to focus more on their future, than present, lives. It can also be said that South Koreans are very hesitant about arguing with authority figures, both within and outside the family. This attribute is the result of traditional Korean culture, which dictates respect for older individuals (LG Ad Inc, 2003).

Korean consumers consider fashion, price, brand and quality when they go shopping in malls or discount stores. Myungjin Research Company (1997) studied the consumption inclination of South Koreans and found that fashion conscious consumers consider design, quality, price, and brand when they purchase clothing, shoes, and accessories. Of these factors, the consumers generally think about design rather than quality or price. Moreover, the consumers continue to use the same brand. They make a shopping list before shopping. However, most South Korean consumers also show impulsive purchasing behaviors while shopping. In addition, South Korean men purchase more impulsively than women (LG Ad Inc, 2003).

KCM, Inc. (2002) investigated the purchasing intensions of South Korean consumers and found the following influences: 8% impulsive purchasing, about 16% price consideration, 9% design, 66% needs when purchased. They also found that consumers did not only consider quality, price, and design in order when shopping, but also used discount stores (about 60%), department stores (17%), stores that only sell a brand such as Speedo (9%), and general market (11%). 80% of consumers liked brand names when purchasing products.

Chun and Jung (2000) studied the consumption habits of South Korean college students and found that this consumption generally involves tuition, book, and date expenses during the college year. The college students generally spent between \$200 and \$300 per month; only about 2 % spent over \$1,000 per month. Available student income results from either parental supplementation, part-time employment, or both. The higher the students' academic standing, the more money they spend; for example, freshmen and sophomores spend around \$260 each month, while juniors and seniors spend around \$360. These expenses involve food, entertainment, leisure, transportation, self-development, clothing, communication, and dates. Interestingly, approximately 90% of college consumers used department or discount stores to purchase products.

Min and Han (2002) investigated the situation of college students' part-time jobs with a survey involving 115 college students in South Korea. Of these students, 55.7 % had part-time jobs to cover tuition. In general, the students were employed in teaching jobs (51%), working schools (9.7%), restaurants (8.1%), and companies (4.8%), with some students indicating other employment (25.8%). Some college students maintain part-time employment in order to satisfy a desire to purchase brand-name apparel or shoes (Hannam university culture news, 2002).

Hur, Lee, Kim, Moon, Lee, Choi and Choi (1997) explored an actual condition and consciousness for college students' revenue and expenditure. Based on the result of the study, they found that there were no significant differences between males and females in relation to food consumption, but there were considerable differences in relation to other expenses. Male students spent more for pleasure than female students, usually involving sports and leisure activities. Female students spent more on clothing than male students, and also spent more on movies, videos, and cartoons.

General Consumption of Generations X and Y

Crispell (1995) predicted that the population of the United States may reach 300 million by the year 2002. The continuing increase in the population is a strong influence on each subsequent generation of citizens. Diverse societal and family

structures and advances in technology are the primary forces shaping the X and Y Generations. 45 million people, born from 1965 to 1976, are labeled Generation X. They are also referred to by the media and other generations as “slackers or baby busters” due to their alleged laziness and alienation from the traditional value systems (Zinn, 1992).

Mothers of Generation-X children often held full-time jobs, creating households without a stay-at-home parent and the first generation of latchkey kids and divorce-filled childhoods. (Dietz, 1999; Hornblower, 1997; Scally, 1999). The X’ers, however viewed, are described as a powerful force in the marketplace because they spend approximately 130 billion each year on products and services (Hornblower, 1997; Radice, 1998). Mostly, about 70% of them save some money from their salaries, which they invest in their home improvement and repair projects (Scally, 1999).

Generation-Y kids, about 72 million who were born between 1977 and 1994, are called “echo boomers.” Generally, the group characteristics of the Y Generation are uncertainty, the need to belong, and the quest to find a unique identity. The Y’ers are the most often influenced by companies, activities, and clothing in their quest for social acceptance; they are also strongly influenced by peers and advertising (Solomon, 2002).

Advertisers focus on teenagers and college students because they realize significant profits from these demographics. According to Seligman (2002), the parents of high school aged children account for approximately 30 % of automobile purchases. The children appear to have a significant say in the selection process. During college, full-time students spend more than \$30 billion annually to purchase products. Of the \$30 billion, \$27 billion is spent on food, gas, car insurance, tuition, and books. Of that, an estimated \$7 billion is spent on beer and pizza. A typical college student spends his/her money, each month, on the following: “food (32%), debt (18%), clothing (8%), telephone (6%), and other (23%)” (p.2). Based upon these spending habits, advertising companies invest around \$100 million a year on campus. These trends did not hold true prior to the Y-generation, which spends significantly more than the older X-generation (Speer, 1998).

Consumer Learning Process for Shopping

Consumer socialization can be defined as the “processes by which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their functioning as consumers in the marketplace” (Ward, 1974, p.2). A consumer’s socialization usually takes place within the family unit where consumption patterns are shaped (Hafstrom, Chae, & Chung, 1992). Ward (1974) observes that some consumer researchers have focused only upon the consumer behavior of adults because young consumers have little disposable income and few decision-making capabilities. If this held true in the past, it no longer does. Currently, around 20% of the US population is under the age 12. Young consumers spend more than \$6 billion annually for goods and services. Their sway on parental decision-making is so powerful that young children directly influence the spending of more than \$130 billion on household purchases and indirectly influence around another \$130 billion (McNeal, 1992).

Learning occurs through observation, participation, and training according to McNeal (1987). He suggests that a great deal of learning about the shopping process among young children occurs by observation, since five-year olds can recall shopping trips with parents in great detail. So, most parents take their children with them to shopping places where they witness purchasing decisions being made (Flack, 2000).

In addition, half of the young children who usually accompany parents on shopping trips are reported to occasionally make purchase selections. Based on the result of McNeal (1987), family activities are emphasized as an important aspect of early learning through participation. A parent’s influence on a child develops that child’s attitude, skills and knowledge relevant to consumption (Ward, 1974). Moreover, young consumers learn shopping styles from magazines and television advertising, which also influences the development of a young consumer’s shopping style (Ward & Wackman, 1971).

Consumer Learning Shopping Styles from Family and Media

Young children learn not only about consumption, but also about money spent. Ward and Wackman (1973) interviewed over 600 working- and middle class mothers of kindergarten, third and sixth grade children. They found that parents of

older children are somewhat more likely to report purposive teaching and setting (making) an example than parents of younger children. It was also found that parents only set general consumer goals for their children, most often related to teaching children about price-quality relationships. Due to a gap that exists between children and their parents regarding opinions and motivations for purchasing, they have different attachments for decision-making; for example, children mainly focus on brand and parents predominantly care about features and/or benefits (Seligman, 2002).

As children learn consumption from their parents, children try to influence parental purchases during shopping. Berezney and Pollay (1968) examined the influence of 8- to-11-year-old children on breakfast cereal purchases in middle and upper-middle class families. They found that highly child-centered mothers tend to purchase their children's requested cereals less frequently than less child-centered mothers.

As young consumers grow, they increase their social skills and awareness. They become savvier about the negotiating process (Flack, 2000). Children and parents also move closer together in purchasing behavior (Seligman, 2002). Even though children's knowledge and opinions may be limited, the children inside the family frequently influence family purchasing decisions (Turk & Bell, 1972).

Seligman (2002) emphasized that children have a significant effect on purchasing big-ticket items such as cars and holidays, traditional teen categories such as fashion and music, and high-tech products such as computers. Based on his research, 28 % of car purchases were made because an increasing number of children are driven to school by their parents. Kids also influence decision-making in the house when it comes to new high-tech items, because parents have difficulty keeping up with new technology. Therefore, parents trust their children's advice on new products such as computer software, digital cameras and DVDs. Finally, a major change between children and parents is in the traditional teen categories of fashion and music because individuals no longer conform to traditional stereotypes such as listening to classical music or wearing sensible clothing.

Flank (2000) observes that children's clothes are similar to, in that parents and children find themselves having to negotiate; for example, children as young as three and four influence purchasing decisions for their shoes. As a result, parents are happier shopping with their children and more comfortable being seen in traditional teenage-oriented (Seligman, 2002). Children's shopping styles are affected by their attitude toward mass media. Media companies aim messages towards desired groups. For example, cable television companies reach over 60 % of the total U.S. population, allowing narrow programming formats such as all sports, all news, all food, and all voyages (Solomon, 2002).

There are no exceptions in the young children's target market. Wartella and Ettma (1974) found that young children, from aged 2 to 7, exhibit greater attention span stability when viewing television programs and commercials. Children aged 8 to 13 showed greater differentiations between programs and commercials, as indicated by their attention and behavior. While television stimuli vary, mainly in perceptual as opposed to auditory complexity, preoperational children present greater differentiation in their attention behavior. Similarly, the older a child is the more likely he/she is to differentiate programs from advertising, to exhibit multi-dimensional recall of television advertising, and to express skepticism about the validity of advertising claims (Ward, 1974).

Young consumers learn a lot about style and fashion from paper advertising, word of mouth, and television advertising. Ward and Wackman (1971) observed that, on average, advertising accounts for one and two of every ten minutes of television airtime. In advertising, there are three content categories, movies, comedy-variety and action. Because of the average number of hours children watch television each week, it is easy to see why young consumers are exposed to a great deal of television advertising.

Summary

There are several different shopping styles. Some people buy expensive brands or high-quality products. However, other people buy cheaply priced, generic, or lower quality products. Consumers in the United States and South Korea consider

fashion, price, brand and quality when they go shopping in malls or discount stores. According to individuals' economic situations, personal tastes and environments, they develop unique shopping styles. Consumers' shopping styles are also affected by their attitude toward parents, friends, and mass media. Therefore, to understand international shopping styles in relation to sports apparel, this study will compare the differences in specific shopping patterns among American and Korean college-aged consumers of athletic clothing and determine how sports marketing can effectively target gender-oriented shopping patterns.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The primary objective of this chapter was to identify the research method and test the research questions, based upon the conceptual framework of this study. This study used quantitative research and surveys the consumer's decision-making styles, using the Consumer Style Inventory (CSI), to compare shopping pattern differences between college-aged consumers in the United States and South Korea. Moreover, this chapter is divided into six sections: research design, population and sample, sampling method and procedures, data collection procedures, instrumentation, and statistical data analysis.

Research Design

The fundamental objective of this study was to identify shopping pattern differences between college-aged consumers in the United States and South Korea, relating particularly to sports apparel. To analyze the effect of the seven-factors on consumer's decision-making, quantitative research was conducted; this study compared the nationality, gender, college classification to identify differences in shopping patterns between the United States and South Korea. Moreover, to determine present practices of college students' shopping patterns, this study used a type of paper-and-pencil survey technique.

There were four research questions. The first research question was: will there be significantly different shopping patterns in brand consciousness, quality consciousness, recreation consciousness, confusion consciousness, fashion consciousness, impulse consciousness, and price consciousness between university-student consumers in the United States and South Korea? To test the first question, this study consisted of seven dependent variables and one independent variable. The seven dependent variables of the consumer decision-making styles were designated as

brand consciousness, quality consciousness, recreation consciousness, confusion consciousness, fashion consciousness, impulse consciousness, and price consciousness. Two countries, the United States and South Korea, were the independent variable of this study.

The second research question was: will there be significant gender-specific shopping pattern differences in brand consciousness, quality consciousness, recreation consciousness, confusion consciousness, fashion consciousness, impulse consciousness, and price consciousness between the United States and South Korea? To determine the second question, this study consisted of seven dependent variables and one independent variable. The seven dependent variables of the consumer decision-making styles identified were designated as brand consciousness, quality consciousness, recreation consciousness, confusion consciousness, fashion consciousness, impulse consciousness, and price consciousness. To test gender-specific differences between the subjects in the United States and South Korea, male and female were the independent variable.

The third research question was: will there be significant college classification differences in brand consciousness, quality consciousness, recreation consciousness, confusion consciousness, fashion consciousness, impulse consciousness, and price consciousness between university consumers? To examine the question, this study consisted of seven dependent variables and one independent variable. The seven dependant variables of the consumer decision-making styles were designated as brand consciousness, quality consciousness, recreation consciousness, confusion consciousness, fashion consciousness, impulse consciousness, and price consciousness. To test college classification differences, freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior were the independent variable.

The last research question was: what interaction exists among nationality, gender, and college classifications in brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness? To identify interactions among nationality, gender and college classifications, seven dependent variables and three independent variables were tested. The seven dependant variables of the consumer decision-making styles were designated as brand consciousness, quality consciousness, recreation

consciousness, confusion consciousness, fashion consciousness, impulse consciousness, and price consciousness. To test nationality, gender and college classification differences, these categories were the three independent variables.

Study Population and Sample

The population of this study was undergraduate college students enrolled in Lifetime Activity Program (LAP) classes, ranging in age/rank from freshman to senior, at universities in the southeastern region of the United States and at colleges in the southeastern region of South Korea. The reasons for selecting the LAP students are that American and Korean students who enroll in LAP classes may be considered reasonably important consumers of sports apparel; around 4,000 college students take LAP classes each semester in the United States and about 1,000 college students attend the LAP classes each semester in South Korea. It can be said that before graduation, most students take at least one or two class (es); moreover, these students are more interested than most in “working out” during the course of the school year. Participation in sports activities in school generally requires that students consider the issue of clothing. For example, if a student wants to take a martial arts class, he/she may have to wear athletic pants and a shirt during the class.

LAP classes are also offered as electives at colleges in the southeastern regions of the United States and South Korea. Due to students’ abilities to choose these classes, they may be more interested in taking them. Even among disinterested students, the students will have to consider the value of the LAP classes. Therefore, even though students have to take the classes for graduation, they also may or may not be interested in the classes; however, despite the possibility of disinterest, students will still have to consider the issue of appropriate dress.

The total sample size of this study was approximately 1720 students, enrolled in LAP classes in both the United States and South Korea. The sample size adequately represents the given populations, according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970); the recommended minimum sample size for this study is 331, for a 95% confidence level.

Sampling Method and Procedures

This study was conducted using a non-probability sampling method, also known as a convenient sampling. This sampling method is “useful for exploratory research, to get a feel for what’s going on out there, and for pre-testing questionnaires to make sure that the items are unambiguous and not too threatening” (Bernard, 1988, p.97). The LAP classes were divided into eighty sections under sixteen courses in the representative American institution and thirty-one sections under ten courses in the representative Korean institution; these programs included, but were not limited to, activities such as aerobic conditioning, basketball, bowling, golf, volleyball, self-defense, stretch and relaxation, and softball. To collect the data, questionnaires were administered to the college students at the beginning of classes in each country. Before distribution of the questionnaires, permission to conduct the survey was obtained from the administrator of the Human Subjects Committee at the researcher’s home institution.

Data Collection Procedures

This study used the convenient sampling method to collect the data. For data collection, the LAP classes were offered during the fall semester, November 2003 to December, 2003, in the American and Korean universities. The beginnings of terms in both schools coincided; therefore, the surveys were administered concurrently.

This survey attempted to include students, enrolled in LAP classes, at the institutions in both countries, during the semester in which it was administered. To collect the American college student data for this study, instructors of each LAP class were trained to assist with the administration of this study. Prior to distribution of the questionnaires, the instructors informed students about the purpose of this study and explained how to complete the survey. Participation in the survey was voluntary.

To collect college student data from South Korea, 860 questionnaires were mailed to a Korean professor, who was trained by the researcher. The Korean professor trained the LAP instructors to assist with the administration of this study. Prior to distribution of the questionnaires, the instructors informed students about the purpose of this study and explained how to complete the survey. Then, the trained

instructors distributed the questionnaires to their students and collected them upon completion. Participation in the survey was voluntary. All collected surveys were mailed to the researcher.

Instrumentation

In order to develop a more appropriate instrument to test the variables used in this study, it was necessary to conduct a pilot study. The pilot study verified that researchers can correctly manage the test and treatments for this study, using appropriate subjects (Thomas & Nelson, 1996). Through the pilot study, the instrument for shopping characteristics was developed. This study used an appropriately developed instrument to test specific shopping pattern differences between the United States and South Korea.

Pilot Study

The pilot study used undergraduate college students, ranging in age/rank from freshman to senior, in the student recreation center at a southeastern state university, in the United States to develop the appropriate instrument to identify athletic consumers' shopping styles. The total number of participants in the study consisted of forty-eight male and fifty-two female students. Of the 100 voluntary participants, 53% of female (52) and 47% of male (47) students were considered as usable data in the analysis; one survey was deleted because it contained incomplete data.

The instrumentation of this study was revised from the original instrument created by Sproles and Kendall (1986), measuring consumers' shopping styles on the CSI. The original instrument of the CSI consisted of forty items weighing eight factors. Based on the results of the reliability test of the CSI, Cronbach's alpha variables of eight factors were perfectionistic (.69), brand conscious (.63), novelty-fashion conscious (.76), recreational shopping conscious (.71), price-value conscious (.48), impulsive (.41), confused by overchoice (.51), and habitual/brand-loyal (.54).

The revised instrument consisted of two sections: the first section consisted of nine close-ended questions in South Korea and ten closed-ended questions in the United States, and provided data concerning the demographics of respondents. To

identify specifically American college students in the school, one more question about nationality was added to the American questionnaire. The second section consisted of questions relating to consumer decision-making styles modified from a previous study by Sproles and Kendall (1986). The previous survey focused on general shopping dimensions.

The modified survey for this study, however, focused on specific shopping pattern differences for athletic apparel. The questionnaire was designed to measure different shopping orientations on eight factors: perfectionistic/high-quality consciousness, brand consciousness/price equals quality, novelty/fashion consciousness, recreational shopping consciousness, price consciousness/value for money, impulsiveness/carelessness, habit/brand loyalty, and confusion by overchoice, based on the consumer's decision-making styles. This questionnaire consisted of forty items about consumer shopping styles, and these items were designed using a five-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Agree; 2= Agree; 3= Neutral; 4= Disagree; 5= Strongly Disagree).

Validity Test. Validity can be defined as the degree to which a test or instrument measures what it purports to measure, and can be categorized as logical, content, criterion, and construct (Thomas & Nelson, 1996). Of the aforementioned categories of validity test, content validity was conducted in the pilot study. Content validity is defined as a condition that is claimed when a test adequately samples what was covered in the course (Thomas & Nelson, 1996). To test for content validity in the questionnaire for the pilot study, one professor and three doctoral students in sport management participated in this study. As a result of the validity test, several items in section two of the questionnaire were amended and rewritten, because the items were unclear.

Once the questionnaire was rewritten, it was translated by the researcher from the English language into Korean language, to make a version for use with college students in South Korea. To enhance the accurately translated Korean questionnaire, two Korean translators, who had earned doctor of philosophy degrees from an American NASSM-NASPE approved Sport Management doctoral program and

Institution, were employed. The first translator translated the Korean to English, and the second translated the English to Korean to make sure clarity for the sample in South Korea.

Reliability Test. To test the reliability of the forty questionnaire items, exploratory factor analysis was performed using the Statistic Package for the Social Science (SPSS 11.0) software. The factor analysis, principle components factor analysis with varimax rotation (Thomas & Nelson, 1996), was applied to convert the individual items into manageable factors about consumer decision-making styles relating to sporting apparel. As reported in Table 1, the individual items loaded on seven separate factors, with Eigenvalues greater than 1, which together explained 70.2% of the variance. After the factor analysis, a reliability test was performed to find satisfactory reliabilities for each shopping factor in which Cronbach's alpha was used (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). As a result of the reliability test in Table 2, seven factors found to be the most appropriate representation of Korean and American consumer decision-making styles for sports apparel emerged out of the forty individual items divided into eight factors, and twenty-seven items were retained in this study. Therefore, an eight-factor model clearly identified a seven-factor model: (1) brand consciousness, (2) quality consciousness, (3) recreation consciousness, (4) confusion consciousness, (5) fashion consciousness, (6) impulse consciousness, and (7) price consciousness (see Table 2).

The alpha coefficients for each factor in this study are presented in Table 2. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for factor 1, factor 2, factor 3, factor 4, factor 5, and factor 6 were between .66 and .91, indicating satisfactory levels of reliability. However, factor 7 showed low reliability with the alpha coefficient .45, indicating an unsatisfactory level of reliability on consumer shopping characteristics. Even though factor 7 resulted in low reliability, it was decided that the factor could be used in the test of the shopping characteristic, because impulsive characteristics have marginal reliability. So, it reflects the psychological nature of impulsiveness and the youth of the subjects (Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

Table 1.

Result of Exploratory Factor Analysis for Shopping Characteristics for Athletic Apparel

Factor	Items	Factor Loading						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Brand6	.850						
	Brand5	.713						
	Brand2	.708						
	Habit1	.700						
	Brand1	.676						
	Brand3	.622						
2	Quality4		.902					
	Quality2		.901					
	Quality3		.878					
	Quality5		.854					
3	Recreation2			.863				
	Recreation1			.840				
	Recreation5			.715				
	Recreation3			.704				
	Recreation4			.669				
4	Confusion2				.877			
	Confusion3				.822			
	Confusion4				.704			
5	Fashion2					.753		
	Fashion3					.686		
	Fashion1					.685		
	Brand4					.464		
6	Price1						.818	
	Price3						.758	
7	Impulsive5							.739
	Impulsive4							.612
	Impulsive2							.594
	Eigenvalues	3.965	3.793	3.597	2.255	2.095	1.740	1.500
	Variance	14.674	14.050	13.321	8.353	7.759	6.444	5.556

Table 2.

Factor Loadings and Reliability of Each Factor

No.	Items	Factor Loading	Reliability
<i>Brand consciousness</i>			
1.	I choose the well-known, national, or designer brands.	.83	
2.	I usually choose expensive brands.	.83	
3.	I think that the higher price of the product, the better the quality.	.85	
4.	I prefer buying the best-selling product.	.84	
5.	Advertised athletic clothing displayed in window or catalog is usually a good choice.	.85	
6.	I buy my favorite brands over and over.	.86	.87
<i>Quality consciousness</i>			
1.	When it comes to purchasing athletic clothing, I try to get the highest quality.	.90	
2.	I usually try to buy the best quality athletic clothing.	.91	
3.	I make a special effort to choose the best quality athletic clothing.	.90	
4.	My expectations for athletic clothing I buy are very high.	.93	.91
<i>Recreation consciousness</i>			
1.	I shop just for fun.	.81	
2.	Going shopping is one of the fun activities in my life.	.80	
3.	I do my shopping quickly.	.83	
4.	I don't waste my time just shopping.	.83	
5.	Shopping is not a pleasurable activity.	.83	.85
<i>Confusion consciousness</i>			
1.	Sometimes, it's hard to choose which store to shop	.62	
2.	All of the information I get on different products confuses me.	.63	
3.	The more I learn about athletic clothing, the harder it seems to choose the best.	.76	.76
<i>Impulse consciousness</i>			
1.	I am impulsive when I purchase athletic clothing.	.39	
2.	I take the time to shop carefully for best buys.	.28	
3.	I carefully look for damages on the clothing.	.40	.45

Table 2. (continued)

No.	Items	Factor Loading	Reliability
<i>Fashion consciousness</i>			
1.	I usually keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the changing fashions.	.69	
2.	Fashionable, attractive athletic clothing is very important to me.	.69	
3.	I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style.	.69	
4.	Nice department and specialty stores offer me the best product.	.84	.79
<i>Price consciousness</i>			
1.	I buy as much as possible at sale prices.	.66	
2.	I save money as much as I can when shopping	.66	.66

Statistical Data Analysis

The data collected from the survey was tested by the Statistic Package for the Social Science (SPSS 11.5) software. In the first step, demographic analysis was performed. For demographic analysis, nine and ten descriptive statistics for college consumers in the United States and South Korea were analyzed. They included the following: nationality, gender, college classification, shopping frequency, shopping day, shopping hour, store preference, shopping information, shopping companion, and brand preference.

2 (Nationality) X 2 (Gender) X 4 (Classification) MANOVA (a multivariate analysis of variance), and a univariate test were performed to analyze the specific shopping pattern differences of shopping characteristics between college consumers in the United States and South Korea. MANOVA was conducted to identify group differences for variables that consisted of potentially interrelated factors. According to the significance of Wilk's Lambda from the MANOVA, a univariate, ANOVA, test was performed to examine whether group differences on an individual factor existed.

According to Thomas and Nelson (1996), the analysis of variance when a combination of seven dependent variables is made will maximally separate the levels of the independent variables: nationality, genders and college classifications. Additionally, post hoc test, multiple comparisons, was performed to analyze which college classifications differed from the seven factors depending on the significance of ANOVA results. Therefore, *F* ratio and *p* value were used in interpreting the statistically significant difference between male and female subjects on each shopping factor in the United States and in South Korea. An alpha level of .05 was set to test the research questions.

Summary

In this methodology, a pilot test was conducted to develop the appropriate instrument for testing. The pilot study was performed to determine whether or not the questionnaire was valid and reliable. As a result of the pilot study, the questionnaire was developed to determine shopping pattern differences between the American and Korean subjects. This study was conducted by a non-probability sampling method, also known as a convenient sampling method, on the basis of quantitative research method. To identify demographic variables, descriptive statistic was performed. In order to analyze the research questions for this study, 2 X 2 X 4 MANOVA, ANOVA, and post hoc test were performed to identify shopping pattern differences on seven factors between the United States and South Korea.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to use a model of consumer decision-making styles to compare shopping pattern differences of physically active American and Korean college consumers for athletic apparel. To obtain the results of this study, data from students, enrolled in Life-Activity Program (LAP) courses, were collected and analyzed. This chapter consists of results and discussion.

Results

The result section consists of two subsections. The first section contains the demographic description of the samples. The second section presents the findings for each research question. A discussion section is presented based on the findings.

Demographic Description of the Samples

The population of this study was undergraduate college students enrolled in LAPs, ranging in age/rank from freshman to senior, at selected public universities in the southeastern regions of the United States and South Korea. To collect data from the United States and South Korea, a total of 1,720 questionnaires were distributed to American and Korean college students in a period lasting from November through December, 2003. Of these, 860 American and 860 Korean questionnaires were administered and returned to the researcher. Both countries showed a 100 % of response rates (see Table 3).

Of the 860 American survey, 38 (4%) were omitted due to incomplete and missing data. A total of 822 surveys, 376 completed by male students (46%) and 446 completed by female students (54%), were identified as usable data for this study. Of the 860 Korean surveys, 19 (2%) were omitted due to incomplete and missing data.

A total of 841 surveys, 553 completed by male students (66%) and 288 completed by female students (34%), were identified as a usable data (Table 4).

Table 3.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentage of the Survey Return Data

Nationality	Distribution	Returned	Percent (%)
United States	860	860	100
South Korea	860	860	100
Total	1,720	1,720	100

Table 4.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentage of Genders in US and South Korea

Nationality	Gender	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	Male	376	45.7
	Female	446	54.3
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	Male	553	65.8
	Female	288	34.2
	Total	841	100.0

Table 5 shows the frequency distribution and percentage of the classification in the United States and South Korea. To identify the age/rank of college students for this study, Table 5 shows how many college students participated in this study. The total number of subjects in the United States included 136 freshmen (16.5%), 245

sophomores (29.8%), 228 juniors (27.7%), and 213 seniors (25.9%), whereas the total number of subjects in South Korea included 252 freshmen (30.0%), 193 sophomores (22.9%), 175 juniors (20.8%), and 221 seniors (26.3%).

Table 5.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentage of College Classification

Nationality	Classification	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	Freshman	136	16.5
	Sophomore	245	29.8
	Junior	228	27.7
	Senior	213	25.9
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	Freshman	252	30.0
	Sophomore	193	22.9
	Junior	175	20.8
	Senior	221	26.3
	Total	841	100.0

The frequency of best shopping day for athletic apparel in the United States and South Korea is shown in Table 6. The range was from Monday to Sunday. According to the Table 6, 11 (1.3%) American college students shop on Monday, 11 (1.3%) on Tuesday, 30 (3.6%) on Wednesday, 15 (1.8%) on Thursday, 118 (14.4%) on Friday, 550 (66.9%) on Saturday, which appears to be the favored shopping day for college students, and 87 (10.6%) on Sunday. The same table indicates that 8 (1.0%) Korean college students shop on Monday, 10 (1.2%) on Tuesday, 7 (0.8%) on

Wednesday, 10 (1.2%) on Thursday, 73 (8.3%) on Friday, 523 (62.2%) on Saturday, and 210 (25.0%) on Sunday. Based upon these result, American and Korean college students usually shop for athletic apparel during the weekend.

Table 6.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentage of Day of Shopping

Nationality	Day	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	Monday	11	1.3
	Tuesday	11	1.3
	Wednesday	30	3.6
	Thursday	15	1.8
	Friday	118	14.4
	Saturday	550	66.9
	Sunday	87	10.6
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	Monday	8	1.0
	Tuesday	10	1.2
	Wednesday	7	0.8
	Thursday	10	1.2
	Friday	73	8.7
	Saturday	523	62.2
	Sunday	210	25.0
	Total	841	100.0

Table 7 describes the frequency distribution and percentage of shopping hours per visit. American college students showed that 324 (39.4%) spend zero to one hour, 295 (35.9%) spend one-to-two hours, 149 (18.1%) spend two-to-three hours, 41 (5.0%) spend three-to-four hours, and 13 (1.5) answered other. Most American college students, therefore, spend between zero-to-three hours shopping per visit. Korean college students indicated that 82 (9.8%) spend zero-to-one hour for shopping, 277 (32.9%) spend one-to-two hours, 254 (30.2%) spend two-to-three

Table 7.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentage of Shopping Hours Per Visit

Nationality	Hour(s)	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	0-1 hour	324	39.4
	1-2 hours	295	35.9
	2-3 hours	149	18.1
	3-4 hours	41	5.0
	Other	13	1.6
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	0-1 hour	82	9.8
	1-2 hours	277	32.9
	2-3 hours	254	30.2
	3-4 hours	202	24.0
	Other	26	3.1
	Total	841	100.0

hours, 202 (24.0 %) spend three-to-four hours, and 26 (3.1%) answer other. Nearly 62 % of the Korean respondents spend one-to-three hour(s) when shopping for athletic apparel per visit.

The average distribution and percentage of shopping frequency for athletic apparel of the sample is shown in Table 8. American college students responded that 157 (19.1%) shop once a year, 208 (25.3%) twice a year, 165 (20.1%) three times a year, 167 (20.3%) four times a year, and 125 (15.2 %) other. In South Korea, the

Table 8.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentages of Shopping Frequency

Nationality	Shopping Frequency	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	Once a year	157	19.1
	Two times a year	208	25.3
	Three times a year	165	20.1
	Four times a year	167	20.3
	Other	125	15.2
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	Once a year	360	42.8
	Two times a year	241	28.7
	Three times a year	61	7.3
	Four times a year	51	6.1
	Other	128	15.2
	Total	841	100.0

frequency of once a year category was the highest, at 360 (42.5%), while the remainder of responses indicated 241 (28.7%) twice a year, 128 (15.2%) other, 61 (7.3%) three times a year, and 51 (6.1%) four times a year. On average, American and South Korean college students shop at least two times a year for athletic apparel.

Table 9 illustrates the frequency of distribution and percentage of store preference for sport apparel in the United States and South Korea. The American respondents indicated the following store preferences: 392 (47.7%) specialty stores, 230 (28.2%) department stores, 140 (17.0%) discount stores, and 60 (7.3%) others (such as Wal-Mart or Internet stores). In contrast, the Korean respondents indicated the following store preferences: 489 (58.1%) discount stores, 204 (24.3%) department stores, 98 (11.7%) specialty stores, and 50 (5.9%) others. Based upon these findings, American college students are more likely to use specialty stores,

Table 9.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentages of Store Preference

Nationality	Store	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	Department store	230	28.0
	Discount store	140	17.0
	Specialty store	392	47.7
	Other	60	7.3
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	Department store	204	24.3
	Discount store	489	58.1
	Specialty store	98	11.7
	Other	50	5.9
	Total	841	100.0

whereas South Korean college students prefer discount stores when shopping for athletic apparel.

Table 10 describes the frequency of distribution and percentage of shopping information in relation to athletic apparel. In the United States, college students obtain apparel information from television 250 (30.4%), magazines 259 (31.5%), newspapers 52 (6.3%), radio 5 (0.6%), and other 256 (31.1%), such as the internet, friends, word of mouth, at the store, and family. In South Korea, college students get information about apparel from magazines 266 (31.6%), television 171 (20.3%), newspapers 24(2.9%), radio 3 (0.4%), and other 377 (44.8%) such as the internet,

Table 10.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentage of Shopping Information by Media

Nationality	Information	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	Television	250	30.4
	Radio	5	0.6
	Magazine	259	31.5
	Newspaper	52	6.3
	Other	256	31.1
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	Television	171	20.3
	Radio	3	0.4
	Magazine	266	31.6
	Newspaper	24	2.9
	Other	377	44.8
	Total	841	100.0

friends, at the store, and word of mouth. Based upon this finding, it appears that American and South Korean college students similarly obtain information about athletic apparel.

In respect to shopping companions, the American participants indicated that they shop with friends 398 (48.4%), parents 105 (12.8%), by themselves 281 (34.2%), or with some other person 38 (4.6%), such as sibling. The Korean respondents indicated that they shop with friends 622(74.0%), parent 126 (15.0%), by themselves 72(8.6%), or with some other person (2.5%), such as sibling. These findings indicate that while both American and South Korean college-aged consumers are more likely to shop with friends, Americans are more likely to shop alone than Korean college-aged consumers (see Table 11).

Table 11.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentage of Shopping Companion

Nationality	Companion	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	Parent	105	12.8
	Friend	398	48.4
	Alone	281	34.2
	Other	38	4.6
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	Parent	126	15.0
	Friend	622	74.0
	Alone	72	8.6
	Other	21	2.5
	Total	841	100.0

The frequency of distribution and percentage of favorite brand of athletic apparel is shown in Table 12. In the United States, college-aged consumers indicated that their favorite brand is Nike 407 (49.5%), New Balance 39 (4.7%), Adidas 108 (13.1%), Rebook 19 (2.3%), Champion 13 (1.6%), and others 236(28.8%). Of 236 college-aged consumers, 132 (16.1%) responded that they are indifferent to brand and 104 (12.7%) prefer activity casual brands such as Nautica, Gap, and Abercrombie & Fitch.

Table 12.

Frequency of Distribution and Percentage of Favorite Brand

Nationality	Brand	Frequency	Percent (%)
United States	Nike	407	49.5
	New Balance	39	4.7
	Adidas	108	13.1
	Reebok	19	2.3
	Champion	13	1.6
	Others	236	28.8
	Total	822	100.0
South Korea	Nike	335	39.8
	Puma	72	8.6
	Adidas	160	19.0
	Reebok	35	4.2
	Others	259	28.5
	Total	841	100.0

College-aged consumers in South Korea responded that their favorite brand is Nike 335 (39.8%), Adidas 160 (19%), Puma 72 (8.6%), Reebok 35 (4.2%), and others 259 (28.5%). Of 259 college-aged consumers, 67 (8.0%) responded that they are indifferent to brand and 172 (20.5%) indicated that they prefer Korean national sport apparel brands, such as Head, Rapido, Pro-specs, Active, Head, and EXR.

Findings

Four research questions were formulated for this study. The first research question sought to compare American to Korean college-aged consumers and determine how their shopping patterns differ. The second research question was designed to investigate gender-specific shopping pattern differences between college-aged consumers in the United States and South Korea. The third research question was developed to analyze college-aged consumer shopping patterns based on classifications. The last research question was to identify interactions between and among nationality, gender, and college classification.

To analyze the results of each question, multivariate, univariate ANOVA, and post hoc tests were performed. Table 13 includes the results of the multivariate test. The MANOVA results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in nationality (Wilk's Lambda= .64, $F(7, 1641)=129.89, p=.000$) and gender (Wilk's Lambda=.943, $F(7,1641)=14.10, p=.000$), whereas there was no statistically significant difference in college classifications (Wilk's Lambda=.98, $F(21, 4713)=1.27, p=.180$), according to the standard of Wilk's Lambda.

Research Question One. Will there be significantly different shopping patterns in brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness between college-aged consumers in the United States and South Korea?

To investigate American and South Korean college consumers' different shopping patterns, univariate ANOVA's were conducted for each of dependent variables. As a result of this question, it was concluded that there were statistically significant differences in quality consciousness ($F(1, 1647) = 26.71, p = .000$),

Table 13.

The Results of Multivariate Test for Nationality, Gender, and College Classification

		Value	Sig.
Nationality	Wilks' Lambda	.643***	.000
Gender	Wilks' Lambda	.943***	.000
Classifications	Wilks' Lambda	.984	.180
Nationality * Gender	Wilks' Lambda	.975***	.000
Gender * Classifications	Wilks' Lambda	.983	.130
Classification * Nationality	Wilks' Lambda	.983	.135
Nationality * Gender * Classifications	Wilks' Lambda	.986	.358

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

recreation ($F(1, 1647) = 144.81, p = .000$), confusion ($F(1, 1647) = 261.12, p = .000$), fashion ($F(1, 1647) = 78.90, p = .000$), impulse ($F(1, 1647) = 27.11, p = .000$), price ($F(1, 1647) = 268.11, p = .000$), and brand consciousness ($F(1, 1647) = 40.17, p = .000$), at the 0.05 level with p values less than 0.001 in American and Korean college consumers (see Table 14).

After finding the significant difference in these variables between nations, all mean comparisons for each dependent variable was performed. It was found that Korean college-aged consumers were statistically greater than American college-aged consumers on quality ($M=2.69$ versus 2.51), recreation ($M=3.30$ versus 3.00), fashion ($M=3.15$ versus 2.72), impulse ($M=2.92$ versus 2.76), price ($M=2.78$ versus 2.12), and brand consciousness ($M=2.99$ versus 2.78). However, American college-aged consumers were significantly higher than the Korean on confusion consciousness ($M=3.41$ versus 2.76) (see Table 14-1).

Table 14.

Nationality Comparison of the United States and South Korea

Consciousness	<i>SS</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Quality	11.730	1	11.730	26.705***	.000
Recreation	31.267	1	31.267	144.811***	.000
Confusion	146.22	1	146.22	261.120***	.000
Fashion	64.436	1	64.436	78.899***	.000
Impulse	8.360	1	8.360	27.107***	.000
Price	150.785	1	150.785	268.107***	.000
Brand	15.653	1	15.653	40.168***	.000

Wilks' Lambda=0.64; $F=129.89$, $p=.000$

*** $p<.001$

Research Question Two. Will there be significant gender-specific shopping pattern differences in brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness between the United States and South Korea?

To identify male and female college-aged consumers' different shopping patterns in the United States and South Korea, univariate ANOVA's were conducted for each of the dependent variable. According to Table 15, the results indicate that there were statistically significant differences between males and females on quality ($F(1, 1647) = 61.03$, $p = .000$), confusion ($F(1, 1647) = 7.79$, $p = .005$), price ($F(1, 1647) = 12.58$, $p = .000$), and brand consciousness ($F(1, 1647) = 19.53$, $p = .000$), at the 0.05 level with p values less than 0.01. However, there were no statistically significant differences on recreation, fashion, and impulse consciousness between genders in two countries.

After finding significant differences in gender comparisons, all mean comparisons were performed and it was determined that female college consumers ($M=2.74$) manifested a greater tendency toward quality consciousness than male

Table 14-1.

The Results of Mean Comparison for Nationality

Consciousness	Nationality	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>
Quality	American	822	2.507	.024
	Korean	841	2.690	.026
Recreation	American	822	3.003	.017
	Korean	841	3.303	.018
Confusion	American	822	3.410	.027
	Korean	841	2.762	.030
Fashion	American	822	2.721	.032
	Korean	841	3.151	.036
Impulse	American	822	2.763	.020
	Korean	841	2.918	.022
Price	American	822	2.124	.027
	Korean	841	2.782	.030
Brand	American	822	2.782	.022
	Korean	841	2.994	.025

college consumers ($M=2.46$). Moreover, the female consumers ($M=3.14$) were higher than the male ($M=3.03$) on confusion consciousness, and the female consumers ($M=2.96$) were higher than the male ($M=2.81$) on brand consciousness. In fashion consciousness, however, the male consumers ($M=2.96$) were significantly higher than the female ($M=2.91$) (see Table 15-1).

Research Question Three. Will there be significant college classification differences in brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness between American and Korean college-aged consumers?

This question sought to investigate college-aged consumer's shopping pattern differences based on classifications in the United States and South Korea. The results

Table 15.

Gender Comparison of the United States and South Korea

Consciousness	<i>SS</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Quality	26.807	1	26.807	61.032***	.000
Recreation	.734	1	.734	3.399	.065
Confusion	4.361	1	4.361	7.788**	.005
Fashion	.722	1	.722	.883	.347
Impulse	.657	1	.657	2.129	.145
Price	7.074	1	7.074	12.578***	.000
Brand	7.609	1	7.609	19.525***	.000

Wilks' Lambda=0.943; $F=14.10$, $p=.000$

** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

indicated that there were no significant differences among college classifications on quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness in multivariate test. However, even though confusion and brand consciousness was statistically different between the United States and South Korea, as shown in Table 16, it can be said that there were no statistically significant differences on college classifications in the United States and South Korea in confusion and brand consciousness among college classifications according to the multivariate test (Wilk's Lambda= .98, $F(21, 4713)=1.273$, $p=.180$) (see Table 13).

Research Question Four. What interactions exist among nationality, gender, and college age/rank classification in the United States and South Korea?

This question was intended to identify any interaction between nationality and gender, between nationality and college classifications, between gender and college classifications, and among nationality, gender and college classifications. The

Table 15-1.

The Results of Mean Comparison for Gender

Consciousness		<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>
Quality	Male	929	2.460*	.023
	Female	734	2.737*	.027
Recreation	Male	929	3.130	.016
	Female	734	3.176	.019
Confusion	Male	929	3.030*	.025
	Female	734	3.142*	.031
Fashion	Male	929	2.959	.031
	Female	734	2.913	.037
Impulse	Male	929	2.818	.019
	Female	734	2.862	.023
Price	Male	929	2.382*	.025
	Female	734	2.524*	.031
Brand	Male	929	2.814*	.021
	Female	734	2.962*	.026

multivariate MANOVA's results indicated that there was a statistically significant interaction between nationality and gender (Wilk's Lambda=.975, $F(1,1647)=.97$, $p=.000$). However, there were no statistically significant interactions between nationality and college classifications (Wilk's Lambda=.98, $F(21,4712)=1.34$, $p=.135$), between gender and college classifications (Wilk's Lambda=.98, $F(21,4713)=1.35$, $p=.13$), among nationality, gender, and college classifications (Wilk's Lambda=.99, $F(21,4713)=1.08$, $p=.358$) (see Table 13).

To identify interaction between gender and nationality, univariate ANOVA's were conducted for each of the dependent variables. The results in Table 17 indicated that there were statistically significant differences between gender and nationality on quality ($F(1,1647)=7.06$, $p=.008$), price ($F(1,1647)=18.95$, $p=.000$), and brand

Table 16.

College Classification Comparison of United States and South Korea

Consciousness	<i>SS</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Quality	1.409	3	1.409	1.069	.361
Recreation	.242	3	.242	.374	.772
Confusion	4.937	3	4.937	2.939*	.032
Fashion	3.308	3	3.308	1.350	.257
Impulse	1.179	3	1.179	1.274	.282
Price	1.494	3	1.494	.885	.448
Brand	4.289	3	4.289	3.669*	.012

Wilks' Lambda=0.98; $F=1.27$, $p=.180$

* $p<.05$

consciousness ($F(1,1647)=10.23$, $p=.001$), at the 0.05 level with p values less than 0.01 in American and Korean college consumers. However, there were no statistically significant differences between gender and nationality on recreation, confusion, fashion, and impulse consciousness.

Table 17-1 displays the differences between nationality and gender on quality, brand, and price consciousness. To identify mean comparisons between nationality and gender, a post hoc test, Tukey's HSD, was conducted ($p < .05$). In relation to quality consciousness, the result of the Tukey's HSD (.083) indicated that Korean female students ($M=2.78$) exhibited significantly higher levels than Korean male students ($M=2.60$). Also, the result of the Tukey's HSD (.084) indicated that American female students ($M=2.69$) exhibited statistically higher quality consciousness than American male students ($M=2.32$). Moreover, the result of the Tukey's HSD (.079) indicated that Korean male students ($M=2.60$) exhibited significantly higher levels than the American males ($M=2.32$), and the result of the Tukey's HSD (.089) determined that Korean female students ($M=2.78$) exhibited

Table 17.

The Results of Interaction between Nationality and Gender

		<i>SS</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Nationality* Gender	Quality	3.101	1	3.101	7.059**	.008
	Recreation	.346	1	.346	1.602	.206
	Confusion	.0006	1	.0006	.001	.972
	Fashion	.787	1	.787	.963	.326
	Impulse	.560	1	.560	1.815	.178
	Price	10.658	1	10.658	18.950***	.000
	Brand	3.986	1	3.986	10.229**	.001

Wilk's Lambda=0.98; $F=5.91$, $p=.000$ (Nationality * Gender)

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

significantly higher levels than the American females ($M=2.69$) (Figure 4).

In relation to price consciousness, the result of the Tukey's HSD (.098) indicated that Korean female students ($M=2.94$) exhibited statistically higher levels than the Korean males ($M=2.62$); however, the result of the Tukey's HSD (.095) determined there were no statistically significant differences between the American male ($M=2.14$) and female students ($M=2.11$). Also, the result of the Tukey's HSD (.09) indicated that the Korean male students ($M=2.62$) demonstrated statistically higher levels of price consciousness than the American males ($M=2.14$). Moreover, the result of the Tukey's HSD (.1) indicated that the Korean female students ($M=2.94$) exhibited statistically higher levels than the American females ($M=2.11$) (Figure 5).

In relation to brand consciousness, the result of the Tukey's HSD (.078) indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between Korean male ($M=2.97$) and female students ($M=3.01$); however, the result of the Tukey's HSD

Table 17-1.

The Results of Mean Comparison for Gender and Nationality

Consciousness	Gender	Nationality	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>
Quality	Male	American	376	2.321**	.035
		Korean	553	2.599**	.029
	Female	American	446	2.692**	.033
		Korean	288	2.782**	.044
Recreation	Male	American	376	2.964	.024
		Korean	553	3.295	.020
	Female	American	446	3.042	.023
		Korean	288	3.310	.031
Confusion	Male	American	376	3.355	.039
		Korean	553	2.706	.032
	Female	American	446	3.466	.037
		Korean	288	2.819	.050
Fashion	Male	American	376	2.768	.047
		Korean	553	3.150	.039
	Female	American	446	2.675	.045
		Korean	288	3.152	.060
Impulse	Male	American	376	2.721	.029
		Korean	553	2.916	.024
	Female	American	446	2.804	.027
		Korean	288	2.919	.037
Price	Male	American	376	2.140***	.039
		Korean	553	2.623***	.032
	Female	American	446	2.108***	.037
		Korean	288	2.941***	.050
Brand	Male	American	376	2.654**	.033
		Korean	553	2.973**	.027
	Female	American	446	2.909**	.031
		Korean	288	3.014**	.042

(.079) determined the American female students ($M=2.91$) exhibited statistically higher levels than the American males ($M=2.65$). Also, the result of the Tukey's

HSD (.075) indicated that the Korean male students ($M=2.97$) exhibited statistically higher levels of brand consciousness than the American males ($M=2.65$), and the result of the Tukey's HSD (.084) indicated the Korean female students ($M=3.01$) exhibited statistically higher levels than the American females ($M=2.91$) (Figure 6).

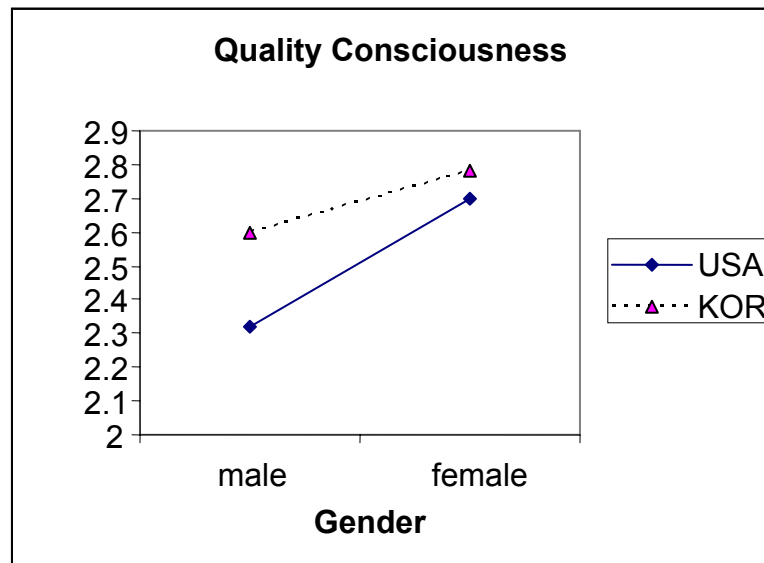


Figure 4.

Gender and Nationality Comparisons of Quality Consciousness

Discussion

The purpose of this section is to apply the interpretation of the results from the analytical statistic techniques. Based on the results, this section is analyzed, reported and discussed in the remaining portion of this study.

Nationality Comparison

The first research question sought to find significantly different shopping patterns in quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness between American and Korean college-aged consumers. According to

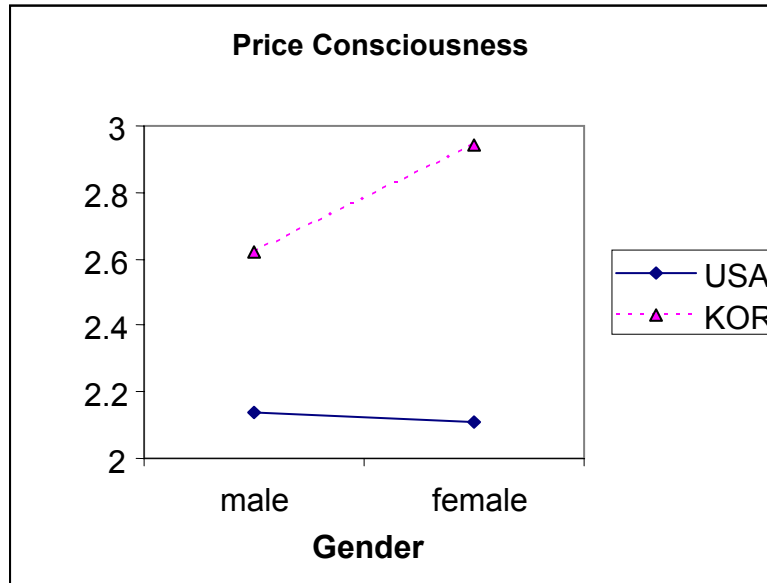


Figure 5.

Gender and Nationality Comparisons of Price Consciousness

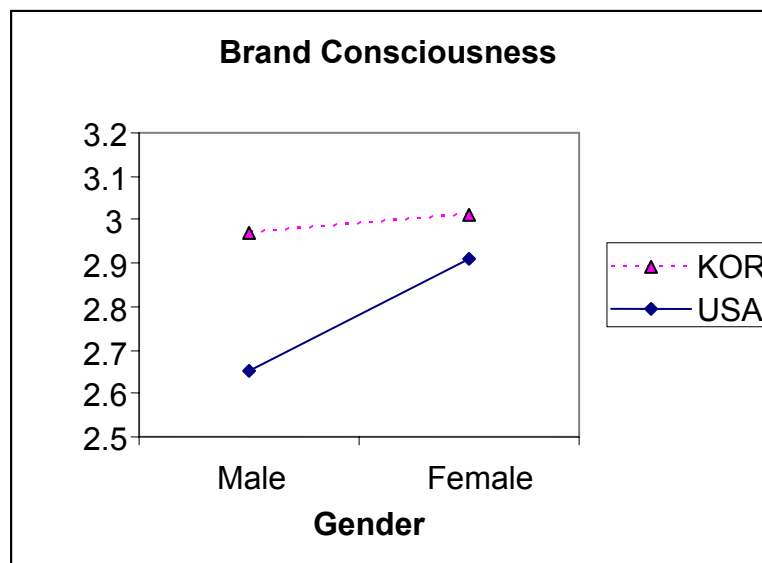


Figure 6.

Gender and Nationality Comparisons of Brand Consciousness

Table 14, American and Korean college-aged students exhibited statistically significant differences on all consciousnesses. Of those significant differences in consciousness, Korean college-aged students were more interested in quality, recreation, fashion, impulse, price and brand consciousness, where as American college-aged students showed more confusion consciousness (see Table 14-1).

Previous literature has shown that young American consumers are similar to young Korean consumers on brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousnesses (Hafstrom, et al., 1992). However, as a result of this study, it was found that American and Korean college-aged consumers have different shopping styles for sports apparel on those consciousnesses. Fan & Xiao (1998) stated that due to different economic environments and cultural backgrounds, the purchasing power of average Asian students is probably much lower than that of the average of western college students; the purchasing power of college-aged students may depend substantially upon their country's economic growth.

Culture also has a significant effect upon consumer's behavior (Best & Williams, 1997); consumers' characteristics and preferences have been shown to differ as a result of cultural diversity. Despite being of the same sex, western women have more modern, egalitarian attitudes than eastern women, although the attitudes of eastern women have become more egalitarian and individualistic over the past two decades (Suzuki, 1991).

According to Best and Williams (1993), the scope and progression of young consumers' behaviors are considered, determined, and controlled by culture. For example, in some countries, there is little difference between the stereotypical roles of men and women, but in others there exists great difference. Therefore, the focus of male and female consumers' behaviors may manifest differently as a result of cultural differences.

Gender and Classification Comparison

Research question two was intended to identify gender-specific shopping pattern differences between the United States and South Korea. The results of this study revealed that male and female college students were found to have statistically

significant differences on quality, confusion, price, and brand consciousness. However, there were no statistically significant differences between male and female college-aged consumers on recreation, fashion, and impulse consciousness in the two countries (see Table 15). Of those significant differences between genders, female college students demonstrated a higher preponderance than the male in relation to quality, recreation, price, and brand consciousness (see Table 15-1). Research question three was intended to identify shopping pattern differences of college age/rank classification in the United States and South Korea. The results demonstrated no statistically significant differences between freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors for athletic apparel.

According to Best and Williams (1993), gender differences are based on social roles. The diversity in male and female roles demonstrates that different circumstances between genders are the result of environment (Buss, 1990; Nisbett, 1990; Low, 1989). It has been argued, however, that men and women are much more biologically and psychologically similar than different (Best & Williams, 1997).

The different characteristics between men and women result in different preferences in relation to shopping. Men are believed to be more aggressive, dominant, autonomous, exhibitionistic, and achievement-oriented, whereas women are believed to be more emotional, nurturing, deferential, and self-abasing (Suzuki, 1991; Williams & Best, 1990). Moreover, while men have greater responsibilities in relation to external activities, women have greater accountabilities in relation to internal, economic, activities (Williams & Best, 1990). Because male consumers are more active and stronger than the female (Best & Williams, 1997), it can be said that male and female college-aged students demonstrate different shopping styles due to the characteristics of men and women.

Up to this point, there were significantly different shopping characteristics found. According to previous researches (Best & Williams, 1993; Darley & Smith, 1995; Best & Williams, 1997; Fan & Xiao, 1998; Walsh et al., 2001), it can be assumed that the differences between genders and between nationalities were affected by culture, sex roles, economic situations, and environments. Therefore, sports apparel companies should more carefully study cultural backgrounds, gender

characteristics, and environmental differences before developing marketing strategies.

Summary of Results

Three main findings of importance resulted from this study.

1. There were statistically significant differences in relation to quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price, and brand consciousness between American and Korean college-aged students. The Korean consumers demonstrated a statistically greater tendency toward quality, recreation, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness than the American consumers. The American consumers demonstrated higher confusion consciousness than the Korean college consumers.

2. There were statistically significant differences on quality, confusion, price, and brand consciousness between genders in the United States and South Korea. The female college students demonstrated higher quality, recreation, confusion, impulse, and brand consciousness than the male, whereas male college consumers demonstrated a higher level of fashion consciousness than the female, in the United States and South Korea.

3. There were no statistically significant differences on quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness in relation to college age/rank classifications.

4. There were interactions between nationality and gender; however, there were no interactions between nationality and college age/rank classifications, gender and college age/rank classifications, and among nationality, gender, and college classifications. In the interactions between nationality and gender, American male and female college students demonstrated greater differences than Korean male and female college students on quality and brand consciousness. Differences between Korean male and female college students were higher than the differences between American male and female college students on price consciousness.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is summarized and divided into four main sections: summary, conclusions, implications and recommendations. The first section, summary, discusses the purpose of the study along with the findings. The second section, conclusions, describes the implications of the findings, and finally the recommendations contain suggestions for future research.

Summary

As indicated previously in the literature reviewed, consumer decision-making styles have been studied internationally. Decision-making styles provide an important key which a company may develop a precise marketing strategy to sell its products to specific consumers. Previous studies have been conducted relating to general shopping styles with general products. Therefore, to find specific shopping styles for athletic apparel, this study used a modified version of the consumer decision-making styles inventory to investigate shopping pattern differences between college-aged consumers at selected institutions in the United States and South Korea. Four main research questions were employed to compare nationality, gender, and college classification.

This study used a consumer decision-making style model, developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986), to determine college-aged consumer's shopping pattern differences in relation to athletic apparel. To identify shopping pattern factors for athletic apparel, a pilot study was conducted with 40 items, organized under eight shopping factors, with 100 LAP college students. The pilot study identified 27 items, organized under seven factors: brand, quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, and price consciousness. After the pilot test was performed, the study of shopping

pattern differences between the American and Korean participants was conducted, using only seven shopping factors with four major research questions.

A questionnaire containing 35 questions was distributed in Tague, South Korea, to 862 Korean college students taking LAP classes, and a questionnaire with 36 items was distributed in Tallahassee, Florida, in the United States, to 839 college students taking the LAP classes. Due to mingling of ethnic groups and nationalities in the United States, one of the questions on American questionnaire asked about nationality. After data were collected, from both countries, 822 American and 841 Korean college students from the total 1,701 samples were deemed usable for this study. The questionnaire consisted of two main parts: Demographic information and shopping style questions.

The findings demonstrated that American and Korean college-aged consumers reflected differences in relation to patterns of quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness. The Korean consumers demonstrated significantly higher levels of quality, recreation, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness than the American, whereas the American college consumers reflected a significantly greater tendency toward confusion consciousness than the Korean.

The findings also demonstrated gender-specific shopping pattern differences, relating to athletic apparel, in the United States and South Korea. The results showed that male and female college-aged consumers exhibit different shopping patterns on quality, confusion, price, and brand consciousness. The female participants manifested greater tendencies toward quality, recreation, confusion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness than the male. The male participants, on the other hand, exhibited higher levels of fashion consciousness than the female.

In the comparison of college age/rank classifications in the United States and South Korea, the results indicated that freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors exhibit similar shopping patterns on quality, recreation, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness based on a multivariate test. Moreover, in the interaction tests among nationality, gender, and college classifications, there was an interaction between nationality and gender on quality, price, and brand consciousness. In the

interaction between nationality and gender in post hoc test, the results showed that American male and female college students exhibit greater differences than Korean male and female college students on quality and brand consciousness. However, the differences between Korean male and female college students were greater than those between American male and female college students on price consciousness.

Conclusions

Examining shopping-pattern differences is an important area of inquiry in the vast understanding of consumer behavior. Primarily, because consumer shopping patterns differ significantly in previous studies, this study has been focused on the specific shopping-pattern differences, in relation to athletic apparel, between male and female college-aged consumers in the United States and South Korea.

As sports are globalized, sport products are being sold more often nationally and internationally rather than locally. Consumers' shopping characteristics are important factors when sports apparel companies develop promotional and distribution strategies. Consumers exhibit different characteristics and market behaviors, and they often have different shopping orientations, which may be based upon nationality. These differences are affected by culture, gender role, economic situations, and environment according to previous research (Buss, 1990; Low, 1989, Nisbett, 1990; Suzuki, 1991; Williams & Best, 1990; Williams, 1993). Athletic apparel companies must, therefore, learn more about the distinctive characteristics of sports consumers, especially the sports apparel wearing college-aged consumers.

First, in comparing nationality-based differences between the United States and South Korea, the results of this study demonstrated American and Korean college-aged consumers reflect shopping-pattern differences in relation to quality, recreation, confusion, fashion, impulse, price, and brand consciousness. According to a recent study (Hui, Siu, Wang, & Chang, 2001), American and Korean college-aged consumers reflect different cultural situations. Culture has a substantial effect on consumer behavior (Best & William, 1993). Due to cultural diversity, consumers' characteristics and preferences may manifest differently. Although American and Korean college-aged consumers are certainly conscious of brand, Korean college-

aged consumers are, according to the IMF (International Monetary Fund), more focused on price than brand (Consumer profile research, 2002). It can be assumed that, due to economic problems in South Korea, most consumers are more sensitive to price than brand. Based upon such examples, sports apparel companies should sufficiently examine the cultural background and economic situation, before attempting to export products to other countries.

Second, to identify gender-specific shopping pattern differences between the United States and South Korea, the results of this study indicated that male and female college students exhibited statistically significant differences on quality, confusion, price, and brand consciousness. American male and female college students demonstrated greater differences than Korean male and female college students on quality and brand consciousness. However, the differences between Korean male and female college students were greater than the differences between American male and female college students on price consciousness.

According to Best and Williams (1997), men and women occupy with differential frequency based on reserved for the social roles. In addition, men have more responsibility for external activity such as economic; however, women have greater responsibility for internal activity such as nursing. The differences in gender roles are the result of different environmental factors (Buss, 1990; Nisbett, 1990; Low, 1989). Due to different activities between men and women, different preferences are exhibited when shopping. However, Best and Williams (1997) emphasized that biological and psychological motivations of men and women are much more similar than they are different. Sports apparel companies should, therefore, be mindful of the gender-role differences between the two countries prior to developing target market strategies.

Implications

This section provides the theoretical and practical implication of this study.

Theoretical Implications

This study focused on shopping pattern differences between Korean and

American college students for athletic apparel. Most previous studies have been conducted with the aim of identifying a theoretical framework for measuring consumer decision-making styles in general business, as developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986). No study has been undertaken to measure consumer decision-making styles in relation to athletic apparel. This study, therefore, extended a specific consumer decision-making style, used in previous research, for sports apparel.

The findings of this study have implications for developing consumer education in the United States and South Korea. The proposed model for this study consisted of seven shopping consciousnesses in consumer decision-making styles, in the specific area of athletic apparel, between two countries. The shopping consciousnesses in this model are important concepts in consumer decision-making styles; therefore, the proposed model may be used to develop better consumer decision-making style guidelines in consumer education. In addition, it can be used as a conceptual background in future studies relating to the shopping behaviors of athletic apparel consumers.

This study may also be used as a source for more detailed information when educating sport management students about consumer shopping behaviors, for athletic apparel, in the United State and South Korea. According to the results of this study, the similarities and differences between college-aged consumers in the two countries can be used to assist students, in consumer economics and marketing, in better understanding the commonalities and differences of consumer behavior from different cultures.

Practical Implications

As sports are continued to become more globalized, consumers are not only interested in game outcome, but also in products. A study of consumer decision-making styles is an important area in sport marketing strategy. Information about consumers' decision-making styles can be useful for corporations when targeting Korean and American college-aged markets.

Profiling college consumers by combining their decision-making styles and demographic information between the two countries can provide more meaningful

ways to identify and understand various consumer segments and to target each segment with more focused marketing strategies. According to this study, Korean college-aged consumers tend to stick with brand, price, quality, and fashion when shopping. Brand conscious shoppers usually focus on higher quality with higher price; therefore, sports apparel marketers display diverse brands in stores. Price conscious shoppers are sensitive to price and attempt to find the lowest price with the best value; therefore, sports apparel marketers develop precise marketing strategies with diverse and reasonable prices introduced through advertising. Retailers can provide good value and present a variety of clothing in sports apparel stores. Fashion and Quality conscious shoppers desire high quality with new styles. Therefore, sports apparel marketers focus on diverse designs, sizes, and colors, and can introduce their products through fashion shows, magazines, and television. Most Korean consumers have strong relationships with listening (word of mouth); therefore, sports apparel marketers can focus on word of mouth to build unique brand recognition and loyalty through promotions in South Korea.

In contrast to South Korean college-aged consumers, according to the findings of this study, American college-aged consumers were more confused when shopping. Due to diverse international sports brands displayed in sports apparel stores, television and print magazine's most consumers tend to be confused by overchoice. Due to problems with store arrangement and unclear price tags, the consumers are confused when selecting sports products. Therefore, sport marketers and retailers can build a unique store environment and better customer services so that college-aged consumers can be impressed and more likely to returned to the store.

According to this study, female consumers were more concerned with brand, quality and price. Due to this sensitivity to brands, sports apparel marketers need to develop diverse and reasonable prices, with high quality products, to better fit female consumer consideration. However, male college consumers focus on fashion when shopping for athletic apparel. For targeting these consumers, sports apparel marketers should focus on strong fashionable and functional styles to better appeal to the demographic through the various sports magazines and television advertising.

Up to this point, Korean and American sports apparel marketers can position their brands as reputable and high quality through the use of word of mouth, fashion magazines, advertisement on television, and special weekend promotions to make college consumers consider purchasing more sports apparel. Moreover, they can develop joint ventures with local companies so that they can emphasize more promotional programs.

Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are offered primarily to sports apparel marketers and retailers:

1. This study used a convenient sample rather than a random sample because it was difficult to collect a Korean random sample from the United States. If sports apparel marketers and retailers use the results of this study in the “real world,” subtle differences may exist. It is, therefore, recommended that randomly selected diverse and geographical samples should be used to find specific shopping patterns in each sports product.
2. This study used a revised instrument from an original instrument. To develop a more powerful questionnaire for sports apparel, it is recommended that more shopping consciousness factors related to specific sports apparel should be developed.
3. This study compared American and Korean college-aged consumers in relation to shopping consciousnesses for sports apparel. As shown in the findings, different national consumers had different shopping characteristics for sports apparel. As sports are more globalized, most international sports consumers need and want to purchase international sports brand apparel. It is, therefore, recommended that more cross-cultural study addressing shopping pattern differences among countries should be conducted.
4. This study focused on shopping characteristics for sports apparel. There are many kinds of items under the heading of sports apparel; therefore, it is recommended that questions be developed to in relation to shopping

characteristics associated with specific sports apparel, such as shoes or golf clubs.

5. The population of this study used college students enrolled in Life Activity Courses. The choice of population is very important when sports apparel marketers attempt to sell products, because different populations exhibit different shopping styles. It is therefore recommended that studies examining religion, race, job status, and income level should be conducted in relation to specific target markets.
6. The numbers of Internet users who are interested in sports products have been growing rapidly. Finding an internet shopper's characteristics is very important when developing marketing strategies and marketing products, considering e-commerce growth. It is, therefore, recommended that a study of Internet consumers' shopping characteristics should be conducted in the future.

APPENDIX A
SURVEY COVER LETTER

(English Version)

Survey Cover Letter

Dear Participant:

My name is Sungwon Bae. I am a doctoral student, majoring in Sport Administration at the Florida State University. I am doing research between Korean and American college-age consumers for athletic clothing to determine how sports marketing can effectively target gender-oriented shopping characteristics. Athletic clothing is growing in the marketplace. It is hard to choose clothing because of many different brand names. Therefore, I am conducting this study to identify college consumers' shopping styles for athletic clothing.

The questionnaires will be completely anonymous. There is no way to identify you on the questionnaires before or after you fill out. Therefore, please read each question carefully, following the instructions given for each part, and answer as honestly as possible. Participation is voluntary and will not affect grades. There are no correct and incorrect answers for each question.

Thank you for your valuable time in helping me to learn about your shopping styles for athletic clothing. The data that you are providing will be used in my dissertation, and may be helpful to provide information to domestic sports apparel companies.

Your cooperation and participation in my study will be greatly appreciated. By filling out this questionnaire, you are given your consent form to participate in this project. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at (850) 504-9212 or email me at swb6528@garnet.acns.fsu.edu. Also, you can contact Dr. Jackson at (850) 644-5773 or email him at njackson@coe.fsu.edu. If you have further questions, please contact Human Subjects Committee at (850) 644-8633.

Florida State University

Doctoral Student: Sungwon Bae



SURVEY COVER LETTER

(Korean Version)

설문 응답자 여러분께

안녕 하십니까? 저는 플로리다 주립 대학에서 스포츠 경영학과를 전공 하고 있는 박사 과정 학생입니다. 현재 저는 미국과 한국 사이에서 운동복에 대한 남녀 대학생 소비자들의쇼핑 성향에 대해서 연구 조사 하고 있습니다.

이 연구와 관련하여 귀하의 설문 참여에 대한 협조를 요청 하고자 합니다. 이 설문은 여러분들이 자율적으로 참여 하실수 있고, 만약 이 설문에 참여를 원하지 않으시면 그만 두셔도 됩니다. 그리고 설문 참여 결정 후에도 언제든지 그만 두실수 있습니다. 이 설문에 성명 및 개인 정보를 기재하지 않으므로 귀하의 신상은 밖으로 노출되지 않으며 본 설문의 결과는 저의 연구에만 사용 될 것입니다.

본 설문은 정답과 오답이 없습니다. 다만 대학생의 운동복 쇼핑 성향을 분석하기 위하여 귀하의 경험과 의견을 알기 위한 것입니다. 모든 설문지 안에 있는 질문들을 빠트리지 마시고 가능한 솔직히 답변해 주시기 바랍니다.

혹시 이와 관련하여 질문사항이 있으시면 미국 850-504-9212 혹은 이메일 swb6528@garnet.acns.fsu.edu 로 연락 주시면 정성껏 답변 해 드리겠습니다.

이 설문에 응답 해 주신 귀하의 시간과 노력에 대단히 감사 드립니다.

플로리다 주립대학교

스포츠 경영학과 박사과정

설문 의뢰인 배성원 올림

APPENDIX B
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

(English Version)

Shopping Pattern Survey

For each of the following statements, please fill in the blanks or circle one number.

1. Gender: 1. Male 2. Female

2. Nationality: _____

3. College year: 1. Freshmen 2. Sophomore
 3. Junior 4. Senior
 5. Graduate

4. How often do you go shopping for athletic apparel?
 1. Once a year 2. Two times a year
 3. Three times a year 4. Four times a year
 5. Others _____

5. What day do you usually go shopping for athletic apparel?
 1. Monday 2. Tuesday
 3. Wednesday 4. Thursday
 5. Friday 6. Saturday
 7. Sunday

6. How many hours do you spend shopping on each excursion for athletic apparel?
 1. 0-1 hour 2. 1-2 hours
 3. 2-3 hours 4. 3-4 hours
 5. Others _____

7. Which store do you prefer to purchase athletic apparel?
 1. Department store 2. Discount store
 3. Other _____

8. Where do you obtain information about sport apparel before shopping?
 1. Television 2. Radio
 3. Magazine 4. Newspaper
 5. Others _____

9. Who do you shop with when you purchase athletic apparel?
 1. Parent 2. Friend
 3. Alone 4. Others _____

10. What is your favorite brand when you purchase athletic apparel? (e.g. Nike.....)

For each of the following statements, please circle the numbers that indicate the degree of influence on your decision-making styles when shopping.

“1=Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3=Neutral 4=Disagree 5=Strongly Disagree”

If you want to shop for **athletic clothing only**:

	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. I choose the well-known, national, or designer brands.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I usually choose expensive brands.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I think that the higher price of the product, the better the quality.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I prefer buying the best-selling product.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Advertised athletic clothing displayed in window or catalogs is usually a good choice.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I buy my favorite brands over and over.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When it comes to purchasing athletic clothing, I try to get the highest quality.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I usually try to buy the best quality athletic clothing.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I make a special effort to choose the best quality athletic clothing.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My expectations for athletic clothing I buy are very high.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I shop just for fun.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Going shopping is one of the fun activities in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I do my shopping quickly.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I don't waste my time just shopping.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Shopping is not a pleasurable activity.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Sometimes, it's hard to choose which store to shop.	1	2	3	4	5
17. All of the information I get on different products confuse me.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The more I learn about athletic clothing, the harder it seems to choose the best.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I usually keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the changing fashions.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Fashionable, attractive athletic clothing is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I usually have one or more outfits of the very latest style.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Nice department and specialty stores offer me the best product.	1	2	3	4	5

“1=Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3=Neutral 4=Disagree 5=Strongly Disagree”

	SA	A	N	D	SD
23. I am impulsive when I purchase athletic clothing.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I take the time to shop carefully for best buys.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I carefully look for damages on the clothing.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I buy as much as possible at sale prices.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I save money as much as I can when shopping.	1	2	3	4	5

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

(Korean Version)

남녀 대학생들의 쇼핑 성향 설문지

1-9까지는 귀하의 일반적인 상황입니다 (해당란에 O를 해 주시기 바랍니다.)

1. 귀하의 성별은 무엇입니까?

1. 남성	2. 여성
-------	-------

2. 귀하의 학년은 무엇입니까?

1. 1학년	2. 2학년
3. 3학년	4. 4학년

3. 귀하는 일반적으로 언제 쇼핑을 자주 가십니까?

1. 월요일	2. 화요일
3. 수요일	4. 목요일
5. 금요일	6. 토요일
7. 일요일	

4. 귀하는 일반적으로 얼마 동안 쇼핑을 하십니까?

1. 0-1 시간	2. 1-2 시간
3. 2-3 시간	4. 3-4 시간
5. 기타: _____	

5. 귀하는 운동복을 구매하기 위해 얼마 만큼 자주 쇼핑을 가십니까?

1. 일년에 한번	2. 일년에 두번
3. 일년에 세번	4. 일년에 네번
5. 기타: _____	

6. 귀하는 운동복을 구매 하기 위해 어디를 찾습니까?

1. 백화점	2. 상설 할인 판매점
3. 기타 _____	

7. 귀하는 쇼핑 가기전에 운동복에 관한 정보를 어디에서 얻습니까?

1. 텔레비전	2. 라디오
3. 잡지책	4. 신문
5. 기타 _____	

8. 귀하는 운동복을 구매 하기위해 누구와 동행 합니까?

1. 부모	2. 친구
3. 혼자	4. 기타 _____

9. 귀하는 운동복을 구매 할때 가장 좋아 하는 운동복의 상표 명은 무엇입니까?
(예를들면, 나이키.....)

1-27 질문은 귀하의 쇼핑 성향에 관한 질문들입니다 (해당되는 란에 “O”를 해 주시기 바랍니다.)

“ 1= 매우 동의함 2= 동의함 3= 그저 그렇다 4= 동의 안함 5= 전혀 동의 안함”

만약 귀하께서 운동복 구매를 위해 쇼핑을 하신다면:

1. 나는 유명 상표 또는 디자인너들의 상표를 선호한다	1	2	3	4	5
2. 나는 대부분 비싼 상표들을 선호한다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 나는 상품이 고가 일수록 상품의 질이 높다고 생각한다	1	2	3	4	5
4. 나는 매우 잘 팔리는 상품을 사는 것을 더 좋아 한다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 잡지 책에 광고된 운동복이나 진열된 상품이 좋은 선택이다.	1	2	3	4	5
6. 나는 내가 좋아하는 유명 상표만 구매한다.	1	2	3	4	5
7. 나는 운동복을 사러 갔을때 품질 좋은 상품만을 구매 선호 한다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 나는 대부분 품질 좋은 운동복만을 구매 하려는 편이다.	1	2	3	4	5
9. 나는 가장 품질 좋은 운동복을 구매 하기 위해 특별한 노력을 한다.	1	2	3	4	5
10. 내가 구매한 운동복의 품질에 대한 기대치가 매우 높다.	1	2	3	4	5
11. 나는 단지 쇼핑을 즐긴다.	1	2	3	4	5
12. 쇼핑은 나의 생활 에서 하나의 즐거운 여가 활동이다.	1	2	3	4	5
13. 나는 쇼핑시간을 짧은 편이다.	1	2	3	4	5
14. 쇼핑은 나에게 단지 시간 낭비이다.	1	2	3	4	5
15. 쇼핑은 나에게 즐거운 여가 활동이 아니다.	1	2	3	4	5
16. 때로는 상점선택이 나에게서 힘들다.	1	2	3	4	5
17. 다양한 상품 종류는 선택에 혼동을 준다.	1	2	3	4	5
18. 내가 운동복에 대해서 많이 알면 알 수록 좋은 상품을선택 할때 많은 어려움을 느낀다.	1	2	3	4	5
19. 나는 새로운 유행과 패션에 따라 운동복을 계속해서 바꾼다.	1	2	3	4	5
20. 세련되고 유행하는 스타일은 운동복 선택에서 가장 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5

“ 1= 매우 동의함 2= 동의함 3= 그저 그렇다 4= 동의 안함 5= 전혀 동의 안함”

21. 나는 최신 스타일의 운동복을 좋아 한다.	1	2	3	4	5
22. 백화점이나 전문 상점들은 양질의 상품을 판매한다.	1	2	3	4	5
23. 나는 운동복을 살때 충동적으로 구매 한다.	1	2	3	4	5
24. 나는 좋은 운동복 구매를 위해 시간을 신중히 보낸다.	1	2	3	4	5
25. 나는 혹시 물품의 손상이 있는지 조심하게 살핀다.	1	2	3	4	5
26. 나는 가능한 한 할인된 운동복 들만 구매한다.	1	2	3	4	5
27. 나는 쇼핑을 할때 가능한 돈을 많이 쓰지 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C
HUMAN SUBJECT APPROVAL LETTER



Office of the Vice President
For Research
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2763
(850) 644-8673 · FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Human Subjects Committee

Date: 6/16/2003

Sungwon Bae
1800 Miccosukee Commons Dr. #110
Tallahassee, FL 32308

Dept.: Sport Management

From: David Quadagno, Chair 

Re: **Use of Human Subjects in Research**
Shopping pattern differences of Korean and American college-age consumers for athletic apparel.

The forms that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be exempt per 45 CFR § 46.101(b) 2 and has been approved by an accelerated review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If the project has not been completed by **6/15/2004** you must request renewed approval for continuation of the project.

You are advised that any change in protocol in this project must be approved by resubmission of the project to the Committee for approval. Also, the principal investigator must promptly report, in writing, any unexpected problems causing risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the chairman of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols of such investigations as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Protection from Research Risks. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: E Newton Jackson
HSC No. 2003.283

APPENDIX D
PERMISSION LETTER FOR SURVEY

The University of Wisconsin Press
1930 Monroe St. 3rd floor
Madison, WI 53711-2059

January 20, 2003

Dear Ms. Margaret Walsh:

My name is Sungwon Bae. I am a doctoral student at the Florida State University, majoring in a Sport Administration. I am writing my doctoral dissertation. My topic is to compare differences in gender-specific shopping patterns among American and Korean college-age consumers for athletic clothing. Based on the topic, I want to use Table 1. Consumer Style Characteristics: Eight Factor Model, invented by Dr. Sproles and Kendall (1986) for my dissertation. However, I need to get a permission to use it to my dissertation. Please consider my request. Also, additional information that I want to use is below.

Topic: A methodology for profiling consumers' decision-making styles
Authors: George B. Sproles and Elizabeth L. Kendall.
Source: The Journal of Consumer Affairs, Vol. 20, No. 2, 1986.
Page: P. 272-273 (Table 1. Consumer Style Characteristics: Eight Factor Model)

I send my best wishes and look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely yours,

Sungwon Bae.

1/22/03

Permission granted; dissertation use only.

Vivian Smith

The University of Wisconsin Press
1930 Monroe St. 3rd Floor
Madison, WI 53711-2059

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

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