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ROLE ORIENTATIONS AND FAMILY PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR :

**MODELLING THE RELATIONSHIPS FOR TIME
SAVING AND EFFORT-SPARING DURABLES**

ABDELFATTAH TRIKI

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements of the
University of Northumbria at Newcastle
for the degree of Philosophy Doctorate**

**In collaboration with the Tunis University of Law, Economics and Business
(Tunis III)**

November 1998

**PAGE NUMBERS CLOSE
TO THE EDGE OF THE
PAGE
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To the memory of my mother.

ABSTRACT

This research provides a theory for modelling the relationships between role orientations and family purchasing behaviour. By taking the case of time-saving and effort-sparing (TSES) durables and by apprehending spouses as consumers and actors at the same time, a comprehensive model is constructed in terms of input, process, and outcome. Input consists of socioeconomic characteristics of the household and output consists of product ownership (HPO), purchasing influence strategies (PIS), and purchasing role configurations (PRC).

For the process components, the model magnifies the role orientations into role ideology (RI), role overload, (RO) and role performance (RP) and proposes a new construct: Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI). PPI is meant to account for consumption experiences that help role actors facilitate performance, reinforce identity and warrant compatibility with self-perception. Built from an interdisciplinary perspective, the model is believed to enhance the understanding of family purchasing and to account for differences among families in TSES product ownership, purchasing role configurations, and purchasing influence strategies use.

As a step towards model testing, focus-group interviews with four panels of household members were used to assess the theoretical relevance for PPI and to generate substantive items for its measurement. These were three groups of women and one group of men. Content analyses confirmed the assumption that possessions, particularly TSES durables, were appreciated by role actors for their utilitarian, interpersonal, pleasure, and identity values. These values, which echoed previous consumer behaviour conceptualisations, were proposed to be the main facets of PPI.

On the basis of typical statements made by the participants and on previous literature, a 33-item scale was proposed as a tool for PPI measurement. A preliminary survey was used for unidimensionality assessment and PPI scale reduction. Four identical lists of 33 items, each corresponding to one durable, were administered to a convenience sample of 46 respondents. Exploratory factor and reliability analyses revealed that the 15-items scale could be proposed for PPI operationalisation.

In order to constitute a data bank for model testing, a large scale survey was conducted among 480 families within a modern urban Tunisian middle class context. As preliminary steps, reliability analyses and purifications of the process components of the model were undertaken via latent structure modelling. The reduced scales were then integrated into a system's framework to evaluate their relationship with PPI. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the adequacy of the process components measurement scales and structural path coefficients of the RI, RO, and RP relationships with PPI were calculated. Not all the hypothesized relationships were found to be significant, but the parts were interrelated in such a way that excluding any one from the proposed comprehensive model might distort the whole.

Finally, ownership of three TSES products by the surveyed families was predicted on the basis of the household's characteristics (number of children, hired-help use, home-ownership), the men's as well as the women's socio-demographics (education, income, employment status, and age) and role orientations (RI, RO, RP and PPI) via stepwise logistic regressions. Results confirmed the assumption that the inclusion of RI, RO, RP, and PPI enhanced the predictability of the socio-demographic variables for household TSES product ownership prediction.

The relationship of socio-demographics and role orientations with TSES product ownership were found to be different for men and women, whereby the women's PPI paralleled the men's income, and to be different for major and for minor durables whereby more variability was accounted for the former than for the latter. This seems to lead to the conclusion that the proposed model be more relevant to the high than to the low involvement TSES products.

Theoretically, the model is deemed comprehensive and generalizable. It is comprehensive because the different facets of PPI conveniently combine previous important consumer behaviour conceptualizations: buying as problem solving and need satisfaction processes, consumer involvement, and the self-concept theory. It is generalizable because it may be applicable not only to TSES durables but, eventually, to any TSES consumer products that are identifiable as role-based, time-saving and effort-sparing. I contend however that the framework will account for more variability in the former than in the latter cases.

Practically, the model can be helpful for market information and communication. By understanding who does what in the TSES buying process and by investigating both spouses' roles orientations, consumer data collection will no longer be based on stereotypical assumptions about spouses' roles. Market researchers will rather consider the involvement of previously non-involved informants in the choice of consumer panels (e.g. men in focus-groups about diapers and dishwashers, women in in-depth interviews about office equipment and car-maintenance services). Information based on the proposed framework will help marketers select more effective communication appeals emphasizing subjective, symbolic, intangible appeals such as identity preservation and self-concept reinforcement, rather than objective, utilitarian, tangible benefits such as time-saving and effort-sparing.

The model may also serve segmentation and targeting purposes for marketing professionals. Instead of limiting the investigation to the impact of socio-demographics on TSES purchasing, the role orientations and the PPI variables can be assessed with the objective of understanding motivations behind families' TSES product acquisition and decision behaviour and of identifying TSES products prospects. Marketers can use such variables as ownership (owners versus non-owners), income level (high versus low income), and eventually PPI (high versus low perceived instrumentality) so that respondents who are non-owners, and who score high on income and on PPI may represent prime targets for the sales promotion of TSES products.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing feels like solitary work, but the final printed product is always the result of tremendous support from different sides. The following institutions and people are cited not in order of importance, but in chronological order :

The *Fullbright* programme which, about a decay ago, gave me the precious opportunity to take advanced research methodology courses at Boston University.

The *British Council* who kindly helped in the payment of the tuition fees for the first year of my PhD programme.

The *Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education* for sponsoring my trips to England during the last two years of the programme and my participation in the Academy of Marketing Conferences.

The *Tunisian Secretary of State for Research and Development* who kindly accepted to sponsor the survey expenses.

Dr David Wesson for acting as Director of studies, and to whom I owe much gratitude and respect. His deep understanding of research methodology and tactful sense of humour made the research experience extremely enjoyable.

Dr Mohamed Salah Redjeb of the *Institut Supérieur de Gestion of Tunis* for acting as co-Director of studies, whose constructive comments in model testing and data analysis were of tremendous help.

Mr Brahim Baccari, the President of *Tunis III University (University of Law, Economics, and Business)* who expressed enthusiasm about the research project and allowed the University to act as the collaborating establishment in the programme.

The *ISG Computer Center Staff*, for their precious help in solving my software problems and in keeping in constant touch with my director of studies and with the Academy of Marketing Conference Secretariat via E-mail.

The final printed product would not have materialised were it not for the help provided by many other people. In particular, *Dr Larry Wilkenson* and *Mr Jim Goudie* of *The University of Northumbria at Newcastle* gave me useful comments on some parts of the thesis. I also owe many thanks to the people at *Institut Tahar Laâmourî*, and in particular, to *Miss Maya Jribi* who successfully led the focus-group interviews. I also wish to thank *Dr Fathi Akrouf* of *Faculté des Sciences Economiques et de Gestion de Sfax* for his help in introducing me to structural modelling, to *Ms Vicky Shu* and *Dr Mounir Triki* of *Bourguiba Institute of Languages* for editing the final document. I cannot forget my wife *Thouraya* who accepted to stay home and take responsibility of managing the house and taking care of the children with so much patience during five years of hectic life.

PREFACE

The family is recognised as one of the most important units of the consumer markets. Companies tend to build their communication geared towards families on stereotypical assumptions about men's and women's roles. Typically, women are depicted as playing affective and emotional roles in buying while men are depicted as playing instrumental and rational roles. Nonetheless, there are indications that changes are affecting the family life, the most significant of which is probably linked with women's increasing involvement in the labour force. These changes affect the way women as well as men perceive and enact their respective roles. As a consequence of environmental demands and social changes role redefinition and distribution is taking place. There are signs of behavioural changes and role interchangeability in the everyday behaviour of spouses and their purchasing habits. To a certain extent, their purchasing behaviour should be perceived as part of the arrangements and adaptations to the changing conditions.

There exist a good deal of investigations and research in such domains as women's labour involvement and demographic behaviour, work and the socialisation of children, work and political commitment, and so on. Attempts to study the impact of such changes on family decision making and purchasing behaviour remain rather scarce. The present research is an attempt in this direction. It intends to evaluate the impact of new emerging role orientations on family purchasing patterns and decision making which may shed light on marketing strategies.

The following are questions that first come to mind when such large scale social changes take place:

- a- In view of the changes experienced by men and women in their respective roles, what would be the relative influence of spouses in the family decision making process?
- b- To what extent can one say that husbands and wives buy products that help them cope with these changes?
- c- In case of conflict, debate, and misunderstanding relative to family purchasing and decision choices, what strategies and tactics are likely to be used by the role actors within the family?
- d- What would be the reserve of values, beliefs and norms that are typically operational in tackling problems and resolving conflicts related to family purchasing behaviour, and what is the importance of culture in the process of roles and purchasing responsibility distribution?

The present study attempts to produce an answer to some but not all these questions. Until recently, little empirical research has been devoted to the analysis of values and their relationship with consumer behaviour. Now one important research avenue would be to identify values that are operant in moulding role orientations and family purchasing choices, which is a major concern of the present study.

The literature in the consumer behaviour field insists on the importance of role orientations in influencing consumption. But researchers seem to ignore the distinction between role ideology and role behaviour. Given the current changing social structures, environmental conditions, and the movement of women into the workplace, a degree of role attitude-behaviour discrepancy may occur, especially for

roles that are not clearly defined as belonging to either husbands' or wives' positions. Contemporary couples are found to be much slower to relinquish the abstract ideal of traditional husband-as-provider-role than they are to give it up as a standard for their own family life. Similarly, wives are found to be more ready to agree that they are actually co-providers than they are to accept the notion that they have the duty to do so. The provider roles are determined not only by employment status per se and by income generation (behaviour), but also by each spouse's expectations of the other as provider (attitudes).

I began the project with the idea of assessing change in role orientations, hoping to eventually measure its impact on family purchasing behaviour and choices. But, due to the difficulties inherent in choosing anchors for change assessment, and because of the complexity of the phenomena under study, I found myself gradually driven into building a model of family purchasing behaviour without too much concern about historical changes. As I kept reading about the issue, I realised that the complexity of the phenomenon under study required a comprehensive approach. Therefore I adopted methodologies that proceed by an integration of key variables that are believed to be theoretically linked to a network of dimensions and that draw from structural modelling. By comprehensive approach, I mean a theoretical focus on the relevant issues without losing sight of the main research objective while allowing for some depth in the analysis.

Hence, following mainstream research in consumer behaviour, important dimensions were explored via qualitative analyses and were translated into composite measures for quantitative manipulation. In order to understand and explain variation in family purchasing behaviour, it was postulated that changes that are taking place in society are affecting social categories differently in ways that allow the identification of traditional as well as egalitarian role orientations among respondents. This idea is central to profiling and categorising respondents and to explaining variation in their decision behaviour and consumption choices.

Practically, because of the dynamic nature of the family, it was essential that both husband and wife be interviewed. Though the approach lengthened the questionnaire, it departed from the prevailing, albeit stereotypical, limitation of data collection to the housewife. The research involved product ownership and behaviour which drew from household information and from attitudes and perceptions that can only be investigated at the personal level. It is actually for these reasons that interviewers were asked to gather information in couples (a male and a female together). Not only did this procedure maximise chances of getting accepted in the household for questionnaire administration, but also tackle together the section that was to be filled in by the couple before proceeding with the administration of the women's and the men's section separately.

The present dissertation follows the Journal of Consumer Research Style Sheet. It is composed of 16 chapters, each containing its own appendices at the end (e.g. appendix 10-4 is the fourth appendix in chapter 10), except for the chapter 12 long appendices which are put at the end of the document. Appendices that are long and that pertain to the thesis as a whole are presented in the end of the document as Main Appendices A, B, C, D. The thesis is divided into four parts. Part one presents the review of the background literature; part two deals with conceptual and model development; part three deals with the methodology and preliminary analyses; part four presents results of models testing and findings.

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PART I

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 1

Role Theory

Role Theory

In general, role theory explains how social structure influences behaviour, and in sociology, it is typically conceptualised as consisting of five types: the family, the economic, political, and educational systems, and the religious institutions; each containing a number of interrelated positions (Reilly 1982).

As this thesis is involved with role conceptualisations that are most relevant to family setting, the first section will be devoted to exploring fundamental dynamic group processes which are presumed to be relevant to family decision making behaviour, family role distribution and purchasing behaviour.

BASIC DYNAMIC GROUP PROCESSES

These processes include marital interaction, communication, problem solving strategies, and conflicts.

Marital Interaction

White (1983) examines a model of spousal interaction, one that includes marital happiness and structural factors such as work patterns. The measurement of interaction is gauged through the frequency of joint participation in five activities: the couples are asked how often they have, the main meal together, go shopping together, visit friends together, go out in the evening together, and work at home together. Four factors, considered as structural and normative determinants of interaction, are also measured: job involvement, children, sex-role orientation, and socio-economic status.

In order to examine the independent effects of these variables on interaction, multiple regression analysis is used. Traditional distribution of home work is the strongest predictor of marital interaction, followed by the number of children, work involvement and work irregularities.¹ While some of the structural variables were significantly related to interaction, marital structure and work patterns were not. When marital happiness was included in the regression equation, the explained variance increased from 7% to 24%. The significance of such a study is that the most important determinant of interaction is not time constraints like work or presence of children but rather the quality of the marriage.

Family Problem Solving

Craddoc (1980) developed a model of family problem solving behaviour. It was based on the following hypothesis: “the optimum structure (as expressed in the role and value expectations of a married couple) for problem solving was one which provided for centralisation of authority and homogeneity of the couple’s terminal values (goal) for the specific object of their problem solving activity (p.186)”. A sample of couples were assessed (before and after marriage) with regard to their marital power expectation and value system. They were also observed in a problem solving session in which the situations were discussed and solutions were proposed. It was hypothesised that the centralised homogeneous couples would take the least time to solve problems and would express the highest level of satisfaction with the solution and process by which it was attained. It was also expected that this interaction style would produce the highest levels of reasoning and positive maintenance behaviour.

The results showed that that centralised authority facilitated reasoning only when the couples possessed homogeneous values. The inconclusive trends suggested that the influence of the two structural variables upon acts of reasoning, resolving and reconciling, and conflict were modified by family and situational variables. Each problem appeared to carry with it a set of specific demands and the patterns of results varied from problem to problem, depending on the couple’s perceptions of these demands. This meant that every specific marital problem context carried with it particular dyad values and role expectations which significantly influenced the interaction process.

Marital Communicative Satisfaction

Allen and Thompson (1984) examined the impact of congruence between husbands’ and wives’ direct, meta, and meta-meta perceptions on communicative satisfaction in marital dyads. They argued that, in addition to our direct perceptions, each of us has perceptions of others’ perceptions. Additionally, each person possesses his/her view of the other’s view of his/her view of the relationship. According to the above mentioned authors, it is more important to achieve understanding than agreement to improve interpersonal communication.

Communicative satisfaction was conceptualised as having positive feelings concerning message sending and receiving about specific relational issues. Husbands and wives completed a questionnaire which contained statements about the marital relationship, the response that he/she thought his/her spouse would choose, the response that he/she thought his/her spouse would think he/she chose, and satisfaction with marital communication.

A series of standard regression analyses revealed that, overall, agreement and feeling of being understood were the most important determinants of satisfaction with marital communication. Despite the lack of differences between husbands and wives concerning communicative satisfaction and its determinants, somewhat different patterns did emerge between predictors of husbands' and wives' communicative satisfaction. Understanding was significant for wives but not for husbands. This meant that the role of understanding in relationships might be related to power within the relationship.

The Justice Concept in the Marital Dyad

In a study aimed at exploring decision making processes in intimate relationships, satisfied and dissatisfied couples categorised as such on the basis of standard criteria were asked individually to indicate how their inputs and outcomes compared in relation to their partners' (Houlihan et al. 1988). Both categories are believed to employ a variety of norms of justice such as equity, exchange, need-based norms, and situation norms. The equity norm operated to insure that outcomes for partners were in proportion to their relative inputs. The equality norm attempted to produce equal benefits to both partners regardless of inputs. In the exchange norm, one partner benefited the other with the expectation of receiving similar benefits in the future. In the case of need-based norms, partners were mutually responsive to each other's needs and made decisions to benefit the partner with the greater perceived need. Situation norms did not involve considerations of inputs, outcomes and needs. As predicted, satisfied and dissatisfied respondents differed in the extent to which they characterised the state of their relationship as equitable. Need-based norms were more used by satisfied than by dissatisfied couples. Equity characterised relationships and particularly satisfied couples, but a variety of norms were also used

on a day-to-day basis in the process of achieving an equitable relationship. This led to conceptualizing equity as a process rather than as a state.

Crow et al. (1991) contended that underlying personal values were held to influence the importance the decision maker placed on decision issues and final decisions. Two kinds of values were involved - those related to moral development and those related to equity and equality. The value of equality defined a fair decision as one in which the outcomes were distributed equally. In contrast, the value of equity defined a fair decision as one in which the outcomes of a decision were matched to individual efforts. Results did not support the propositions that women would place more emphasis on the value of equality than men. Some of male-female differences resulted from differences in moral development rather than gender.

Conflict

Shmidt and Kochan (1972) proposed a definition of conflict in the organizational behaviour context which was deemed relevant for family decision making as well. According to them, conflict should be devoid of value perspective in order to be useful for analytical purposes. It should focus on specific actions and be conceptually different from antecedents and consequences; thus three factors were considered: (1) the perception of goal incompatibility; (2) the availability of resources which could be either material or nonmaterial and which were necessary for goal attainment ; (3) the interdependence of activities which was important for understanding the type of situation that led to conflict.

Based on these three factors, the authors proposed the following model:

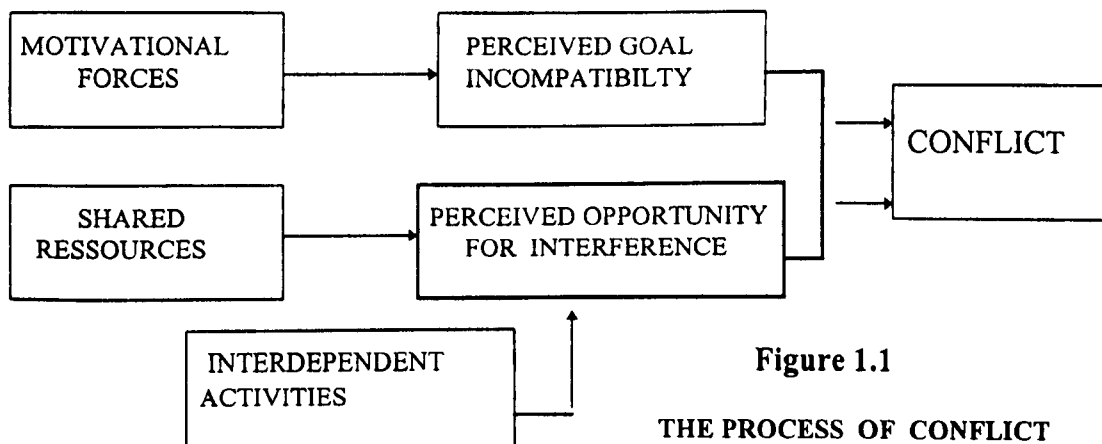


Figure 1.1

THE PROCESS OF CONFLICT

Source: Shmidt and Kochan (1972), p. 363.

This meant that perceived goal incompatibility and perceived opportunity for interference immediately determined conflict. While the former resulted from particular motivational forces in a specific situation, the latter resulted from the degree to which resources were shared and activities were interdependent. Hence, the development of conflict was viewed as a dynamic process rather than as a state.

THE ROLE CONCEPTUALISATIONS

The sociology literature abounds with concepts related to role. The following section proposes basic definitions related to role enactment and acquisition (see Appendix 1-A).

Identity, Subidentities and Roles

A role specifies what the typical occupant of a given position is expected to do in that position in a particular situation (Engel et al. 1995). A position can be defined as the behaviour expected of an institutional member. Each individual has a position set, which consists of all positions occupied by that individual across social institutions (Reilly 1982). The behaviour of an incumbent in a position is usually defined as that individual's role enactment. Different individuals enact similar positional expectations differently even in the role enactment of positions with rigidly defined expectations.

Identity is generally defined as a person's perception of himself as he relates to his environment (Hall 1987). In speaking of subidentities, researchers usually refer to that aspect of the total identity engaged when a person is behaving in a given role. All subidentities have a certain area in common; this universal area is known as the core. Individuals can vary in different respects: number of sub-identities and congruence between subidentity and role. For a married woman, typical subidentities might be wife, mother, housewife, and employee. A model illustrating these components is shown below (Hall 1987):

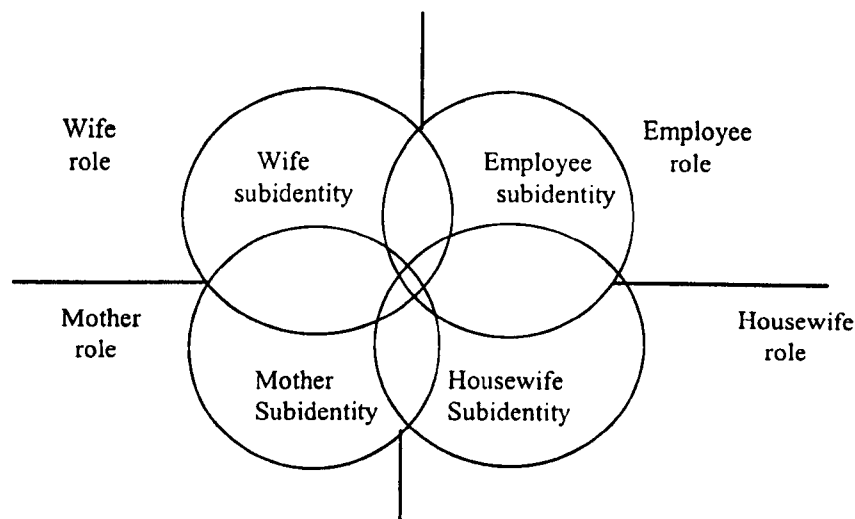


Figure1.2

A HYPOTHETICAL MODEL OF THE ROLES OF A MARRIED WOMAN

Source : Hall (1987), p. 472

Men have no fewer subidentities than women, but some of their roles are usually salient at different times, so that they do not produce conflict by operating simultaneously. Role will not be defined as a unitary concept, but rather as a process involving three components related to a person in a given social position: (1) structurally given demands are norms, expectations, taboos, responsibilities and sets of pressures and facilitations that channel, guide, impede, support the person's functioning in one's position; (2) personal role conception are inner definitions of someone in his social position - what he is supposed to think and do about it; and (3) role behaviour are ways in which members of a position act - with or without conscious intention - in accord with or in violation of a given set of organisational norms.

Borrowed from the theater, role theory views persons as actors "playing roles". In the presence of others, the actor is seen to organise his activity in order to express an impression that he wishes to convey. In role theory and in what is known as the Goffman model (Schewe 1973), "role enactment" is the major dependent variable and is the resultant of the following independent variables:² role expectations, role location, role demands, role skills, and self-role congruence. *Role expectations* comprise the rights and privileges, the duties and obligations, of any

occupant of a social position in relation to persons occupying other positions in the social structure. Role expectations define the limits or range of tolerated behaviour - they induce conformity. *Role location* determines the role that the individual must perform, once the position in the social structure is identified. *Role demands* are constraints reflecting expectations about a specific role enactment. *Role skills* are generally viewed as a physical or psychological ability to perform a task at a given level of competence. *Self-role congruence* refers to a person's cognitive structure based on his past experience of identity arising from his interactions with the environment. Self-role congruence maintains that role enactment is more effective and appropriate when self characteristics coincide with role expectations. *The audience* refers to the observers who are present during role enactment. The effectiveness of this role enactment is deduced from face-to-face interactions between the individual actor and his audience.

Role Acquisition

Thornton and Nardi (1975) presented a developmental model of role acquisition which consists of four stages - anticipatory, formal, informal and personal - whereby individuals move from passively accepting roles to actively engaging in and shaping them. The crucial variables around which each stage is formed consist of the source, content, and form of expectations encountered at different points in time, the degree of consensus on the content of the expectations, and individual reactions to them. According to the authors, the acquisition of role entails progression through the four stages mentioned above. Each stage involves interaction between individuals and external expectations, including individuals' attempts to influence expectations of others as well as others' attempts to influence individuals. The *anticipatory stage* is a period prior to incumbency during which a very generalised and stereotyped conception of roles is found. Individuals develop images of what they feel will be expected of them and start to prepare themselves psychologically for what they feel the roles will be like. During the *formal stage*, the individual now in a social position shifts from viewing it from outside to viewing it from inside. Role expectations at this stage are directed typically toward every one occupying a particular social position. They are often a set of "must" behaviours, generally related to the goals of the systems in which the particular position is

located. During the *informal stage*, there tends to be less consensus among the various expectations encountered than in the prior stage. The individual now has the opportunity to start shaping a role to fit himself, his past experiences and future objectives. During the *personal stage*, analysis of role performance has to include psychological dimensions. The individual cannot be ignored for his role is generally considered as the concept whereby the person and the social structure are linked. The linkage can only be understood in terms of the mutual transformation of person and role.

MULTIPLE ROLE OBLIGATIONS: PROCESSES AND CONSEQUENCES

A body of the sociology literature is interested, on the one hand, in the ways behaviours, particularly those of women, are shaped in the work and family spheres (Bielby and Bielby 1989) and in the changes over time in women's roles, in their identity formation and their identification processes (Davis and Robinson 1988), and in whether these processes are the same or different for working and nonworking women (Harper-Simpson 1988). On the other hand, some researchers investigate the role conflict and overload phenomena, a situation typically experienced by contemporary women, and the resulting coping strategies (Hall 1987). Particularly, processes of "remaking" and of "reshaping" of roles by contemporary women are investigated (Williams 1988).

Identity Formation and Identification Processes

Labour force and family behaviour build commitments to work and family. (Bielby and Bielby 1989). According to the authors neither the "scarcity view" whereby the individual is located along a dimension of commitment to work and family nor the "multiplicity view" whereby individuals are able to form strong commitments to work and family and are almost infinitely capable of sustaining numerous involvements, was capable of explaining how men and women distributed commitments to work and family. Behaviours were rather shaped by a sex-role based division of labour, and the values placed on those behaviours were prescribed by sex-role norms. The study aimed at verifying whether the process of identity formation differed for men and women in a way corresponding to gender-based differentiation in the roles husbands and wives played in the family and at work.

Using work identity and family identity as dependent measures and family traits, job traits, and worker traits as independent measures, the authors showed that women balanced work and family identities in a way that gave causal priority to identification with family roles. Women adjusted their work identity to accommodate their family identity and not vice versa. As for men, they made no such trade-off in establishing identities towards work and family. According to the authors, the results failed to fully support either the “scarcity” or the “multiplicity” view of commitment. Rather, gender-based structural and cultural contexts shaped the identity formation process.

Other recent sociological studies focused on changes of women’s roles over time and questioned the suitability of the conceptualization that women’s positions were rooted in the social structure because the social structure itself was changing as a consequence of the movement of many women into the workplace. According to Davis and Robinson (1988), such a movement, accompanied by changes in status, including education, occupation, and relative contribution to the overall family income, made women draw more upon their own experiences and less upon their husbands’. The husbands themselves recognised more and more their wives’ contribution to their families’ standing and class situation. The authors examined three models of class determination of a spouse: (1) an *independence model* whereby individuals rely on their own characteristics and not on their spouses, (2) a *sharing model* whereby equal weights are attributed to both spouses’ characteristics, (3) a *borrowing model* whereby only the spouse’s characteristics are taken into account.

By regressing the respondent’s class identification on education, occupational prestige, ownership of business and income, the results showed that not only men but also women were moving from the 1970’s to the 1980’s towards attaching greater importance to their own characteristics in their class identification processes. Employed women shifted away from a borrowing to a sharing model. While they only relied on their husbands characteristics in the 1970’s, they relied on their own education and income in the 1980’s.

Consistently with these views, Harper-Simpson (1988) conducted a study that aimed at verifying whether class identification processes were the same or not for working and non working women. He proposed that a *familial model* whereby identification was based on husbands' statuses applied to nonworking wives but not to working wives who tended to take into account both their own autonomous statuses and their husbands' statuses as well. One would be tempted to say that an *autonomous model* which applied to men might apply to working women. But it was not the case because, on the one hand, women shared family resources with men who continued to be assigned a quasi-legal role of head of the household, and on the other hand, women's work experience differed from that of men. Hence Harper-Simpson proposed that different models of class identification applied to different genders.

By regressing class identification on different sets of independent variables for men and women, the authors confirmed the hypotheses of applying gender-specific models. Their main conclusion was that, on the one hand, working wives did not simply borrow class identification from their husbands, but their work experience was a core part of such an identification. On the other hand, workplace variables differed for men and women in a way that class identification for men centred around the workplace.

Mc Broom (1987) was interested in investigating how changes in life situations were associated with changes in sex role orientations. Specifically, entry into the labour force and entry into marriage were supposed to be the most important changes because the demands associated with these roles typically required adjustment both in outlook and behaviour. Mc Broom devised a longitudinal design whereby sex role orientations during the 1975 and 1980 period were investigated. The dependent variable - sex-role orientations - was a five item Likert-type scale ranging from 5 to 25 coded so that high score indicated traditional views of domestic sex roles. In deriving a measure of change in sex-role traditionalism, a person's score in 1975 was subtracted from his 1980 score. This produced a gain score where negative values indicated a decrease in traditionalism. Results confirmed an overall change in sex role orientations towards less traditionalism for both men and women. Changes in sex role orientations were predicted in simultaneous equations using

work status, marriage and increase in number of children. The independent variables accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in SRO for women but not for men. This suggested that, because of the demands of the new roles of employed, married and mother, women became less traditional.

The Experiences of the Homemaking Role

Kibria et al. (1990) investigated the relationship of homemaking role quality to employed women's psychological well being and distress and in the way the quality of experience in the homemaking and in the paid labour work roles combined in their contribution to employed women's psychological health. The salience of homemaking for women's psychological well-being was suggested by the continued prominence of this role in employed women's lives. Women still expended considerable energy in homemaking activities.

The quality of experience in the homemaking role was expected to differ for women across a variety of social and demographic variables. Having children and being partenered might be expected to increase the demands of homemeking, thus resulting in a negative experience of the role. Women of lower socio-economic status had fewer material resources and might thus experience greater distress for the homemaking role. Both women of lower status and women of old age tended to hold more traditional sex role attitudes. The homemaking role might hold greater significance for them.

Kibria et al. (1990) proposed an examination of both the rewarding and the distressing aspects of homemaking and the way they related to psychological outcomes for women who differed in socio-economic backgrounds. According to women's self-reports, the homemaking role was experienced as more and more rewarding than problematic. Thus results tended to support the notion that homemaking was not only burdensome but also rewarding. As for paid work, its rewards outweighed its concerns. Women with positive quality experience in the homemaking role reported greater well-being and less psychological distress. Indeed, the positive dimensions of the homemaking role might be partially apparent for employed women who did not face the problems associated with the traditional homemaker role, such as social isolation and low status.

Role Conflict, Role Overload and Coping Strategies

Individuals experience role conflict when others' expectations for their behaviour are inconsistent with the individual's own expectations. When expectations are based on gender, the conflict is referred to as sex-role conflict (Chusmir and Koberg 1986). The numerous subidentities of women present a clear example of chronic conflict defined as mutually conflicting demands by role senders. These conflicts between roles are often a matter of overload and competition over her time - a scarce resource - than an issue of intrinsic incompatibility (Hall 1987).

Given the three levels of the role process - structural role demands, personal conception and role behaviour - coping strategies are adopted and intervene at each level in terms of: (1) strategic role redefinition, that is altering external structurally imposed expectations such as an agreement on a revised set of expectations; (2) personal role redefinition, that is changing one's personal concept of role demands from others such as setting priorities among tasks within a role; (3) reactive role behaviour, that is imposing a quality of role performance. Hall's study which aimed at exploring coping strategies adopted by women in order to reduce conflict identified sixteen strategies of coping with conflict and which fell into the three categories mentioned above.³

Other sociologists insisted on the need for research on interaction between husbands and wives in coping with their roles. Such coping led not only to role taking thereby sustaining some conformity to other's expectations but also to role making which involved active reshaping and remaking of roles (Williams, 1988). By conducting in-depth interviews that aimed at appreciating the degree to which Mexican women were committed to the process of reshaping their roles and how they compared to their parents in this respect, different role making processes were revealed particularly concerning working class and business professional women.

Working Class Women. They did not seek equality with their husbands but a separate identity. They did not adhere to traditional patterns of behaviour (such as mourning activities and ceremonies whereby women were secluded from all but family and religious activities) nor did their husbands expected them to. A separate identity was essential if a widow was to pursue social activities and to cope with the demands of the workplace. She had to reshape traditional role expectations in

reponse to changes in modern community, by using opportune situations as they arrived.

Business-Professional Women. Even the most traditional of these had already achieved a personal and a social identity both in private and public spheres. They were striving to attain equality in decision making and departure from traditional expectations.

MULTIPLE ROLE OBLIGATIONS AND HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY DISTRIBUTION

Many researchers were interested in investigating the impact of work involvement on marital role enactment (Clark Nye and Gecas 1978), on the division of labour within the household (Barnett and Baruch 1987; Berardo et al. 1987), and the superiority of the provider role perception in determining household responsibility over employment status (Hood 1986). Another stream of research looked at household labour distribution within cultural contexts. Accordingly, household labour distribution among men and women was moulded more by cultural than by labour force considerations (Hardesty and Bokemeier 1989; Steil and Weltmen 1991).

Wheeler and Arvey (1981) conducted a study in order to validate the assumption that the division of labour could be explained by the normative interaction theory, the resource theory, and the family development theory. Respondents were asked to report their responsibility in household tasks using a 5-point scale. Attitudes, sex-role orientations, and socio-economic variables were also assessed .

Normative Interaction. Sex role attitudes were not significantly related to task performance. Nonetheless, spouses appeared to assume responsibility for particular tasks through interaction between them. Husbands' assumption of more responsibility for female tasks did not always correspond to decrease in women's responsibility for female tasks. These findings could reflect real differences in task responsibilities or in perceptions.

The Resource Theory. Employed wives reported that they were assuming reduced responsibility for female tasks. Working women did less by reducing their own standards or that they had outside help and/or had their children assume the

responsibility for these tasks. The educational level of one spouse appeared to be related to the amount of responsibility assumed by the other spouse. This also supported the interactionist theory: the responsibility assumed might be related to what the other spouse believed to be appropriate behaviour.

The Family Development Theory. It appeared that husbands became more inclined to perform male tasks and less inclined to perform female tasks over time. As for women, they became more inclined to perform female tasks and less inclined to perform male tasks over time.

In summary, factors from the three perspectives - normative interaction, the resources theory, and the family development theory- were found to be related to the division of household labour.

Husbands' and Wives' Work Involvement Impact on Marital Role Enactment and Household Labour Distribution

In this stream of research, marital role performance was expected to be negatively affected by husbands' work involvement; but findings proved otherwise (Clark et al. 1978). Husbands' participation was found to be linked more with women's attitudes and needs than with structural family variables (Barnett and Baruch 1987). Other researchers were convinced that role distribution within the household did not depend on women's employment status per se, but on the provider role performance and the expectations that went with it (Hood 1986). Another research body underlined the persistent discrepancies between prescriptive beliefs about household labour and actual behaviour and demonstrated that the distribution of roles within the home to match the increased sharing of instrumental roles had apparently not yet occurred (Araji 1977; Berardo et al. 1987).

Clark et al. (1978) contended that since families must obtain resources from the economy through occupational roles, the characteristics and demands of occupations may influence internal family interaction. To investigate these relationships more explicitly, a theory of role competition was developed and predictors drawn from it were tested. The theory proposed that actors must allocate their scarce time among role alternatives, seeking to create the most profitable contribution of time possible within their structure of opportunities. This process was guided by the actor's role hierarchy, such that highly valued roles would be given

priority over other roles. It was assumed that occupational roles were dominant for husbands, and therefore, in a husband's role hierarchy. The following two hypotheses were formulated. (1) The greater the husband's work time, the less of each marital role he will perform. (2) The greater the husband's work time, the less his competence in each marital role.

The hypotheses were applied to three main marital roles: the housekeeper, the recreation, and the therapeutic roles. Role sharing was measured for the housekeeping and recreation roles. Path analysis was used to organise and estimate simultaneously the process presented in figure 1.3:

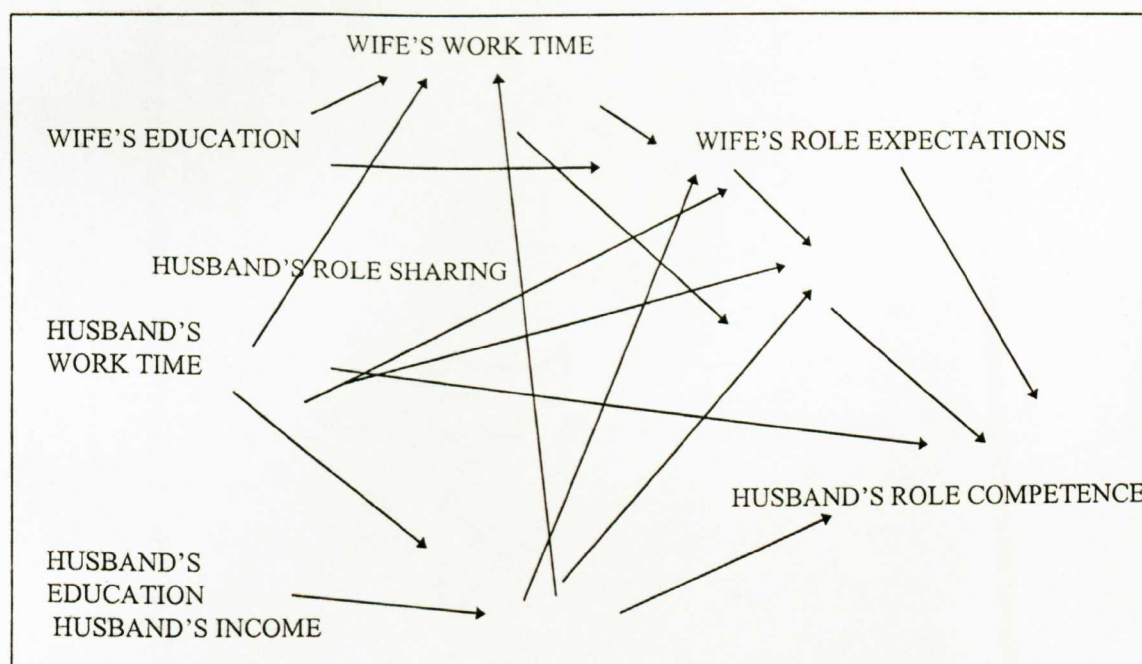


Figure 1.3
HEURISTIC DIAGRAM OF MODEL ESTIMATING THE EFFECTS OF HUSBAND'S
WORK TIME ON HUSBAND'S ROLE SHARING AND ROLE COMPETENCE

Source: Clark et al. (1978), p. 13.

The results suggested that controlling for such factors as income, education and wives' role expectations, no pattern of negative work time effects appeared. Husband's work time did not significantly reduce their participation in the housekeeper, the therapeutic, and the recreational roles. Although most of the effects of work time on marital role performance were negative as predicted, in only recreation role sharing was the negative effect significant. Husbands' work time did

not significantly decrease wives' marital satisfaction. Husbands who worked long hours generally gave priority to marital roles and thus did not allow their work involvement to interfere with marital interaction. Negative marital outcomes are likely only when work-involved husbands gave low priority to marital roles while their wives expected them to participate extensively in such roles.

Barnett and Baruch (1987) suggested that interest in the husbands' participation in child-care and home-chores had been ignited by the massive entry of women, especially married women with children, into the labour force, and by mounting evidence that fathers played an important role in their children's development and socialization. But research findings were inconsistent because, among other reasons, the women's employment had been inadequately specified. Hence the authors proposed the women's employment as well as several aspects of their work patterns as potential determinants of parental participation. Four parental categories of determinants of parental participation were considered: family structure, parental sex-role attitudes, parental socialisation, and socio-demographic factors.

Regression analyses were significant for all household participation measures (i.e., for total interaction time, solo interaction time, proportional interaction time, child care tasks, female home chores). Family structural variables were consistent predictors of fathers' absolute interaction time. Mothers' employment status affected all three proportional measures of fathers' participation, possibly reflecting a decrease in the amount of time mothers were spending in interaction, child chore tasks, and feminine home-chores. Findings suggested that maternal employment status served to create the conditions and the relationship between particular determinants and forms of paternal involvement. In dual-earner families, the mother's attitude towards the male role was also a major predictor of the father's participation. When her attitude was liberal, he did more; when it was traditional, he did less. The father's attitude towards the male role was not related to his participation. Women's attitudes towards the male role might also reflect their husbands' participation rather than determine it. Apparently, fathers' participation was not primarily a function either of resources or of demands placed on him by the

children; rather, it was conditioned by the demands placed on him by the woman's attitudes and needs.

Role-Attitude Discrepancy

Araji (1977) defines role as more or less homogeneous sets of behaviours which are normatively defined and expected of an occupant in a given social position. Role attitude, used in lieu of norm, is defined as an attitude surrounded by certain role prescriptions which predispose the individual to act in one way rather than another. According to this author, conjugal family ideology emphasises egalitarianism. However the degree to which equal sharing of family roles is manifested within family role behaviour varies. The author proposes the main following hypotheses. (1) Given a changing social structure and varying environmental conditions, a certain degree of role attitude behaviour discrepancy will occur. The degree of discrepancy will be associated with roles that are not clearly defined as belonging to either husband's or wife's positions, or that are both. (2) The more a role has been clearly defined as belonging to either one or the other family position - husband or wife - the less frequently will husbands and wives express egalitarian role attitudes and behaviours. (3) When discrepancies between role attitudes and role behaviour occur, role behaviour will tend to correspond to traditional patterns. (4) As the family is an interdependent system of role relationships, a change in one spouse's role may be related to some change in the other spouse's role.

Araji (1977) utilised seven roles in the study: provider, housekeeper, child care, girls and boys socialisation, recreation and kinship roles. The hypotheses were confirmed. Overall the findings suggested that there was rather a substantial number of married men and women who were experiencing role attitude behaviour incongruence. When discrepancies existed, role behaviour tended to follow the traditional pattern. In conclusion the study indicated the complexities married men and women face in working out suitable patterns of role behaviour which would be consistent with husbands' and wives' role attitudes. The findings underscored the importance of investigating conditions such as husband's and wives' employment statuses, family size, social class and other variables.

Berardo et al. (1987) noticed that persistent discrepancy existed between prescriptive beliefs about the division of household labour and actual behaviour. In order to assess the extent to which dual career couples transcended gender-based inequalities in the allocation of time to household tasks, a comparison of the number of hours dual-career husbands and wives spent in housework each week with that of the same sex-counterparts in other work-family combinations was made. The dependent variables in the model were the husbands' and the wives' weekly hours of housework and an indication of children's participation. The measure utilised was a question about the amount of time they spend on housework such as cooking, cleaning, and so on. The independent variables were the couple's work family combination.

Results revealed interesting patterns. On average, men in dual career families spent a few more hours in housework per week than did most dual earner husbands and those married to full time housewives. But, there appeared to be no parallel expansion in husbands' allocation of time to household work to offset the reduction in wives' hours due to career involvement. These patterns support the contention that household labour continues to be viewed as "women's work", that a decrease in women's hours of housework is not to be interchangeable.

Hood (1986) contended that family sociologists had produced voluminous literature on the changes in the division of household responsibility that might accompany the women's entrance into the labour market. The underlying assumption was that the provider role was the reciprocal of housewife-mother role, and therefore, changes in the allocation of the provider role responsibilities were closely related to changes in the allocation of other household responsibilities. Despite the pivotal nature of the provider role in their hypothetical constructs, most researchers had not directly measured the women's responsibility to provide. Instead, they used measures of women's labour force participation, her absolute or relative income, or sometimes, her husband's attitudes towards her role as a worker. According to Hood, working women became increasingly a hedge against inflation. Since the 1970's, the husband-as-economic-provider (HEP) dream had become less and less approachable in most families. However, the enactment of the provider role had not always been linked to the recognition that should go with it.

According to Hood, when speaking of the provider role, it is important to distinguish between the enactment of the role - who does the required task - and the responsibility for its enactment - who is responsible for providing and is recognised as provider? In order to distinguish between role enactment and role responsibility, family role was defined as mutual expectations negotiated by the actors that define each actor's responsibility to other family members in a given situation. According to this definition, earning an income was a necessary but not a sufficient condition for being defined as co-provider.

Provider roles were determined not only by incomes, but also by each spouse's expectations of the other as a provider as well as each spouse's role attachment - that is the investment one had in one's present roles. Three categories of providers were identified: Main/secondary co-providers, co-providers, and ambivalent co-providers. *Main/secondary providers* relied on the second income for improving the quality of their lives. *Co-providers* pooled their incomes and/or fail to distinguish the types of expenses payable by each spouse. *Ambivalent coproviders* admitted being dependent upon women's wages but gave conflicting accounts both about who was responsible for providing and about who should be responsible.

Household Labour Distribution in the Context of Cultural Norms

According to some researchers, the distribution of household labour is not dependent on resources alone, but hinges on cultural norms (Hardesty and Bokemeier 1989). If marriage brings with it patriarchal tradition, resources contributed by women to the family are helpful but not sufficient to achieve equal sharing of responsibilities (Steil and Weltman 1991).

Hardesty and Boukheimeir (1989) suggest that the Marxist feminist analysis of the division of labour within the household is more relevant than the resource theory. Resource theory suggests that when husbands and wives participate equally in the work force, they possess similar amounts of time available for housework, and equal division of housework should develop. But researchers have found substantially less than equality in housework. According to the authors, the significance of sex-role ideology is crucial in the Marxist feminist theory analysis of the distribution of labour. It views the distribution of labour as resulting from the economic mode of production and manifestation of the oppression of women.

The difference in men's and women's relationship to the occupational structure consistently confines women to subservient, unrewarding, and lower paid jobs that reinforce their dependence on men. In this cultural context, it is not viewed as the responsibility of men to engage in housekeeping tasks associated with the home maker role. To test such a theory, i.e., the influence of resources on the distribution of household within the context of cultural norms, the authors devised the following model:

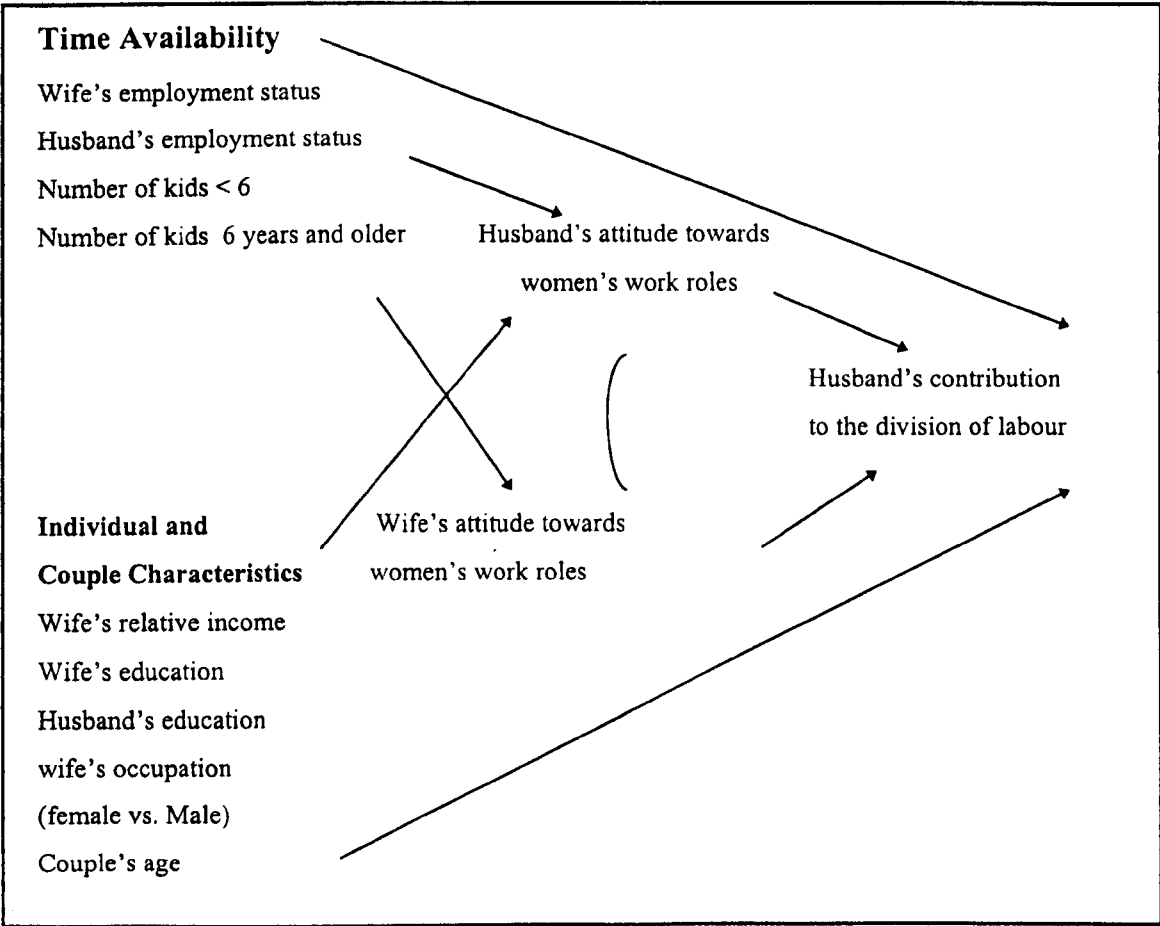


Figure 1.4

HUSBAND'S PARTICIPATION IN THE DIVISION OF HOUSEWORK AS AFFECTED BY TIME AVAILABILITY, MARITAL POWER, AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS GENDER ROLES

(Source : Hardesty and Bokhemeier (1989), p. 257)

The model means that men's and women's attitudes also act as moderators of the effects of resources and occupation on the division of housework. When the model was tested, the direct effect of women's employment on the division of labour was

not statistically significant. This meant that when women worked outside the home, their husbands were not more likely to contribute to housework. However there were substantial indirect effects through the husband's and especially the women's work role attitudes.

Steil and Weltman (1991) assert that explanations of inequality are variable. According to the *resource theory*, if wives can achieve positions of status comparable to their husbands' and generate comparable incomes, then the differential valuing of careers and the unequal sharing of household responsibilities should be eradicated. *Cultural resource theorists* assert that the resource perspective must be tempered by a number of cultural considerations, because societal norms influence the exchange value of specific resources (e.g. the capacity to generate income is more highly valued than the capacity to nurture). *Role incongruence behaviour theory* suggests that income and job status resources may work differently for wives and husbands. Whereas income and job prestige are central to the husband/father breadwinner role, they are certainly less important if not inconsistent with the woman's role as wife and mother.

With this background theory in mind, Steil and Weltman (1991) devised a study where four groups of variables were assessed: (1) the respondent's work related resources; (2) their self-ratings on a number of personal attributes; (3) the extent to which they reported a differential valuing of spouse's careers; and (4) the perceived influence at home. Resources were assessed by a series of questions asking respondents to indicate their age, education, salary level, job title, number of years in which they had had supervisory responsibilities, and the number and sex of the people they supervised. Personal attributes were assessed through administration of the affiliation, nurturance, autonomy, achievement, and dominance subscale of the Adjective Check-List (ACL). Respondents' attitudes towards their careers were assessed by five questions such as «whose career is more important in the relationship». Influence at home was measured by questions about say with regard to household issues.

Results revealed that overall, males rated their careers as more important than females did. Wives were reluctant to say that their own careers were more important than their husbands' careers, even when they were the higher wage earner.

Conversely, husbands were reluctant to say that their wives' careers were more important than their own even when the husband was the lower wage earner. Job related resources were associated with greater career valuing, and to some extent, more say at home for both men and women. Consistently with the cultural resource view, job related positions did not always translate into identical outcomes for husbands and wives. Consistently with the resource position, men and women who earned significantly more had more say overall and more say with regard to financial and child care issues.

Change in Household Responsibility Distribution

While some authors confirm that role definition and enactment within the household depend upon the specific role or attitude under consideration (Albrecht et al. 1979), others are convinced of trends towards greater familial sharing of responsibilities (Maret and Finlay 1984).

Albrecht et al. (1979) were interested in assessing change in role preference and behaviour patterns within the family. While the independent variable was age of respondent, the dependent variables were indicators of family role definition and relationships. These were: (1) preferences for the division of labour by sex; (2) reports about role enactment by sex; (3) marital decision making. These indicators covered the provider, the housekeeper, the kinship and child-care roles.

Analysis of the data showed no unitary trend. Whether or not there had been a liberalisation of role definition or democratisation of role enactment depended upon the specific role or attitude. Change in family definition did not occur at the same rate in all roles and some roles apparently had undergone very little change in definition or enactment. For the provider role, there was evidence of greater acceptance of the participation among the young, but preferences for the roles that had been largely the province of the wife.

Maret and Finlay (1984) addressed three questions about the distribution of household labour: was there a variability in the extent of home responsibilities among women in dual earner families? Had the extent of home responsibilities in dual earner families changed in recent years? What were the correlates of the observed variability? In addressing the last question, the authors looked at several factors: race (blacks were hypothesised to be more egalitarian), residence (urban

settings were more egalitarian), economic resources (contribution to resources enhanced egalitarianism), occupational type (role expectations depended on social class), wife's education (more highly educated wives assumed less domestic responsibilities), women's attitudes towards women's role (the more traditional the attitude, the more responsibility for domestic tasks).

Findings revealed considerable variability in the level of domestic responsibilities among currently employed women, as well as among those not in the labour force. In keeping with traditional expectations, a majority of women in dual earner families were involved in the responsibility of child care as well as of cleaning and dish-washing. Nonetheless, more and more husbands were involved in housework, confirming a trend towards greater familial sharing of domestic tasks in the relatively short term between 1974 and 1975.

NOTES

1. Note that two variables are highly correlated for this analysis: presence of preschoolers is dropped in favor of number of children and women's involvement is dropped in favor of hours spent away from home.
2. Some of the marketing implications of the Goffman Model are moulding the product into an image that will fit the setting surrounding the consumer's perceived role expectations and providing congruence between product image and self-image (for more details, see Schewe, 1973).
3. The important implication of such a study is that many such strategies have direct consumer behaviour consequences such as engaging baby sitters and housecleaners, eating out, etc.

Chapter 2

Decision Making, Power, and Influence Behaviour

Decision Making, Power, and Influence Behaviour

In this stream of thinking, researchers are interested in investigating decision making power among men and women. Some researchers have noted the lack of significant differences between men and women in influence strategies use either in the family setting (White 1988; Crow et al. 1991; Yukie & Falbo 1991) or in the organizational setting (Koberg 1985; Ansari 1989; Drehr et al. 1989). Before dealing with these studies, an idea about experiences of men and women (Walker 1989) and about power distribution among them is proposed (Curtis 1986). This is deemed important for understanding the dynamics of husband-wife relations and the processes of family purchasing behaviour.

MEN'S AND WOMEN'S EXPERIENCES

Walker (1989) conducted a research on gender in families by comparing men's and women's experiences in marriage, work and parenthood. He defined gender in families as "structural constraints and opportunities, beliefs and ideology, arrangements and activities, meanings and experiences, diversity and change, and interaction and relation" (p.46).

Marriage

Marriage is perceived in terms of intimacy and in terms of communication and conflict. Concerning intimacy, Walker distinguished between emotional intimacy and sexual intimacy.

Emotional Intimacy. It is sharing one another's innermost life, expressing and listening to each other's feelings, thoughts, desires, doubts, joys and fears; attending to, understanding and accepting one another's true self. From this perspective, men are more likely than women to name their spouses as best friends. Women disclose more to their partners than husbands do. Wives disclose more personal feelings and opinions and husbands tend to give more public facts. Women tend to pull things out of their husbands. They are more likely to monitor and orchestrate intimacy.

Sexual Intimacy. When married couples disagree on sex, men's wishes and desires are more likely the prerogative of men. In general, men are more likely than

women to orchestrate sexual intimacy in marriage, and wives often alter their own sexual desires and actions to please their husbands.

Communication and Conflict. Typically, there are differences between married men and women in their expression of positive and negative messages during conversation and conflict in their ability to send and receive messages, and in their sensitivity and responsiveness to each other's messages. Husbands tend to use more neutral messages and wives tend to use more negative and positive messages. Although differences in how wives and husbands handle conflict are small, they have a characteristic pattern: women often use more emotional appeals and coercion and men tend to be reasonable and calm, problem oriented and conciliatory, and try to postpone or end the dispute. Wives, more than husbands, determine the affective atmosphere of an argument. Women usually build a climate of agreement, escalate or de-escalate the conflict with their verbal and nonverbal negativity.¹

Work

More than men, women shift their time and investment back and forth between paid and family work so that family life is sustained (Walker). Even though most women do paid work, the responsibility and recognition of family provision falls to men. The meaning of paid work is often different for them because the connection of work and family differs by gender. Men are better able than women to keep paid work and family as separate spheres of life. Women shape their paid work in response to family needs. When men help women in family work, the nature of this involvement is different from women's. Women do unrelenting, repetitive, routine work, while men do infrequent, irregular, non-routine work. The reason why men involve in family work is that employed women have less time to do family work. So their husbands do more housework and child care.

According to Walker (1989), employment provides women with resources, especially earnings. Women's employment, their accrued resources and sex-role orientations combine to shape power in marriage; housework is onerous and it takes power to get out of it. The more power wives have in marriage, the more housework their husbands do. Through this process, women's employment enhances husbands' contribution to family work. There is no simple trade-off of wage and family work on the basis of time availability. Women's earnings, personal or relative to their

husbands' also are unrelated to husbands' contribution to family work. Consider the special case in which women earn more than their husbands: most women and men in this uncommon arrangement emphasise traditional wifehood.²

Parenthood

More than family work or child-care, parenthood is the daily experience and the larger meaning of having children. Images of fatherhood and motherhood reveal our shared ideals, standards, beliefs, and expectations regarding women and men as parents. Both emerging and enduring images exist, much to the confusion of mothers and fathers. Amidst idealisation and blame, the enduring image of motherhood is incompatible with women's sexuality and wage-work. The emerging new parenthood is an image of mother and father sharing the full weight of raising their children. Regardless of children's age, the activities of mothering and fathering differ; mothers are more invested and involved in the daily lives of their children than fathers are; more than mothers, fathers are novel, unpredictable, physical, exciting and engaging,

According to Walker, when both parents are present, the distinction between mothers as comfort givers and fathers as play-mates is more pronounced; but when parents share daily care-giving, the distinction fades and mothering and fathering seem much the same. During adolescence, children perceive their fathers as more powerful and more autocratic, mothers as sympathetic and responsive. In general, the image of new parenting provides standards that are too high for most couples.

THE BASES OF POWER DISTRIBUTION BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN

Power is investigated according to several theories. These theories depend on whether a structuralist or an interactionist approach is adopted. Among these are the inequality and the exchange theories (Curtis 1986).

The Structural Approach and the Inequality Theory

This approach prevailed in the end of the 19th and in the beginning of the 20th century and is based on what is known as the inequality theory. It assumes that inequality between men and women and the persistence of certain widespread forms of dominance are rooted into family, economic and cultural factors.

The Family Factor. According to Curtis, men can obtain their power from different sources (physical strength, information, manipulation, knowledge). But the most important sociological source is authority. It is the right of a person occupying

most important sociological source is authority. It is the right of a person occupying certain social positions to make decisions on behalf of others. Authority is a matter of legitimacy. As a right, it exists not in the one who exercises it, but in those who accept it. Hence males occupying certain culturally defined family roles (father, husband, elder brother) can decide matters for women and children. Such a male dominance is referred to as patriarchy, i.e. the fact that men have women do what they want (Curtis 1986).³

The Economic Factor. According to Curtis, men tend to become experts in authority through experience in authority systems of larger scale. The most ubiquitous cause of male power is the ubiquity of assigning extra-familial jobs to men and the subsequent development of women's spheres. Hence, economic resources produced outside the family are brought in by males giving them internal power through control over resources.

The Cultural Factor. The above author contends that women confront male dominance which is rooted into a belief system. Accordingly, men as well as women accept men's right to make some decisions for women. Such a belief system is usually accepted unconsciously. Sometimes, religion helps enforce such a system, making it difficult to question man's authority, which exists not in the person seeking power, i.e. man, but in the social environment.

The Interactionist and the Exchange Theories

These theories prevailed in the 1980's. Accordingly, power structure in the family is due to a process of adaptation and interpersonal exchange. Dominance and subordination are treated as the stable outcome of an adjustment process after conflict and negotiation.⁴ Hence, a body of literature developed, indicating that power in a family is not determined by a single set of external forces; rather, it comes into being through a process of negotiation in which the members call upon features of the relationship itself in addition to conditions in the environment. According to Curtis (1986), distribution of resources and power in production organisations operates typically through market mechanisms and follows economic rules of exchange; but in households, it typically operates through interpersonal mechanisms and follows those of non-economic rules of exchange.

DOMESTIC POWER AS A DE FACTO PHENOMENON

According to Gilmore (1990), “Domestic Power” is defined in the sociology literature as the capacity to impose one’s will in decisions concerning sex relations, marriage residence, divorce and the lives of the children, regardless of the source of this ability. In a study on conjugal decision making, Gilmore (1990) found that women are powerful for several reasons: they hold the family purse strings and men voluntarily relinquish domestic control to women to avoid association with femininity. In dominating the domestic realm, women have de facto control of socialisation and of cultural indoctrination. The case study on newly wed couples in Spanish peasant societies (Gilmore 1990) shows that couples have a matrilocal and matrivicinal pattern of behaviour: their homes are chosen near the wife’s family (the bride needs her mother’s support); their neighbourhoods are dominated by women’s ties (they keep strong relations with kinswomen and childhood neighbours). As a consequence, the mother-in-law maintains a high profile, often intruding into domestic arrangements and quarrels. Women run the family finances and some men surrender their day wage to their wives for that purpose. Such a tendency is reinforced by a spatial gender-schema stereotyping: men as providers should not stay home (even when unemployed) while women should be house-bound in order to be careful housekeepers and good mothers (even when employed).⁵

POWER-INFLUENCE BEHAVIOUR OF MEN AND WOMEN

According to this body of research, situation differences rather than gender are determinants of power behaviour among men and women. Males and females are found to have similar preferences for power strategies (White 1988). Male and female differences in the use of power are related to marital satisfaction but not to gender (Yukie and Fablo 1991).

According to White (1988), laboratory procedures to examining gender differences in influence behaviour patterns use three theoretical frameworks: the intra-personal, the social context and the stratification perspectives.

The Intra-Personal Perspective

It suggests that gender differences are the result of personality traits that distinguish men from women. The traits may result from biological factors and from differential socialisation. Accordingly, men are expected to be competitive, dominant

and exploitative, while women are expected to avoid conflict and behave in ways that maintain fairness.

The Social Context Perspective

According to White (1988), the social context perspective focuses on contextual factors and access to resources, emphasising the socio-cultural contexts that explain why men and women use different influence strategies. Because society assigns males and females different statuses, and permits males greater access to a variety of powers, gender differences in influence behaviour accrue. This view asserts that if males and females are given equal access to resources, behavioural differences should disappear, because situation variables should operate similarly for men and women. In this perspective, the two strongest determinants of power are cost of using a resource and negative affect toward target. As cost of using a resource increases, the use of that resource will decrease, and as negative affect increases, the use of coercive tactics will increase. To the extent that cost and/or negative affect differ as a function of gender, gender differences will be apparent. Such a perspective tends to ignore individual characteristics and focuses on men and women as two social classes that differ in status.

The Sex Stratification Perspective

It explicitly addresses the interaction of the person and the situation in predicting behaviour. Elaborating on expectation states theory, this perspective assumes that, because men and women are often assigned different social roles resulting in status differences and access to different resources, their socialisation experiences are different.⁶ White (1988) focuses on influence behaviour of reward, coercion and request, where context varies systematically by manipulating negative affect and cost associated with using a resource. Hence, according to White, the study provided strong support for the sex stratification view. Furthermore, research should consider the topography of specific behavioural patterns labelled coercive. For instance, neutral strategies of which requests were an exemplar, might be either a sign of weakness (supplication, begging, pleading) or strength (autocracy, insisting, demanding) depending on the tone of voice. However, such qualitative features of request could not be assessed.

Yukie and Falbo (1991) were interested in investigating differences between satisfied and dissatisfied married couples.⁷ According to the authors, power differences between men and women, rather than gender per se, were critical variables in determining the selection of power strategies. Men and women differed in social influence styles because men possessed higher status than women. With this legitimate authority, men simply assured that they would get their way, while women did not. Women used indirect and unilateral strategies largely because they assumed from the outset that they would not be successful in influencing their male partner. Or they used these types of strategies as a back-up when the direct approach failed. People with more power used strong tactics with greater frequency than those with less power.⁸

Yukie and Falbo's investigation of the relationship between marital satisfaction, resources and power strategies was based on a questionnaire containing instruments measuring consensus, affection, cohesion, marital satisfaction, marriage type, and role attitudes. A 13-item scale assessed the spouses' preferences for 13 possible power behaviour patterns in the following conflict situations: vacation, financing, household chores, parents and times. Results revealed that marital satisfaction was positively related with indirect and unilateral strategies. Hence, the authors did not support the hypothesis that wives were more likely to use indirect and bilateral strategies than husbands.

POWER AND INFLUENCE BEHAVIOUR IN ORGANISATIONAL SETTINGS

This stream of research attempts to explore power behaviour differences between men and women in organisational settings. This body of research is deemed relevant because, to a certain extent, the family can be compared to a small organisation. On the one hand, power behaviour in terms of reward and coercion reveals no differences in favour of men or women (Koberg 1985). On the other hand leaders are found to vary influence strategies with respect to subordinate competence but not to subordinate sex (Ansari 1989).

Koberg (1985) contended that there was little evidence for empirically providing a sex differentiation in power behaviour since the majority of studies used post-hoc analyses and verbal attitudes instead of overt behaviour proper.⁹ He devised

an experimental design to verify whether the use of power by women represented the opposite approach from that followed by men. Three types of power behaviour were examined: reward, expert, and coercive power. The analysis was primarily concerned with examining the influence of sex, self-confidence, kind of worker problem in hand, and choice of a power response.

Results of Koberg's study (1985) revealed that self-confidence failed to significantly influence the choice of behaviour responses. An analysis of the main effects for problem conditions showed that the choice of power varied with the kind of the problem in hand. Specifically, the use of coercive power was associated with problems of ability and not with problems of discipline. Men and women did not differ significantly in the selection of expert, reward and/or coercive power. Both sexes preferred two-way to one way communication. Such results contrasted sharply with general sex-role stereotypes about power use and tactics.

Ansari (1989) investigated the extent to which variation in influence strategies was a function of the individual leader's sex, the sex of the subordinate, and the subordinate's performance. Findings were mixed. While some failed to find any significant sex differences, others indicated that indirect, manipulative strategies were seen as more typical of women and direct persuasive strategies were more typical of men.¹⁰ To address whether male and female leaders differed in the use of influence strategies, five strategies were subjected to separate 2(leader sex) * 2(subordinate sex) * 2(subordinate level of performance). These were assertion and negative sanction, reward and exchange, reasons, expertise and reasons, and ingratiation. Subjects were asked to describe the likelihood of engaging in such behaviour. Significant effects of sex were found for assertion and negative sanction, and for exchange. Males showed greater tendency to use them than females. Strong effects of subordinate sex were also found for assertion and negative sanction and for reward and exchange, in the case of poorly performing groups, but not in the case of well performing ones. Thus the study failed to substantiate the hypothesis that women, more than men, employed indirect manipulative strategies. Nonetheless, it supported that leaders varied influence strategies with respect to subordinate performance and competence.

Drehr et al. (1989) examined the use of upward appeal tactics in salary attainment processes. According to the authors, there were a variety of factors that explained sex-based salary differentials. Women might lack knowledge concerning when to use appropriate influence strategies or might be less able than men at implementing upward influence tactics. This might result from socialization experiences that did not prepare women for the realities of organizational life and from a lack of exposure to mentors and sponsors.¹¹ The authors devised a model where annual salary was the criterion variable. Five control variables were considered to be important determinants of salaries and to covary with the use of upward influence tactics. These were years worked, degree, organisational size, occupation and socio-economic origin. Upward influence tactics were measured by asking respondents to indicate the extent to which they used each of 27 tactics when attempting to influence their superiors. Overall, results revealed no mean differences between men and women with respect to the use of the six dimensions of upward appeal.¹²

POWER AND INFLUENCE BEHAVIOUR AS FUNCTIONS OF CULTURAL CONTEXT

Some researchers propose that in some cultural settings, the autonomy concept is more relevant than the power concept (Isvan 1991). Other researchers contend that occupational attainment may be a source of power (Shukla & Kapoor 1990). Others think that such an attainment may not be as important as cultural family organisational patterns (Warner et al. 1986).

Isvan (1991) suggested that the bargaining process described by neoclassical theory assumed a direct and open confrontation between household members where net outcome was closest to the interests of who pulled hardest. The dominance of such a theory had led to the classification of households along the power dimension typically producing the three categories of husband-dominant, egalitarian, and wife-dominant households. Domestic bargain might be culture specific; in some contexts, it was acted out within a less confrontational mode.¹³ Hence degree of autonomy should replace power as the major predictor of domestic bargain. The study of domestic politics within the cultural setting of Turkey showed that, rather than using power in a direct confrontational mode, Turkish women preferred to use power to

carve out and delineate a domain of autonomy within which they could effectively pursue their goals. This finding suggested that analysis of household be built on in-depth understanding of the specific cultural context in which the study is conducted.

Shukla and Kapoor (1990) focused on antecedents and consequences of family power strategies. Their aim was to explore relationships of women's employment and sex-role identity with family power structures, and that of family power structures with marital satisfaction. Power was defined as an attribute of a social position and conjugal role performance. Men often played the instrumental role of provider and occupied positions of greater authority, while women played the expressive role of housekeeping and child care. But this distribution might vary from gender role stereotypes depending upon stages in the life cycle, decision areas, and the different abilities or resources of marriage partners. Besides, resource theory contended that the woman who worked made a valuable contribution to the household. She gained a valuable resource - money - which helped her bargain within the marital unit and influence power balance.¹⁴

Data analysis of Shukla and Kapoor's Study (1990) showed that husbands in dual-career families had significantly less power across various decisions. Wives' employment as well as their sex-role identity were significantly related to power structure in the families. Employed wives' families were more often syncratic or wife-dominated and non-employed wives' families were more often autonomic or husband-dominated. A significant association was observed between power types and marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives: most of the responses in syncratic families and husband-dominant families reported that they were very happy with their marriages. The lowest levels of marital satisfaction were reflected in wife-dominant families.¹⁵

Warner et al. (1986) contended that marital power varied across cultural norms as well as across individual marriages. Marital power was defined as the extent to which wives exercised independent decision making authority with respect to their own behaviour and exert influence over the behaviour of other family members including husbands. The objective was to ascertain the circumstances or conditions under which wives might have greater or lesser decision making authority in marriage. On the whole, women's power was greater in nuclear family structures

than in extended ones. In sum the study suggested that the conceptualisation of resources needed to be broadened to include nonmaterial dimensions.

POWER AND NEGOTIATION BEHAVIOUR AS A MODEL INVOLVING CONTEXT, PROCESS, AND OUTCOME

Scanzoni and Polonko (1980) criticised the power literature for its almost exclusive focus on outcomes rather than processes. The reason was that decision processes were extraordinarily difficult to conceptualise and operationalise. A conceptual model was presented (see figure 2.1) and described as follows: Context variables would influence process variables which in turn would influence outcome.

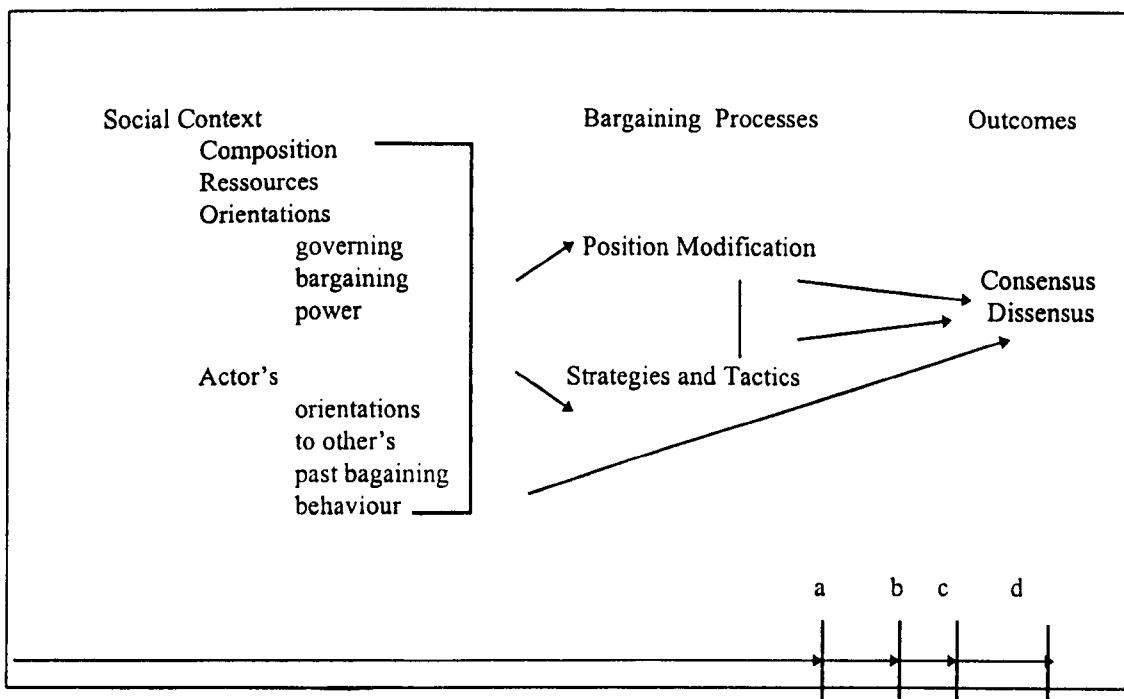


Figure 2.1

A MODEL OF EXPLICIT MARITAL NEGOTIATION

Source: Scanzoni and Polonko (1980), p. 33.

The Negotiation Context

It was composed of four clusters. Compositional variables included age, length of marriage, number of children, and information about partners' interests. Resource variables included tangible resources such as education, job status, income, work experience, and intangible resources such as negotiation experience and instrumental skills. Orientations governing the use of bargaining power were self-esteem, sex-role preference, stake in the outcome of the issues, and salience or

importance of the issue. The Actor's orientations regarding the Other's bargaining behaviour hinged around the following questions: How strongly did Other bargain cooperatively or in terms of maximum joint profit? How much trust can Actor put in Other to fulfill any arrangement they worked out? Did Other bargain in a fair and equitable manner? Did Actor perceive that Other understood him/her and communicated well with him/her? Did Actor hold any resentment against Other because of Other's past negotiation positions and behaviour?

The Ongoing Nature of Process and Outcome. Negotiation might vary from one shot to repeated, sequential, serial, multiple, or linked behaviour. The model presented dealt with one shot phenomena but sought to convey the reality that outcome "a" very often became part of the context in which additional negotiations would take place that would give rise to a result called outcome "b". Cessation of negotiation did not always result in a pattern equally satisfactory to both partners. Therefore a repeated series of negotiations taking place over an extended consensus was achieved. This ongoing reality introduced enormous complexities into our thinking about marital negotiation.

Bargaining Power. Power was intrinsically associated with ongoing movement, or process rather than outcome. The author found it vital to conceive of power in a dynamic sense instead of thinking of it solely as outcome. Power was defined as the ability of one party to produce movement or change of behaviour on the part of the other. Power was present in a negotiation situation when one party shifted another from its initial position towards the position of the first party, because the first had caused the second to move. Such a notion allowed the comparison of the amount of movement affected by each party as an index of the ability of each to cause the other to change. Since bargaining was a process of position modification and convergence, and power was a concept covering the causes of change in attitudes and behaviour, power could effectively be used as a means to explain the process.

According to the above mentioned authors, a proper definition of power should be directed at the determinants of the outcome, and not the outcome itself. Power was inferred to lie in each party's position. Hence it was not the property of the individual but the property of the system or the set of relations that envelope

Actor and Other. Power was a relation and what mattered was what caused the relation whereby one party affected another. Each party's bargaining power was inferred from his/her capacities to bring about these kinds of shifts in his/her partner, thus achieving gains or benefits, while simultaneously being able to resist changes, i.e. concession or costs of his/her own. It was therefore possible to conceive of their relative bargaining power as ranging on a continuum from symmetry to asymmetry.

Negotiation Processes

Bargaining Position. The aim of negotiation was to attain a convergence where there was a dissensus or conflict of aims, goals or behaviour. This process should entail a transformation or modification of interests and expectations of at least one of the bargainers involved. Flexibility or unwillingness to compromise were central to effective bargaining. A bargainer who made high demands but yet granted few concessions was described as "tough". A bargainer who adopted the opposite behaviour was described as "soft". Other bargainers might be found in between. Disparity between spouses tended to contribute to asymmetry of power. Power was defined as the capability to achieve modifications in Other's behaviour at minimal cost to Actor. Disparity might also occur in the matter of who was being represented by Actor and Other. These phenomena were linked with the "composition" cluster.

As for the "resources" cluster it might include, according to the above mentioned authors, job status, income, education and so forth. What was important in achieving modification was not the absolute level of resources either one had, but "orientations governing bargaining power" which implied that being able to resist modification in ones' own position, was most likely to occur when both parties had equivalent self-esteem levels and similar level of preferred sex role equality, and when both ascribed to the same degree of importance to the issue, and both had comparable stakes in its outcome.

Cluster four, "Actor's orientations to Other's past bargaining behaviour", meant that past bargaining encounters with Other gave Actor a sense of how flexible he/she could afford to be with regard to negotiation position without being exploited or taken advantage of by Other. The ongoing exchanges of proposals and counter-proposals which might result in shifts in bargaining positions did not occur in any

mechanical fashion. The reality of the give and take processes was not designed to reveal a fixed hierarchy of utilities. Instead, it was designed to shape a new reality.

Bargaining Behaviour. According to Scanzoni and Polonko (1980) bargaining behaviour patterns were strategies and tactics that each party deemed appropriate, or else, inappropriate in terms of optimising his/her cost-reward ratio. Bargaining processes might include something besides giving and receiving trade-off. Simultaneously, Actor might use certain appropriate strategies alongside these offers and counteroffers to try to arrive as closely as possible at the resolution she/he preferred. What was appropriate later on might not have been appropriate at the outset.

Certain context variables might also predict the utilisation of particular strategies in order to increase the likelihood of bringing about changes in Others' positions. Positions might often feedback on the choice of strategies. One set of tactics was called "verbal persuasion strategies". These rationales could range on a continuum from collective interests to individualistic interests. In between these extremes, there were additional verbal persuasive tactics. As long as the techniques used to resolve conflict consisted of verbal persuasion, parties were likely to maintain a spirit of conciliation, minimisation of differences, and enhancement of mutual understanding and good will. These were called cooperative bargaining. But if negotiation escalated expanded or intensified, partners would gear towards competitive strategies. The more strongly that Actor perceived Other's positions as intractable even after utilising persuasion, the more likely that Actor would escalate his/her bargaining behaviour.

This middle level of negotiation might be labelled competitive-coercive or simple coercive type tactics. These might take the form of anger, shouting, name calling, depreciation, or the form of withholding information, withdrawal from the discussion, maintaining an icy silence, refusing to discuss the problem, imposing guilt on Other, accusing Other of being selfish, face-saving, status-quo bargaining, attempted suppression, threats, ultimatums, etc. In sum, Actor might escalate beyond verbal persuasion strategies and use one or more of these coercive tactics. Flexibility in the utilisation of an array of strategies was more likely to achieve modification than reliance on one tactic.

Negotiation Outcome

The distinction between processes and outcomes might be useful analytically and heuristically. But in fact, the two phenomena made up an intrinsic whole. Modifications of bargaining positions in conjunction with context variables and bargaining strategies were dynamic phenomena, but whenever the mutual give and take stopped what emerged was an arrangement. Actor might be asked if he/she and his/her spouse agreed/disagreed about that particular arrangement - about the ways in which the rewards and costs were distributed, and how strong was agreement/disagreement. The notion of outcome might also constrain some additional logical possibilities like "still discussing".

In summary, Scanzoni and Polonko's model (1980) assumed on going influence emerging from context variables and continuing through explicit negotiation processes and proceeding to outcomes. The central question of this or any explicit negotiation model was: under what conditions would the context variables predict greater or lesser bargaining power to either party? The same point applied to the following question: which context and process variables would demonstrate the strongest net effect on outcomes? So the central question became, out of a large array of variables, what were the most powerful predictors? What was much more difficult was the challenge of designing valid indicators of modification or constancy in bargaining positions and their interplay with bargaining strategies.

NOTES

1. According to Walker (1989), many of the qualities that women display in marital conversation and conflict are traceable to their subordinate position. Subordinates must be more sensitive and responsive to those in power than the reverse. Women expect non compliance during conflict, and similar to other subordinates, resort to harassment through coercion. Husbands can afford to be more calm, conciliatory, and chivalorous because of their greater power in marriage. Partners in the weaker position (more typical of wives) tend to use more supplication, manipulation, and back channel methods and partners in the stronger position (more typical of husbands) tend to use more bullying and autocracy. Wives then have more responsibility than husbands for monitoring the relationship, confronting disagreeable issues, setting the tone of the conversation, and moving towards reduction when conflict is high.

2. According to Walker (1989), in spite of all the talk about egalitarian ideology, abstract beliefs about what women and men "ought" to do are not connected with the division of family work. As long as a woman's paid labour is construed as a privilege rather than as a necessity for her family, her husband will not do more family work. Wives who experience themselves as family breadwinners have husbands who do more housework. Wives who define themselves as providers are more likely to judge their husbands' contribution to housework as less than fair and feel entitled to more help. The fairness of the division of domestic work has different implications for women and men. Research on equity in marriage reveals that husbands are more likely than wives to be over benefited. Among wives, unlike among husbands, there is a clear and positive connection between fair division of family work and marital and personal well-being. It is not overwork or exhaustion that is the source of discontent among wives; it is inequality. But there seems to be, at times, an ambivalent struggle: women's reluctance to give up family work and men's resistance to take it on. On the one hand, there are many strategies partners usually do to avoid housework (such as choosing less frequently done tasks). On the other hand, among dual-earners families, fathers' solo child-care is related strongly to diminished love for their wives and negative interaction in marriage, such as wives showing anger and impatience.

3. Authority can vary from power, i.e. the ability to affect the behaviour of others contrary to their wishes, or influence, i.e. the ability to sway someone who does wield power. Power can be exerted without authority. Wives are famous for ceding authority to their husbands and acting through influence. Women in some traditional societies have considerable influence in the private sphere but not in the public one (public powerlessness and private strength: Williams 1988). Their social and personal identification come from their husbands who are considered the dominant figure in the family and the community.

4. Such a theory developed on the basis of some sociological studies which drew on situations such as these (Curtis 1986). (1) In several modern societies, the woman may play the authoritative roles, ruling over her husband and children. A man who grows in such an environment would expect his wife to dominate him; but she is prepared for submissive roles. A struggle arises which is won by the person who forces the other to make decisions for the pair. (2) Variation in dominance and subordination are related to the position of the mates in courtship desirability; one who marries well must pay for it in the condition of marriage association.

5. Gilmore (1990) notes however that finance management correlates with class. Among the wealthier peasants, husbands retain rights over domestic economy and play a more active role in allocating resources. According to the author, working class men accept that women rule the household economy mainly because surplus cash is a rarity and domestic economy is often managed on a credit or a deficit basis.

6. According to White (1988), interpersonal theories of role socialisation would predict significant gender differences in the use of reward and coercion as strategies of influence, with no specific predictions about contextual factors. Coercion is evidenced by threats and aggression while reward behaviour patterns usually promise or deliver a desired commodity. The social context view would predict no gender differences among males and females in similar circumstances and with access to the same resources; situation factors, rather than gender per se, would predict behaviour. Sex stratification would predict an interaction, the nature of which would be based on the context and specific features of the behaviour patterns studied. Specifically, men and women would be expected to react differently to negative affect towards the target and the cost associated with using a resource:

males are expected to be more coercive when insulted than females; women are more willing to use rewards under high cost than males.

7. According to Yukie and Falbo (1991), satisfied couples show more social reinforcement behaviour such as, agreement, humour, assent, positive problem solving behaviour such as compromise and suggestion of problem solution and facilitative behaviour such as positive description of the partner. Dissatisfied couples are more likely to be negative in their emotional expression such as frown-face, behaviour exchange such as the reciprocation and escalation of aversive behaviour, and negative social behaviour such as disagreement and putting down the partner. About power and satisfaction, dissatisfied couples are distinguished from satisfied ones by a higher rate of coercive techniques. These are based upon a persons' belief that the partner can say something unpleasant if he/she does not comply. These correspond to unilateral power strategies which include Laissez-faire, Negative Affect and Withdrawal. Men were more likely to use direct and bilateral strategies, while women were more likely to use indirect and unilateral strategies. These effects of gender differences are similar to the pattern found for the effects of the perceived balance of power in the relationship. Namely, people who perceive the usefulness as having more power than their partners are more likely to use direct-bilateral strategies.

8. According to Yukie and Falbo (1991), position of the weakness (female) increased the use of supplication (pleading, crying, acting helpless). This finding is consistent with sex stereotypes about men and women. Differential expectations of power usage by men and women were confirmed: reward, coercion, legitimate information and expert powers were expected of men, whereas helplessness, indirect information, nagging, and sexuality powers were expected of women. Balance or imbalance of resources between spouses is associated with marital satisfaction and the use of power strategies. Based on resource theory, in countries like the US Austria and France, that the greater resources one has, the greater power he/she has in the relationship. However, resources can include things like money and education or non material attributes like energy and charm.

9. According to Kobberg (1989), despite apparent improvement in their positions and opportunities for the expression of power at work, women are regarded as fundamentally dissimilar to men in terms of power behaviour. Men tend to use control overtly whereas women use covert and psychological means of control such as manipulation. Some suggest that typical expression of power are due to differences in the need for power; however women's motivation and need for power are found to be similar to those of men. Others think that differences are due to behavioural attitudes of the organisation's social groups and the male and female groups. Expectations and perceptions that may result from cultural and educational factors are important in determining how power comes to be expressed in organisations. Women see concern for others and internal strength as acceptable expression of power, whereas men perceive aggression as acceptable. Moreover, in many organizational settings, men are more often rewarded and reinforced for instrumental behaviour and women for expressive behaviour.

10. Typically, men use reward, coercion, legitimacy, information, and expertise whereas women are more likely to be influential. More specifically, if sex role is a status characteristic, then higher status persons (males) are more likely to use such direct tactics as reward, coercion and exchange, and lower status (females) are more likely to use indirect soft tactics like ingratiation. Concerning the impact of subordinate's sex on leader's use of influence strategies, some researchers found that females treat male and female subordinates similarly. Others found that leaders give preferential treatment to subordinates of their own sex. As for the impact of subordinate performance, it is a situation variable that appears to affect the leader's influence tactics. Leaders tend to use positive sanction with well performing subordinates and negative sanctions with poorly performing ones (Ansari 1989).

11. According to Drehr et al. (1989), previous research on influence-based dimensions such as the impact of ingratiation, exchange, rationality, coalition, and blocking and on authority based dimensions such as assertiveness, sanctions, and upward appeal on salary attainment failed to reveal significant contributions to the salary equation.

12. After entering the five control variables in separate regression equations for men and women, the six dimensions of upward influence were entered as a set to estimate the unique contribution of tactic usage in accounting for variance in annual salary. Results suggest that gender-specific salary equations should be estimated when studying the use of upward influence tactics. The exchange tactic is a typical illustration of this. When a total sample equation is estimated the exchange tactic fails to make a significant contribution. This results from this variable's positive

relationship with salary in the male equation and its negative relationship with salary in the female equation. (Drehr et al. 1989).

13. This is why, according to Isvan (1991), an alternative typology of household power distribution was proposed providing Autocratic, Syncratic and Autonomic families. In settings where a conflict of interest rarely leads to confrontation, the powerless party tries to achieve her or his goal without directly challenging the authority of the more powerful household member. At times, the transition to a modern, i.e. westernised mode of interaction between the spouses, one that is generally characterised as egalitarian, compassionate and emotionally nucleated does not necessarily produce the predicted increase in the wife's efficacy. Instead, it blurs previously clear-cut domains of autonomy, severs the wife's tie to "traditional" social and kin networks, and creates confrontations in previously non-confrontational situations. In the absence of new bases of power to replace loss of autonomy, the net effect is, more often than not, an overall decrease in the wife's ability to prevail in the domestic bargain.

14. According to Shukla and Kapoor (1990), the legal status of women in India is far superior to what it is in many countries. But normative considerations are still very strong. Within the family there is a clear distribution of labour and correspondingly clear lines of authority. Perhaps because of married employed women being only a minority in India at present, not much work has been done regarding impact of women's economic involvement on role organisation and power structure within the families. As for sex role identity, it implies that sex-typed individuals are considered more restricted and behaviourally limited in situations where cross sex-typed behaviour is required. When placed in the context of relative decision-making power of marriage partners, previous research regarding sex role suggest that androgynous wives may be more affective, competent and assertive in decision making situations as compared to their feminine peers. The categorisation of conjugal power influence into a four-fold schema based upon the type of governing arrangements that prevail in families implies that authority relationships may differ from one family to another in at least two respects: extent or range of authority of husbands and wives within which they function independently of each other (autonomic) and extent or range of residual authority that is shared between spouses (syncratic). In the area of marriage, such relations are measured indirectly through decision making acts and outcomes. The categorization also implies that power structure is related to marital satisfaction whereby syncratic structures reflect higher level of satisfaction whereas wife-dominant reflect lower level of satisfaction. This is explained as follows: equality per se is not the crucial factor because autonomic families are just as equal but much less enthusiastic than syncratic families. Equality combined with separate decision making is a kind of not counting and not mattering to the other partner. Thus, lowest levels of satisfaction are found among wives in wife-dominant families. According to the authors, when it comes to having a say in decision making, the dominant wife obviously plays an even more central role in the eyes of the partner. The reason for their dominance is the husband's abstention from the marriage. Hence, wives going it alone in marriage feel dismayed rather than pleased.

15. Shukla and Kapoor (1990) conclude that in cross cultural research on marital power, the most often used theoretical formulations are those related to resources and norms. The basic proposition of the resource theory is that decision-making power of each spouse is directly dependent upon the extent to which that spouse contributes valued resources to the marriage. A valued resource is anything one partner may make available to the other, helping the latter satisfy his/her needs or attain his/her goals. The resource theory has sometimes been criticized for not incorporating the entire range of resources exchanged between spouses and the dynamics involved in these exchanges. The analysis of cultural context adds another dimension to the resource theory by suggesting that the effect of resources on husband's power in marriage is different under different cultural or normative conditions. In egalitarian cultures, resources are directly related to power while in patriarchal cultures, effects of norms override those of resources. In modified patriarchal cultures where norms are changing from patriarchal to egalitarian, resources are negatively related to power, because in such societies, although man's higher status operates as a valued resource, his education exposes him to modern egalitarian norms so that there is a greater possibility for the increased participation of women.

APPENDIX 2-A : BASIC POWER CONCEPTS

Actor

Individual or a group who is involved in action and who has interest in that action. An a priori list of actors in an organisation cannot be established. They can only be enumerated on the basis of the intended action. A whole group can be considered as a unique actor as in the case of confronting an external factor, or as consisting of several actors. An individual, even at a higher hierarchical levels is not forcibly an actor.

Authority

It is confidence invested in someone, either holding a hierarchical position or not, whose order is obeyed and whose advice is taken. He has authority means that he has seduction or competencies that elicit action in conformity with his desire, based on confidence and free from any constraint.

Stake

Value attributed to an action ; it is gained or lost regardless of the objectives of the action. It is the instance of gaining the esteem of others while involving them into a difficult task. There is always interest in power at stake which lies more or less somewhere behind the declared objectives.

Function

The tasks that an organisation attributes formally to an individual or a group, including that of leadership.

Influence

Capacity of an actor of gaining the ability to provoke action of another actor. Power is not automatically linked to resources (or constraints) deriving from holding a superior hierarchical position. There are some superiors without real power and individuals or groups who have a lot of power with no hierarchical position. The sources of power are competence, mastership of the relation with the environment, mastership of communication, and knowledge of the functioning of the rules.

Rationality

The capacity of adapting means to ends. There is never a unique rationality in an organisation. There are always several means of reaching targets. Rationality and rational have become more or less magical words in the developed world where mathematical and Cartesian reasoning is the dominating model of thinking. When a pattern of behaviour or decision is treated as irrational, it implies that it is not even worth discussing. Now, every pattern of behaviour obeys rationality only partially. Hence the myth of science, scientificity and progress does have its own limits.

Responsibility

A mission conferred to an individual or to a group. Responsibility has got a global and a general aspect. It implies the definition of functions and of means.

System

The relation between elements of a set is as important as the qualities of those elements. A system is defined by the interdependency of its parts. Interaction is the action of the elements to achieve this interdependency. Interaction and interdependency should go hand in hand. It is not always the case, however.

Concrete System

A set of relations that are established between members of an organisation and that are devoted to solving concrete everyday problems. These relations are not predicted by the formal organisation and the definition of functions. Some of the informal rules about the functioning of the organisation are generally well known to anyone who is interested in introducing changes in the organisation.

Uncertainty Zone

Every organisation is permanently prone to high levels of uncertainty either at the technical, commercial, human, or financial levels, etc. Those who gain control over them via competencies, communication, and relation networks are more capable of exercising control over power resources. Their behaviour is thus unpredictable. Uncertainty exists always at all levels, thus giving autonomy to actors. Uncertainty is by definition unclear; thus there is a tendency to talk about uncertainty zones which are instances where something might happen inadvertently.

Source : Bernoux (1985).

Chapter 3

Decision Making Power in the Consumer Behaviour Sphere

Decision Making Power in the Consumer Behaviour Sphere

A review of basic consumer behaviour conceptualisations is deemed important before moving to family purchasing proper. A complete model of consumer behaviour (Engel et al. 1995), served as a reference for many researchers. According to the above authors, a model is a replica of the phenomena it is designed to represent; it specifies the building blocks, the ways in which they are interrelated, and the outcomes when the model is set in motion by various forces. Engel et al.'s model helped many researchers concentrate on important blocks. Confirmatory evidence was given in the literature to some components of the model. In the following sections, consumer behaviour as multi-stage (O'Brien 1971; Wilkes 1975), judgmental (Battman 1974) and muddling through (Park 1982) processes are dealt with.

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AS A MULTISTAGE DECISION PROCESS

Consumer behaviour has usually been described in terms of separate stages linked together over time, hence the "hierarchy of effects" model (O'Brien 1971). The superiority of the four-stage decision process has also been demonstrated (Wilkes 1974).

O'Brien (1971) was interested into describing consumer decision making in terms of separate stages of thinking linked together over time. The potential buyer supposedly passed through these stages in a specified order as he approached a decision on brand choice. The hierarchy of effects consisted of cognitive, affective, and conative stages where cognition referred to non-evaluative thinking, affective to an evaluation relationship to brand and conative to plans of actions or overt behaviour. The four variables were the operational statements of the three stages of decision making. Awareness was a brand's relative prominence or salience. Attitude was an evaluative relation of preference or desire. Intention to purchase was the extent of commitment to a future action, a self-prediction of anticipated behaviour, or more simply, plans. Purchase was a straight forward variable, the tangible or observed behaviour aspect of the conative stage. The three links among the four variables comprised the hypotheses for the study in the following way. Awareness

and purchase would increase over time and the relationship would be positive; attitude would increase over time, and would be positively associated with intention to purchase; intention would increase over time, and would be positively related to actual purchase. Findings showed that awareness and purchase tended to increase over time while attitude and intention tended to decline. The variables tended to be more consistent with themselves over time than with the rest of the variables measured either at the same time or lagging in time. According to O'Brien, multiple correlations and differences confirmed the priority of awareness to attitudes, to intention and to purchase, and the priority of attitude and intention to purchase.

Wilkes (1975) provided confirmatory support to the commonality of the phases of the decision process across spouses and their interrelationships. Interviews with husbands and wives yielded responses to each of four measures of influence: two global measures: (1) who usually wins? (2) who decides in several activities? and (3) the four-stage decision process (initial problem recognition, information acquisition, final decision, and actual purchase). The author demonstrated the similarity of husband-wife perceptions about their relative influence in the decision activity and the way the different phases of this activity interrelated. Respondents were able to identify their influence in purchasing stages with minimum apparent difficulty. The model thus appeared plausible and would seem to have face validity as well as logical consistency.¹

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AS A JUDGMENTAL PROCESS

Bettman (1971) contends that findings in clinical judgments are relevant for understanding consumer decision processes. The experimental paradigm underlying this research is as follows: judges provided with sets of cues of variables for each case are asked to make quantitative judgments on many hypothetical cases. The experimenter attempts to fit the judge's responses by some mathematical function of the cues. According to the judges, individuals hold models subjectively, use the cues non-linearly and configurally. That is, attention is given to patterns of cues so that a cue's effect on judgment depends on the value of another cue or set of cues. The surprising finding of such studies is that if a simple linear regression model using the cues as predictors and quantitative judgments as dependent to fit the data is applied,

the model's accuracy will be ascertained. Hence, adding interactive configural terms does not improve predictions.² He concludes that complex decision processes models can often be approximated quite well by simple models. Hence a collection of rather simple decision process types can be used to model consumer decisions.

CONSUMER DECISION MAKING AS A MUDDLING THROUGH PROCESS

According to Park (1982), theories of group problem solving which assume that the dyad is rational, analytical, and plans comprehensively to maximise joint utility are not convincing. In contrast, the author characterises joint decision making as a "muddling through" process that assumes little understanding of the method necessary to achieve the most desirable joint decision. Thus, in the family setting, each spouse follows his or her own decision strategies (enhancing his/her own utility) while attempting to minimise conflict, which often involves groping through a recursive, discontinuous process. This seemingly frustrating joint decision is achieved more easily than it appears through use of the following « conflict avoiding heuristics ».

Common Preference Levels on Salient Objective Dimensions

There are a set of dimensions on which a preference can be easily identified by another. Taking the case of home purchasing, identification of each spouse's preference on salient objective dimensions - such as the number of bedrooms, price, or home style - does not require as much cognitive processing effort and ability as that required for identification of preferences on salient subjective dimensions such as interior beliefs, neighborhood, appearance of home, and insulation.³

Task Specialisation

Each spouse may differentiate his or her evaluation task by the dimensions to be examined, based on each one's degree of expertise. Such task specialisation is assumed to be based on the mutual recognition of the role of each member of the dyad.

Concessions Based on Preference Differences

Spouses may differ in their desired levels on each salient dimension and in their degree of intensity about obtaining these levels. Those differences are often

resolved through concession - the concession being made by the one with a lower intensity.⁴ A method of examining each spouse's choice decision strategy or plan is needed to understand the dynamic decision process resulting from a dyad's interaction, including changes in choice decision strategies.⁵ In Park's study, this is operationalised at an attribute level, which refers to decision maker's (DM) intended strategies about choice criteria. A hypothetical example of a decision plan net is shown in the form of a net structure as follows: ⁶

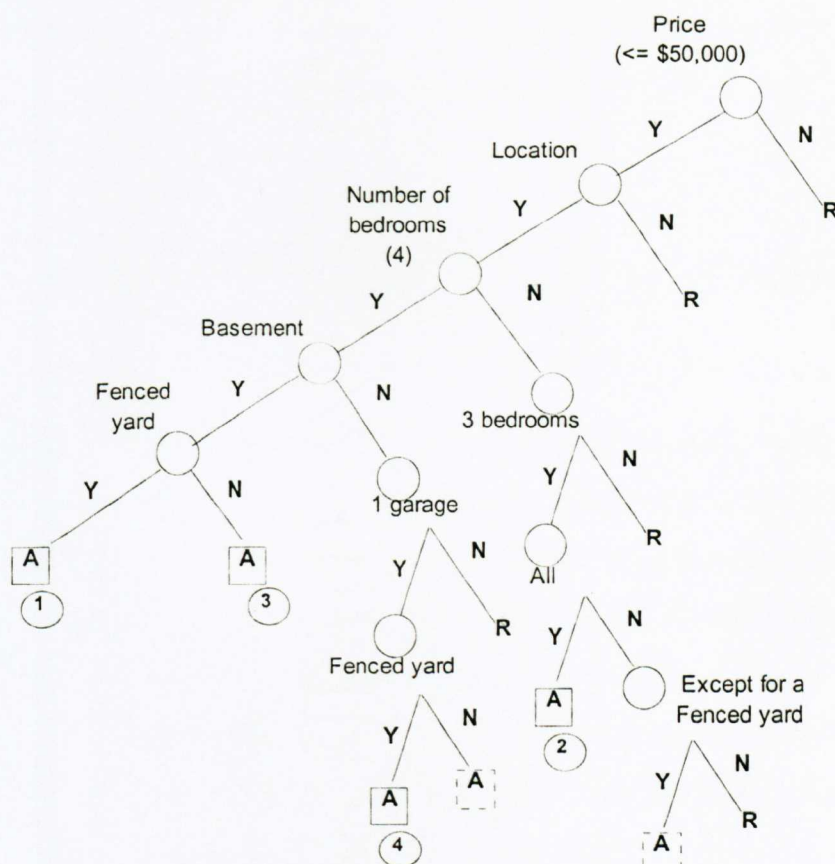


Figure 3.1
DECISION PLAN NET OF A DYAD: A HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLE
 Source: Park (1981), p. 153.

Based on this conceptualisation, Park (1981) conducted a study on “serious buyers” of a home. The study consisted in constructing a decision plan net for each subject. The net construction procedure was carried out at the three different stages (before-search, after-search, and post choice in the same way). The degree of the dyad member's similarity in their decision plans and their convergence during several decision stages were examined. An example at the before search stage is given in Figure 3.2:

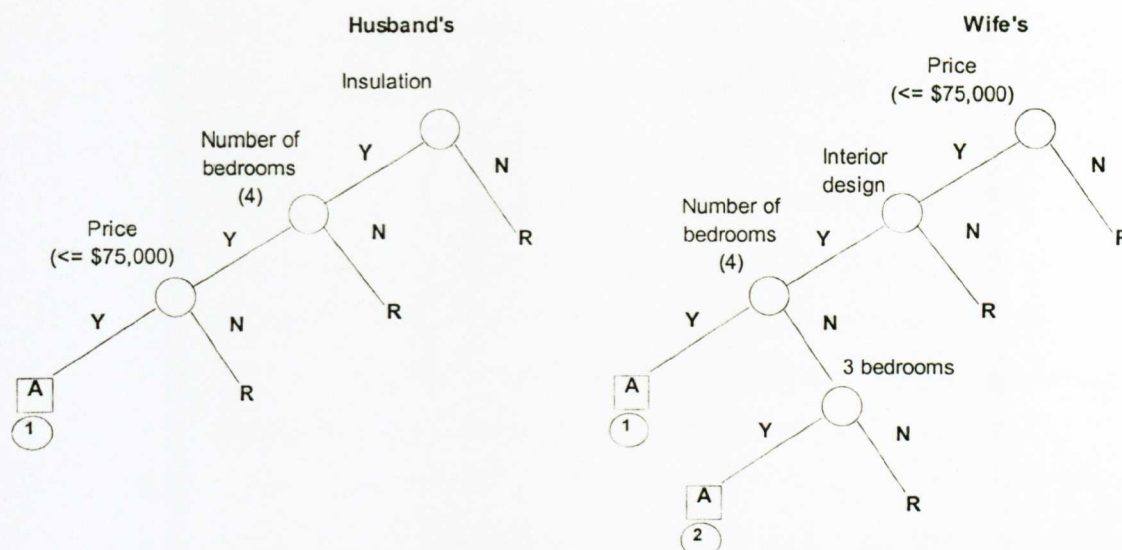


Figure 3.2
DECISION PLAN NET OF EACH DYAD MEMBER: A HYPOTHETICAL
EXAMPLE

Source: Park (1981), p. 156.

Based on these plans, two similarity measures were used. Partial agreement was reached when both spouses agreed on choice criteria ($0.5 = 2/4$, e.g. price and number of bedrooms). Perfect agreement was reached when both spouses agreed on intended strategies on choice criteria ($.25 = 1/4$, e.g. price). Following the procedure outlined above, a similarity analysis revealed relatively low similarity between members of a dyad in their decision plan at any given choice stage. The results confirmed the author's contention that each spouse followed his/her own strategy, without any significant convergence in later choice stages.

ROLE, FAMILY DECISION AND PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

The above mentioned conceptualizations on power distribution and role enactment have influenced the sociology, the marketing, and the consumer behaviour literature which seem to oscillate between structural approaches whereby some forms of dominance and husband-wife differences in family decision making and purchasing are explored, to interactionist approaches whereby some interpersonal dynamics and processes are investigated.⁷

The Structural Approach

A body of the marketing and the consumer behaviour literature investigates the relative influence of spouses in family decision making (FDM) and its variation with product categories (Davis 1970; Hempel 1974) as well as with social categories (Green 1975). Another stream investigates the impact of women's work status upon household purchasing patterns (Weinberg & Winer 1983; Bryant 1988; Bellante and Foster 1984; Rubin et al 1990; Oropesa 1993), and the consequences of women's career involvement, motivations, and role overload upon family purchasing behaviour (Schaninger and Allen 1981; Reilly 1982; Nickols and Fox 1983).

Spousal Roles in Buying Decisions

Some researchers are interested in assessing husbands' and wives' influence in purchasing behaviour by addressing the fundamental question of who does what in the buying process. For instance, Davis (1970), who tried to see whether any consistent patterns of role configuration existed in the family, found that there was considerable variability in husbands' and wives' roles for all purchasing decisions. In assessing relative influence in two "major economic decisions", the author found that influence distribution was product-specific. Some specific decisions (such as where to buy) were wife dominant in one product category (furniture) but husband dominant in another (automobile). In verifying if there was a relation between the different roles in purchasing decisions, it was found that roles were significantly related to other roles within the same product category but were not related to other decisions across the two product categories considered.

Hempel (1974) measured the relative importance of each spouse in specific decisions through different stages of the house buying process in two different cultural contexts. By computing an overall index of perceived dominance, family role structure was classified into husband-dominant, wife-dominant, syncretic, and autonomic. The typical pattern confirmed that the earlier stages of the process (such as information seeking) are husband dominant while the later stages (such as purchase decision) were joint for both cultures. As for the extent of interest of spouses, it varied by decision area with a tendency towards role specialisation. While women concentrated on social and expressive roles, men concentrated on financial

and instrumental roles. Knowledge about role performance at one stage facilitated prediction of roles at the other stages of the buying process. For instance, information gathering responsibility was significantly greater for the spouse who initiated the decision to move.

Green and Cunningham (1975) addressed the question of whether role structure varied with different social categories. According to the authors, the impact of the changes that were taking place in modern societies were not identically manifested within all sub-groups. It was anticipated that, at any time, some women would have adopted the values and attitudes that were associated with the new emerging roles, others would be in a state of ambivalence and flux, some others would continue their adherence to rather traditional values and attitudes.

On the basis of this contention, respondents were divided up into conservatives, moderates and liberals. On the whole, purchase decision patterns were the same for the three subject groups, with wives being dominant in grocery purchasing and husbands being dominant in insurance purchasing. Significant differences between conservatives, moderates, and liberals were however found in the how much to spend decisions. Liberals were characterized by less husband and more wife decision making than were moderates and conservatives. In relating decision patterns to income, the author found less husband decision making among upper income liberals. Differences between the three groups in the lower income categories were not significant.

Women's Employment Status and Family Consumption Patterns

The accelerated entrance of women into the labour force fosters the obvious distinction between working and non-working wives, with the reasonable expectation that they consume differently as a result of variations in time pressures, job-related purchases, and so forth (Strober and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983; Keith Bryant 1988; Bellante and Foster 1984; Rubin et al 1990; Oropesa 1993).

Women's Employment Status as a Consumption Determinant. Alternative explanations of durables purchasing behaviour are the economic theory and the

permanent income theory on the one hand, and the household production theory on the other.

The economic theory suggests that working wives' (WW) and non-working wives' (NWW) families - with the same total amount of income - differ with respect to purchases of time saving goods and services. Because employed wives spend more total time working outside the home than NWW, WW families tend more often than NWW ones to substitute time-saving goods for home production and household activities; therefore, durables expenditures rise with wives' employment. The hypothesis here is that services of durable goods replace labour in the household (Weinberg & Winer 1983).

The permanent income hypothesis suggests that durables expenditures from wives' earnings are higher than those expenditures from other income components, because durables expenditures is a form of saving (Keith Bryant 1988). WW families are more likely than NWW families to purchase durables, either as a form of savings, or as an "extraordinary-purchase" (Weinberg and Winer 1983).

The economics of household production theory presumes that durables and wives' home time are complements in household activities - not substitutes as stipulated by the economic theory. Consequently, durables expenditures decrease as wives' employment rises. That is durable goods (e.g. home appliances) and family labour - presumably wives' - are used together in household activities implying that if the family's demand for wives' time spent on household activities declines - and wives devote more time to paid employment - then so does the family's demand for durable goods (Weinberg & Winer 1983). According to Bryant (1988), WW have less time for - or possibly less interest in - durables administration than their NWW counterparts and therefore, purchase fewer "wife-operated and-maintained machines".

Stroberg and Weinberg (1980) were interested in investigating strategies utilised by WW NWW to reduce time pressures and looked at evidence, if any, of possible differences between both in the use of the following strategies: (1) substitute capital equipment for their own market labour; (2) substitute the labour of others (paid help, husband, or children); (3) reduce the quality or quantity of

household production and/or use own labour more efficiently; (4) decrease time, if any, allocated to volunteer and community work, and (5) decrease time allocated to leisure and/or sleep.

Concerning the substitution of capital equipment (strategy 1), Stroberg and Weinberg (1980) have come to the conclusion that once income and life cycle are held constant, there are possibly no significant differences in the purchase of consumer durables between the two types of families. According to the authors, families do not treat wives' and husbands' earnings differently.⁸ Concerning the substitution of the labour of others (strategy 2), the study revealed that WW families with preschool children used non-mother child care more often than NWW families. However WW families did not appear to substitute the labour of others for other types of housework.

Concerning household production (strategy 3), WW spent less time in housework than NWW. Stroberg and Weinberg argued that WW were often assumed to alter the quality and quantity of household production by eating at restaurants more frequently or by using more convenience foods than NWW; but studies done on this topic revealed no significant differences between both types of families. Concerning decreasing time for voluntary work, leisure and sleep (strategies 4 & 5), it was found that WW have less leisure and less free time than NWW.

In summary, the evidence on strategies used by WW to cope with increased time pressure suggested that holding income and life-cycle constant, WW devoted less time to housework, leisure, and volunteer activity; slept less; made more use of the time of others for child care; exhibited some tendency to use paid help more frequently; but did not purchase durables more frequently than NWW. The above mentioned authors modelled respondent's purchase and ownership of seven durables - microwave oven, dishwasher, freezer, dryer, washer, stove, refrigerator and concluded that neither wives' employment nor their recent entry into employment were significant in the purchase or ownership of labour-saving goods. To the extent that the purchase of labour-saving goods was a strategy to reduce time pressure, there was no significant differential use of the strategy between WW and their NWW counterparts when income and life-stage were held constant.⁹

Weinberg and Winer (1983) replicated an earlier study comparing purchases by WW and NWW and the amounts spent on time saving durables and hobby and recreation items (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980). Weinberg and Winer proposed that WW families were likely to make the same purchase and expenditure decisions for time-saving durables as NWW families, when income, stage of life cycle and other situational variables were held constant. They argued that families did not treat wives' and husbands' earnings differently, because wife's attachment to the labour force had become more permanent. Consequently, WW families used their incomes in approximately the same manner as NWW families with the same total income.¹⁰

Bryant (1988) presented the relationship of wife's time and employment to durables demand as follows (see figure 3.3).

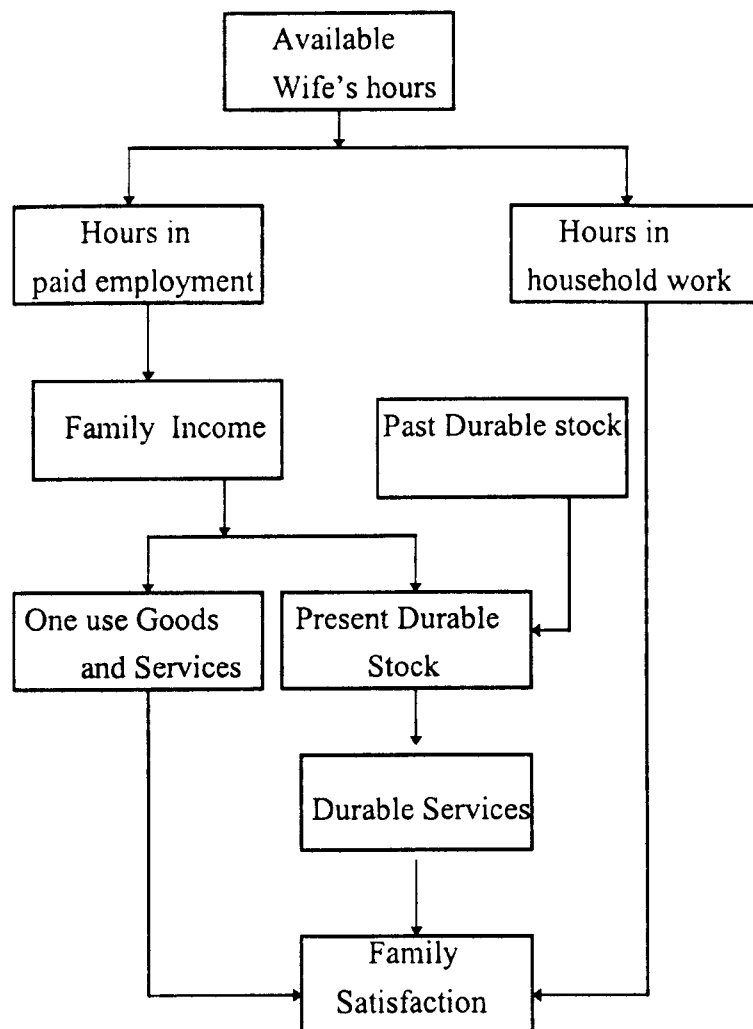


Figure 3.3
WIFE'S TIME AND DURABLES DEMAND
 Source: Bryant (1988), p. 38.

The models reads as follows: The family's income and wives' time are inter-related because wives may devote some of their time to paid employment to augment family income. The family's stock of durables and its income are interrelated because the family spends some of its income on durables to augment the stock. The model was estimated using survey data and the author concluded that durables expenditure and wives' employment were complements not substitutes.

Nickols & Fox (1984) devised a research investigating Stroberg and Weinberg's (1980) strategies mentioned above as they applied to purchasing. " Findings revealed that owners and non-owners were significantly discriminated for all equipment, with income entering all equations. This corroborated those of Strober and Weinberg (1980) regarding the pervasive influence of income on ownership of household capital equipment. In general, wife's employment made no difference in durables ownership. However, life-cycle was not as significant a factor as in Strober & Weinberg's study (1980).

The above authors suggested that regarding purchased services and labour substitutes, wife's employment was not stable in its relationship to variation in use of disposable kitchen products, but was significantly related to increased use of disposable diapers. As for the purchase of meals, families with wives in both high and low status occupations were more likely to purchase lunches away from home than were families of non-employed wives. Purchase of meals did appear to be a time-buying strategy that families with employed wives were using. Concerning paid labour substitutes, positive relationships were observed between purchase of housecleaning and laundry or dry-cleaning services and family income, with little effect from the other variables. Contrary to popular notions, wife's employment did not have a significant effect on husbands' household work and care of family members. Employed homemakers did reduce the quantity of meals prepared and time spent in household production as a time-saving strategy.

Bellante and Foster (1984) hypothesised that the value assigned to time differed substantially from WW families to NWW families. This is why the authors anticipated a positive association between wives' labour force participation and expenditure on time saving-services. By regressing wife's employment and other

factors on mean dollar expenditures on individual services (food away from home, child care outlays, domestic services, clothing care, and personal care), the relation was found to be insignificant. It was much more complex than anticipated. The findings indicated that working wife families did not substitute paid services for housework that would normally be done by the wife if she were not employed outside the home. Education was found to be significantly related to total expenditure only for higher levels of education. While home-ownership was significantly and positively related to total expenditure, it was negatively related to clothing care.

Rubin et al (1990) analyzed the impact of income and the wife's work status on household expenditure shares. Overall, the expenditure share data indicated that expenditure patterns had a fairly high degree of consistency among types of households, income levels and over time (by comparing 1973 to 1984 data). On the one hand, it was notable that wife's work status was found to be significant for only a limited number of expenditure categories and only for the two lower income household categories. On the other hand, the importance of wife's work status to households' expenditures appeared to have declined over time, even at lower income levels. According to the authors, this indicated that expenditure patterns of households were converging regardless of the wife's work status.

Oropesa (1993) notes that previous research fails to demonstrate clearly the effect of employment status of women on ownership of time-saving household technology. According to the author, the reasons why there is "no effect" or "an indirect effect" is that these studies do not take into account the three following considerations. (1) The investigation of the relation dealt with earlier stages of the product adoption process (microwave) and the subjects considered are presumably not innovators. In this case even if the women were employed, they might not be owners of time-saving products, because they might not be innovators. (2) The relation between employment and ownership changes over time; when prices are at their peak, income may intervene as a significant variable. In this case, the relation between ownership and employment is indirect. Later on, a direct relation between the variables is more appropriate. (3) Employment status is a dynamic process; a

woman who is now unemployed may have bought the product when she was employed. This is why the nature of employment status and duration and time of purchase are to be defined.

Oropesa (1993) devised an analytic plan that took into consideration the dynamic nature of the marketplace and of female labour participation. Ownership of a microwave was regressed on female labour participation, income, and other family and socio-economic variables (age of younger child, pre-school children, household size, region, etc.). The model was significant on the whole. On the one hand, full employment status and at a lower degree self-employment status made the largest contribution to microwave ownership. On the other hand, by taking year of surveying into account, recent years witnessed the disappearance of employment effect on microwave ownership.

In general, studies comparing working to non-working wife households have found no relationship to household consumption behaviour when income or other socio-economic variables such as family life cycle, are taken into account, particularly for expenditure data on durables ownership. This has led some researchers to conclude that wife's work status is not a useful or practical predictor of consumption behaviour. More complex classification schemes may produce meaningful and practical differences, as will be shown hereafter.

Wife's Employment Involvement and Motivational Considerations in Purchasing Behaviour. Here, researchers propose to go beyond the observable working status and dig deep into attitudes and motivations behind women's employment involvement (Schaninger and Allen 1981; Reilly 1982; Nickols and Fox 1983).

Schaninger and Allen (1981) argued that only a few consumer research studies had gone beyond the simple dichotomous family classification systems. They proposed a three-way classification scheme based solely on wives' occupation: non working wife (NWW), low-occupational status working wife (LSW), and high occupational-status working wife (HSW). This measure was operationalised by asking for both wife's occupation and job title in open-ended questions, and then classifying wives into one of seven occupation categories. Such a classification was

pertinent because the following factors were likely to interact to produce life style and consumption differences among NWW, LSW, and HSW families, even after controlling for income. (1) Time pressures and work-related stresses, acting on both types of working wives, were believed to produce greater adjustment problems in dual career or HSW families. (2) Altered sex-role norms, including greater independence and achievement motivation for the wife, were particularly likely to evidence less traditional husband/wife roles among HSW families, to have smaller families and postponed progression through the family life cycle, and to lead to more wife influence in decision making. (3) Social class and social mobility led HSW families to be characterized by socially mobile upper-middle class standing and LWS to be characterized by upper-lower or lower-middle-class standing.

Schaninger and Allen's (1981) study revealed differences between the high and low status working wives. On the one hand, due to upper-lower/lower-middle-class background and time pressures, LSW families tended to use convenience foods more frequently than other families. On the other hand, the HSW families tended to avoid instant convenience foods, but tended to use their staple counterparts due to their upper-middle-class tendencies to put a greater emphasis on the evening meal as a stress relieving pseudo-leisure activity. The authors had come to the conclusion that the three-way classification scheme of family types based on wives' occupational status held promise as a summary segmentation construct.

According to Reilly (1982), data on household purchasing consistently fail to indicate any differences in convenience consumption patterns by wives' employment. Clearly one of the two premises is incorrect. Either working does not necessarily lead to role overload, or convenience consumption is not used by working wives to reduce their role over load. Some theoretical support exists for the first of these two possibilities. (1) The positive outcomes from occupying an additional position may well outweigh any additional role conflict and role overload that such occupancy creates. There are four basic positive outcomes: role privileges, status security, status enhancement, and personality involvement. (2) Time and energy devoted to a particular position may reflect the individual's commitment to that position, as well as the availability of time and energy. The role overload

expressed by working wives in their family role may be low because of their commitment to that role. (3) Time and energy demands of all positions in the position set contribute to role overload. Working may not cause role overload for a wife if the rest of the positions in her position set are not demanding.

According to Reilly (1982), if role overload, wife's employment, and convenience consumption were measured simultaneously, an indirect relationship between working and convenience consumption might be found. It could be that working caused role overload, which in turn caused increased use of convenience goods and/or likelihood of owning time-saving durables. Each of these effects might be weak enough that no direct effect was observable between work status and consumption. A structural equation model was developed with three exogenous constructs: wife's work involvement, family's social status, and wife's education. The causal flows are proposed as follows.

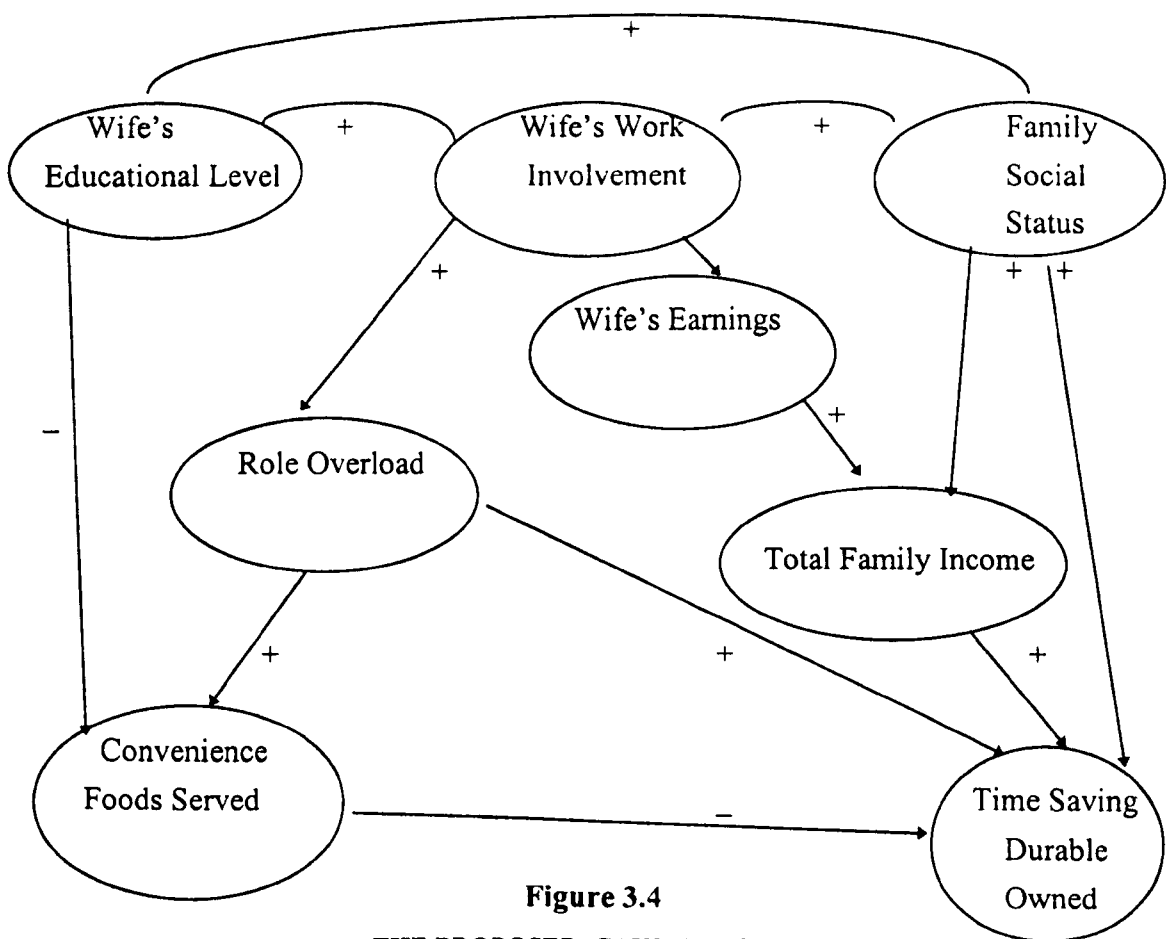


Figure 3.4
THE PROPOSED CAUSAL MODEL
 Source: Reilly (1982), p. 410.

The final model supported the proposition that the wife's work involvement related indirectly to the family's consumption through work overload. Working wives were somewhat more likely to report overload. Wives who reported role overload were somewhat more likely than others to serve convenience food and to own time-saving durables.¹²

Burns and Foxman (1989) proposed a model that positioned role overload and family income as constructs moderating the married wife's use of advertising. Wife role load was defined as the totality of time and energy pressures attributable to a married woman's various roles. Its determinants were number of children, wife's work status, and wife's age. Determinants of family income were work status, age, and education level. The relationships were cast into a series of simultaneous equations. The hypothesised relationships were verified and the final model was presented as follows:

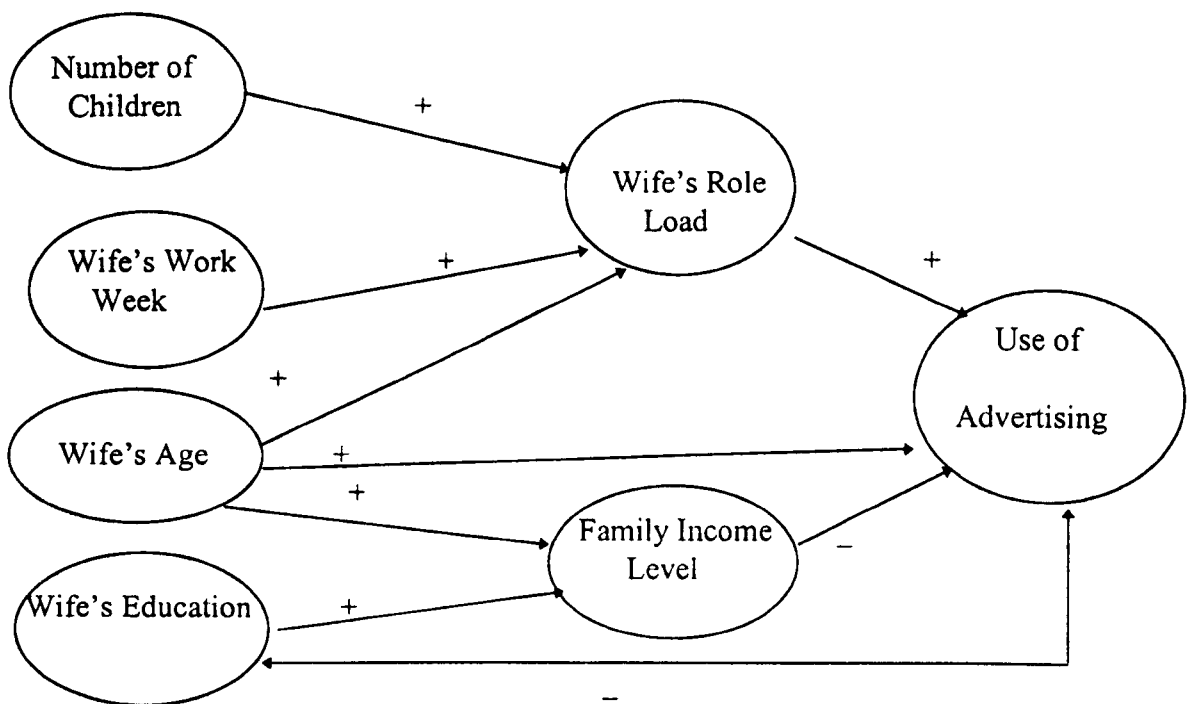


Figure 3.5

A MODEL OF WOMEN'S USE OF ADVERTISING

Source: Burns and Foxman (1989), p. 59.

According to Schaninger et al. (1993), the major segmentation schemes which had categorised wives according to some operationalisation of work involvement such as the simple working-nonworking dichotomy, the level of workforce participation (by examining hours of paid work), and the part versus full time working wives failed to uncover consumption differences.¹³ According to the above authors, the classification of working women into those who view their work as “career” versus those who see it as “just-a-job” and non-working into those who “plan to work” versus those who “stay at home” outperformed the previous schemes and yielded stronger results.¹⁴

On the basis of a questionnaire assessing ownership of major and minor durables, dollar value of major durable acquisitions; and the husband’s and the wife’s work involvement data, deal proneness and shopping behaviour, Schaninger et al. (1993) came to the following results. Highly significant differences emerged among the various segments presented above. Career wives were more sex-role modern and more self-fulfillment oriented, held less traditional values, and felt stronger work and time pressure than all of the other categories. Wives’ shopping behaviour differed significantly across these categories, both before and after adjusting for number of children and family income. Career wives were most likely to use maid and day-care services, and to consume food and beverage, convenience and junk food, and meals prepared away from home. For instance, career women consumed healthy staples and meals prepared away from home more frequently than non-career ones. The authors concluded that neither working nor non-working wives should be treated as homogeneous segments. Differences between the two working wives categories suggested that they be treated as different segments that warranted different marketing mixes.

The Interactionist Approach

In this body of the literature, researchers propose to go beyond the assessment of relative influence of spouses and explore group dynamics such as conflict, adjustment, and negotiation (typically using couples as respondents). Hence, FDM is perceived as a conflict resolution process (Cox III 1975; Burns and Granbois 1977; Corfman and Lehmann 1987).¹⁵

Family Purchasing as a Dynamic Process of Adjustment, Power Use, and Conflict Resolution. According to Cox III (1975), research on family as a small group in the context of goal-oriented behaviour may be more satisfactory than the simple investigation of relative power of husband and wife. The family must have some degree of consensus regarding its goals, objectives, and modes of operation. Since a complete coincidence of goals between the group and the individual rarely exists, a negotiation process would increase in the critical mass of consensus on goals, objectives, and modes of operation which would constitute what may be viewed as the “family value hierarchy”. As one moves through the stages of the family life, roles tend to stabilize, perceptions and preferences tend to become similar. This process is termed “adjustment”. By regressing two alternative measures of adjustment, RCP (Rank Correlation of Preferences) and RCAE (Rank Correlation of Automobile Purchasing) on FLC (Family Life Cycle), the author found that the relationships were significant.

Burns and Granbois (1977) proposed a model implementing the idea that joint decisions required reaching consensus among members. Involvement (defined as the strength of preference for a particular product feature decision), Empathy (defined as an expressive behaviour, a potential for understanding) and Recognized Authority (defined as mutually recognized right to decide assigned to one spouse in the case of disagreement) were suggested as potential modifiers of the relationship between Preference Discrepancies and Conflict Resolution.

Burn and Granbois (1977) noticed interesting patterns. On the one hand, all the husband involvement measures were greater than the wife's. On the other hand, most woman empathy measures exceeded corresponding husband ones. This meant that the average husband was more involved in the buying process while the average woman was more empathetic. As for mutually recognised authority, the wife had no autonomous decision making while the husband maintained considerable arbitration power. Mutual agreements frequencies offered evidence that spouses did agree on a recognised authority. One quarter of the decisions were credited mutually to one spouse or the other. ¹⁶

Douglas and Wind (1978) raised the issue of spousal incongruence in relation to different types of consumer decisions and activities. An overall measure of family power and authority was developed by aggregating husbands' and wives' influence scores on various decision areas and tasks.¹⁷ Regarding the degree of congruence between husbands and wives, the analysis at the aggregate level suggested that the underlying structure or grouping of responsibilities were similar for both. A cluster of apparently "wife-dominated" and "joint" decisions were identified. However, there were some differences in relation to traditionally male dominated activities such as financial decisions, fashion area, and routine bill paying. In some areas women were highly involved while in some others they were just "consultants". On the whole, agreement was generally lower for decisions than for activities. This meant that respondents experienced greater difficulty in identifying who was responsible.¹⁸

According to Douglas and Wind (1978), the observed pattern of decision making and task allocation appeared to be somewhat complex and difficult to categorise in terms of the "dominant-authority" concept. In two cases, the dominant partner was clearly indicated but the nature of the family authority structure was by no means clear. Hence, results of the investigation of individual differences between households in the allocation of responsibility suggested that the distributions seldom reflected a dominant authority pattern. Even among families in which a dominant authority pattern was revealed, it appeared more clearly in relation to the traditional sex-specialised areas such as financial decisions or housekeeping, rather than new or open areas, such as shopping or choosing vacations.

Corfman and Lehmann (1987) focused on the family as a cooperative group in conflict resolved by the use of power. The authors described their model as follows: the outcome of a group decision was a weighted function of the group member's individual preferences. Weights were determined by relative influence of the members - each individual's influence over the other. Influence attempt was power exerted by one member over the other and that would give one the greatest expected return based on three factors: (1) power use effectiveness which was a function of resources one believed were at his disposal, (2) cost of using a power

which depended on whether this source was renewable or not, expensive or not, on personal goals, and on group's decision history; and (3) benefits of using a power source (i.e. an individual's preference for the task-goal or the pay off).

The model assessed the probability that a group member would win (i.e. have the alternative s/he preferred chosen by the group) as a function of relative possession of influence related traits (i.e. resources and goals). Data were collected on a two-phase procedure whereby spouses were treated as independent units than as a couple. The dependent variable, was formed using the group's constant sum point allocation to alternatives (which were identified to be subject to disagreement in phase one in each decision pair). The independent variables were factor-analyzed with personality and demographic items representing indices for resources and personal goal constructs. Most hypothesized relations were found to be significant.

Family Decision Making as a Joint Utility Formation Process. Based on the contention that spouses possessed a utility function defining their preferences over a multi-attribute set of brand options, Menasco and Curry (1989) designed an experiment to assess deviations from such a utility that were due to internal and external forces. These were hypothesized to affect decision making. Internal forces consisted in task specialisation captured by the attribute weights each spouse employed in his/her function, in conflict the two most extremes of which are simple (when spouses agree on order of weights but not on the weights themselves) or inverted (when spouses disagree about relative importance and order), and in negotiation (the two extremes of which are capitulation and compromise). External forces consisted in persuasive messages which came to support one spouse's position more than the other's and which exacerbated role dominance or mitigated forces for compromise.

The dependent measure in Menasco and Curry's model was equity. Attribute weights were recovered using regression on the two attribute scores in each spouse's utility rating. The independent measure was choice position, i.e. actual choice recorded for each choice set of the design.¹⁹ The model fitted the data well, but the hypothesis that equity varied by bargaining condition was not verified. This implied a tendency towards balance, i.e. it was difficult to move away from perfect

compromise. A significant effect for the bargaining factor was found. This meant that spouses revised their utility function under conditions of inverted conflict. Spouses who found themselves at extreme odds during a sequence of choices tended to revise their information integration rules to avoid conflicting outcomes. It was also found that spouses showed empathy to each other's position by altering their individual utility functions in order to agree more with those expressed by their partners.

NOTES

1. Because research so far indicated that extended rather than limited decision behaviour was associated with relatively expensive purchased products, major household goods were selected. Interestingly enough, even for families that had purchased kitchen or laundry appliances, both spouses recorded considerable participation over the phases of the decision process. Convergent validity was confirmed implying that husbands and wives within families held common perceptions about their relative influence for a given phase of the decision process. Consequently, the study results would not have been significantly different had only one spouse been interviewed (Wilkes 1974).

2. In the field of consumer decision making, models of complex discrimination nets, inferred from protocols obtained during several shopping trips were devised. Also, simpler information processing models of these same consumers' decision mechanisms were considered. These simpler choice models, when applied to the data, did surprisingly well. And if simpler models predicted well, could guarantees be obtained that all processes stated in the protocols were really used? The findings are like those from the clinical judgment studies, that subjectively complex decision processes could be approximated fairly well by much simpler models (Bettman 1971).

3. According to Park (1982), presence of preference differences on these dimensions may make the joint decision more difficult than it would be if there were differences on salient subjective dimensions, since there may be rigid standards of reference on the former as opposed to some degree of flexibility on the latter.

4. For example, if the wife feels that four bedrooms is a "must", while the husband prefers three bedrooms but considers four also acceptable, a four bedroom home would enhance the dyad's joint utility: the husband makes a concession to his wife. The concession heuristic assumes that the spouses recognise their preference conflict, if present, and the subsequent conflict resolution. Thus it may not be unusual that, in pursuing their individual interests, joint decision makers often maximize their joint outcome through concessions (Park 1982).

5. According to Park (1982), the concept of a decision plan is a useful construct for understanding the individual's goal-oriented behaviour and is operationalised at both the attribute level ("what home features do I want in buying a home and what do I do with them?") and the alternative level ("which home would I choose among several potential alternatives?"). In constructing a net, the DM is asked to name a list of the attributes s/he would consider sequentially in evaluating a home (Step 1). Once the DM completes his task, s/he is further asked what s/he would do with an alternative if each attribute listed were not satisfactory (Step 2). Possible responses are either "reject" or "still consider the alternative". If the latter, the DM is then asked to identify under what conditions the alternative will be accepted (Step 3).

6. In identifying a decision plan (1), Park (1982) distinguishes three ways of using product dimensions for choice. A dimension is defined as a rejection inducing dimension (RID) when a DM establishes a minimum acceptable threshold on the product dimension. When the alternative does not satisfy such a requirement, the DM will reject that alternative, regardless of the other features. A dimension is defined as a relative preference dimension (RPD) when a DM specifies only a differential threshold of acceptance on the product dimension. The presence or absence of this dimension influences only the degree of preference for an alternative that is acceptable to the DM. Trade-off dimensions (TD) differ from RPD, because the absence of a satisfactory level on TD requires an off-setting improvement on another feature for the alternative to be acceptable. These three types of dimensions differ in the DM's degree of intensity about obtaining the desired levels. According to the definitions, the DM would desire satisfactory levels of RIDs more strongly than those of TDs, which are in turn, preferred to RPDs.

7. Before presenting these approaches, it is worthwhile presenting the significance of social changes, and particularly women's movement to consumer research. Ventakesh (1980) summarised the significance of women's movement to consumer research as follows. Women's movement is both a cause and an effect of changes in social values and in the social system. Lifestyles of women will significantly be affected with some bearing on economic behaviour of consumers at large. Traditional household decision making will undergo significant changes. The economics of the household are changing, especially in the allocation of women's time in acquiring and processing commodities. As a result of anticipated changes in the lifestyle of women, we can expect changes in the life style of men.

8. Perhaps in the past, wives' earnings were treated as transitory income. However, because wives' attachment to the labour force is now more permanent than in years past, WW families plan to use their jointly earned incomes to purchase goods and services in approximately the same amount as NWW families with the same total income. Empirical evidence tends to support both hypotheses but for more recent periods, the author's theory is supported.

9. In conclusion, although employed wives at all income levels and life-cycle stages report a greater shortage of time than do non-employed wives, there appear to be limited differences between the two groups in their use of strategies to relieve time pressures. Although WWs appear to prepare fewer meals for the entire family, if income or life-cycle is held constant, working and non-working wives are generally similar with respect to meal preparation and shopping behaviour. These results support the theory that families do not treat wives' and husbands' earnings differently. Although theory suggests that employed wives, who report greater time pressures than non-employed wives, should more intensively use strategies to economize on time, the authors find that income and life-cycle are more salient determinants of time use than is employment status.

10. The effect of wife's employment on the purchase decision was investigated by utilising stepwise discriminant analysis on the sample (Weinberg and Winer 1983). As in the previous study, wife's employment was not significantly related to the purchase of each of the five time-saving durables (dish washers, dryers, refrigerators, stoves, washers) taken separately or as a group. In the other durables categories (color, TV, furniture, hobby and recreation items), working status was significantly related only to the purchase of furniture. So, the authors concluded that similarly to a decade before, wife's labour force participation still appeared to have no significant impact on the purchase of time-saving durables.

11. Nickols and Fox (1984) explained Strober & Weinberg's (1980) strategies as follows. Purchasing of capital goods or paid services are efforts to "buy" time with money. Reducing the quantity or quality of household production, increasing efficiency, or shifting household work to other family members are strategies to "save" time or manage time more effectively.

12. Five endogenous constructs are included (Reilly 1982): the wife's earnings, the wife's role overload, total family income, the number of convenience foods served to the family, income, and the number of time-saving durables owned by the family. The wife's work behaviour has two links with convenience consumption, both of which are indirect. First, the wife's work involvement may cause mildly increased levels of role overload, due to the increased time and energy demands. The relationship between work and role overload is then expected to be linked positively to use of convenience foods and ownership of time saving durables, these being two possible strategies for reducing role overload. The second indirect link concerns the wife's earnings. Working wives contribute income to the family. Total family income has been related to the ownership or purchase of durable items in several instances.

13. According to Schaninger et al... (1993) researchers have turned to work motivation or occupational status to identify segments of working wives who differ attitudinally and motivationally: (career-versus income-oriented, monetarily versus non-monetarily motivated, simple income, dual income and dual career trichotomy). Other schemes have divided both working and non-working wives into sub-segments such as "progressive egalitarians" (similar to career-orientated or high occupational status) and "fashionable traditionalists" (similar to income oriented or low occupational status).

14. In order to better understand how wife's work involvement influences family consumption patterns, Shaninger et al (1993) utilised the following framework: demographic factors (e.g. age, social and educational status) influence three underlying sets of values: sex-role norms, self fulfillment aspirations, and traditional versus modern values, which in turn influence the level of wife's work involvement. The level of wife's work involvement influences the degree of work-related stress and time pressures. Family income and number or presence of children covary with both wife's work involvement and household expenditures. Social and educational status have been accorded similar recognition. However they also influence housework and time pressure and affect resultant shopping and consumption behaviour.

15. According to Engel et al... (1995, p.72), "how families make decisions can be better understood by considering sociological dimensions such as cohesion, adaptability, and communication. Cohesion is the emotional bonding that family members have toward one another. It is a measure of how close to each other family members feel on an emotional level. Cohesion reflects

a sense of connectedness or separateness from other family members. Family adaptability is the ability of a marital or family system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress. Family adaptability is a measure of how well a family can meet the challenges presented by changing needs. Communication is a facilitating dimension, critical to movement on the other two dimensions. Positive communication skills (such as empathy, reflective listening, supportive comments) enable families to share with each other their changing needs and preferences as they relate to cohesion and adaptability. Negative communication skills (such as double messages, double binds, criticism) minimize the ability of a family to share feelings, thereby restricting movement on the dimensions of cohesion and adaptability. Understanding whether or not family members are satisfied with the products their families have purchased may require understanding communication within the family" (p. 172).

16. Burns and Granbois (1977) concluded that for certain product classes, wife's sphere is one of influence whereas a husband's sphere is one of both influence and right.

17. Family authority and decision making appear likely to function as a dynamic interactive system, involving mutual give and take among family members. Consequently, decision making may reflect the specific interests, involvement and time constraints of each spouse, rather than an explicit "family authority" structure. Certain areas or statements may be more crucial to family authority than others. Spouses may differ in the significance they attach to authority in various areas, due to differences in individual family goals and objectives (Douglas and Wind 1978).

18. As for differences in role patterns across decision areas and tasks, they were examined using the following two procedures: (1) grouping families based on their attitudes towards marital roles. This approach rests on the assumption that the family's role ideology will determine who is responsible for various decisions or tasks. It has been hypothesized that households subscribing to male dominance ideology will exhibit traditional responsibility pattern with the husband assuming responsibility for financial decisions and the wife for household activities. Those subscribing to egalitarian philosophy will be characterized by greater degree of joint responsibility in the various decision areas. A factor analysis of the attitudinal statements relating to marital roles was conducted leading to a factor concerned with male dominance. Respondent scores on statements with loadings on this factor were then clustered to examine family differences in attitudes towards role dominance. A six- group solution revealed little indication of any systematic relationship between marital role attitudes and responsibility patterns. This raised some doubt as to whether or not role ideology influences how decision making and that responsibilities are allocated in a family. (2) Characterizing households based on reported role patterns for a set of decisions and tasks. In order to identify relevant groups of decisions and task areas with which to categorize families, a factor analysis of the 31 decision areas and task scales was conducted, and dominant role patterns in each area examined. Few areas were husband dominant, wife dominant or joint across all households. In other areas, the pattern varied from household to household. The greatest variation occurred in relation to financial decisions which were most equally divided between husband dominant and joint. Since there were substantial differences among households for most decisions and task areas, all 31 decisions were used to categorize family role patterns. A clustering procedure is used to identify type of role patterns on the basis of factor scores from the analysis of the 31 scales. Six groups were identified. A discriminant analysis was conducted to identify three group profiles. A variety of profiles emerged. One group is apparently male dominant, another reveals sex-specialized in traditional areas, yet another is wife-dominant in traditionally male areas, particularly in financial decisions and activities (Douglas and Wind 1978)..

19. After a phase during which spouses were trained individually to learn a utility function, subjects were assigned randomly to 3 dominance (husband dominant, wife dominant, or syncretic) situations. Then subjects were asked to key in (on a terminal) their overall performance rating of sets of financial options with scores on yield and safety. Subjects were also assigned to 2 experimental conditions of persuasive message (slight and extreme) and are asked to make a joint decision and rate the 10 sets on overall performance. Messages were weight oriented, i.e. employed relative importance on two attributes on generic ads (Menasco and Curry 1989).

Chapter 4

Values, Role Orientations, Family Decision and Purchasing Behaviour

Values, Role Orientations, Family Decision and Purchasing Behaviour

The culture concept is well established in the marketing and consumer behaviour literature.¹ But it is so broad that it is present in several research streams which seem to be evolving towards more comprehensiveness under the values paradigm. Research on personality, mainly during the first half of the 1970's, was the first to be interested into the values-consumer behaviour relationship, because values include, among other components, personality types. Then the literature moved towards more integrative research by adopting the psychographics, mainly during the second half of the 1970's and the first half of the 1980's, and the Sex Role Orientations approaches, beginning from the second half of the 1980's. Before dealing with these approaches, an examination of the culture and of other related concepts is necessary. The Sex-Role Orientation approach will be dealt with in a separate section.

THE CULTURE AND OTHER RELATED CONCEPTS

Culture is a very broad concept. The sociology literature proposes numerous definitions to culture. Instead of being concerned with anthropological subtleties, I propose an overview of basic definitions of culture. Culture includes both abstract and material elements. Abstract elements include values, attitudes, personality types, and summary concepts such as religion. The material manifestation of culture (such as knowledge, arts, etc.) are described as cultural artifacts, thereby restricting the use of culture to abstract elements. Two other concepts related to culture are usually used with it: values and norms. Values are shared beliefs that have been internalised by the individual; norms are beliefs held by consensus of a group concerning the behaviour rules for individual members (Engel et al. 1995). Cultural values are learned through socialisation, i.e. a process of absorbing values (by learning, imitation, observation, etc.) and acculturation, i.e. a process of transfer between societies (influence, indoctrination or colonisation). Cultural values are stable and dynamic at a time often evolving through a long life cycle.

Now is it possible to identify basic values that permeate the behaviour of people in general and of consumers in particular? What are their trends? In fact, it is difficult to answer such questions without referring to any particular cultural context. Engel et al. (1995) give elements of an answer with reference to the American culture.

Cultural Core Values

It can be observed that core values permeate through most aspects of society. These values are linked to each other to represent a “value system”. For the American society, this system is composed of the following values.

Material Well-Being. This is a belief in the marvels of modern comfort, labour-saving devices and consumer goods. Achievement and success are measured to a large degree by the quantity and quality of material goods owned.

Work is Important. People are judged by their work. They are supposed to “get ahead” and make a contribution to society through their work. What women have done in homes for centuries may be much more valuable than what has been done in factories and offices, but society appears to value women in factories and offices as men have traditionally done.

Time is Money. America’s view of time is different from that of many other cultures. “American time is exact”. People are punctual, activities are scheduled, time is apportioned, and the measure of it is the mechanical clock.

Effort, Optimism and Entrepreneurship. Americans believe that problems should be identified and effort should be spent to solve them. With proper effort, one can be optimistic about success. In American culture, effort is rewarded, competition is enforced and individual achievement is paramount. Being the best is morally acceptable; more than acceptable, it is the goal.

Mastery Over Nature. American core values produce a conquering attitude toward nature. The conquest of nature seems to rest on at least three assumptions: the universe is mechanistic, people are the masters of the earth, and people are qualitatively different from all other forms of life.

Egalitarianism. American core values support the belief that all people should have equal opportunities for achievement. This is more of a moral imperative than an actual condition, and many groups face discrimination by other groups and

individuals. Open patterns of subordination based on variables other than personal achievement bother most people. Those who get advantage without “earning” them are objects of ridicule.

Humanitarianism. The trait of coming to the aid of the less fortunate is widespread among Americans. It expresses itself in the giving of donation to unknown individuals and groups. In some countries, humanitarianism is more personal and related to kinship obligations, but in America, giving is more organised.

Variability of Core Values. Not all individuals hold the same values. The further you are from being the “typical” middle class or mainstream person, the more likely you are to hold values at variance with the dominant values.

Changing Values

The triad of institutions known as family, religion and education and which play a key role in understanding the values of a society are constantly changing. The typical trend in America, and presumably in many parts of the world, is as follows (Engel et al. 1995):

Declining Family Influences. Family is the dominant transfuse agent of values in most cultures. Many changes are occurring in the family. Basic influences on values are: less time for in-home or parent-child influence, increasing divorce rates and isolated nuclear family. Although religion has weakened as an institutional influence, it may still be very important for many individuals.

Changing Educational Institutions. The influence of education appears to be increasing due partly to the increased participation in formal education. Another trend in education is the emergence and proliferation of new teaching methods. Previously, teaching often emphasised description and memorisation. More recently, there has been a gradual but steady trend away from these methods toward analytical approaches emphasising questioning of the old and the formulation of new approaches and solutions. The three institutions - family, religion, and education- contribute to transmitting traditional values as well as creating receptivity for changed life-styles. Changes occur continuously in society’s values though the core values are relatively permanent. Some of the changes that are occurring in the 1990s are listed in Table 4-1 (Engel et al 1995):

Table 4-1
CHANGING VALUES IN WESTERN CIVILISATION

Traditional Values	New Values
Self-denial ethic	Self-fulfillment ethic
Higher standard of living	Better quality of life
Traditional sex roles	Blurring of sex roles
Accepted definition of success	Individualised definition of success
Traditional family life	Alternative families
Faith in industry, institutions	Self-reliance
Live to work	Work to live
Hero worship	Love of ideas
Expansionism	Pluralism
Patriotism	Less nationalistic
Unparalleled growth	Growing sense of limits
Industrial growth	Information/service growth
Receptivity to technology	Technology orientation

Source: Engel et al. (1995), p. 76.

According to the authors, the most significant change of all these values is the shift from the concept of “self-denial” to a focus on “self-values”. There is more and more emphasis on self-expression, self-realisation, self-help, and do-it-yourself. In a word, the emerging mainstream is egoism. This new focus subsumes self-understanding, self expression, self fulfillment, concern with physical self, etc. It means putting oneself on a par with, or a little higher above the others, (see Concept of self-value generation in Engel et al. 1995).

Value Systems Classifications

Sociology developed a few value classification schemes such as List Of Values (LOV) and The Rockeach Value system (RVS); some of these have been adapted to marketing and consumer behaviour research needs (Corfman et al. 1991). The RVS seems to gain more and more acceptance in the consumer behaviour sphere, (for a complete list of both Terminal and Instrumental values of RVS, see Appendix 4-A).

PERSONALITY THEORIES AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

On the one hand, several psychological theories have been considered in the consumer behaviour literature (psychoanalytic theories, stimulus-response theories, trait and factor theories, etc.). The most widely used and probably the most interesting for the subject in hand is the trait and factor theory (Kassarjian 1971). On the other hand, contemporary social psychological theories such as the Mc Clelland, the Festinger, the Goffman, and the Riesman models (Schewe 1973) have been

proposed to enhance consumer behaviour investigation. For the purpose of this research, I will present the trait and factor theories, the McClelland, and the Goffman theories; then I will examine major findings in research concerned with the trait and factor theory investigations and focusing on the personality-consumer behaviour relationship. These are deemed important because of their orientation towards the quantification of values which will be one of my concerns in the present research.

Trait and Factor Theories

Trait and factor theories have evolved from quantitative sophistication of statistical techniques and computer technology. The core of these theories is that personality is composed of a set of traits or factors, some general and others specific to a particular situation. In constructing a personality instrument, the theorist typically begins with a wide array of behavioural measures and with statistical techniques, and distills factors which are then defined as the personality variables (Kassarjian 1971). For one large group of personality instruments, the researcher begins with the intent to measure certain variables, for example, need for achievement or aggressiveness. Large samples of subjects predetermined as aggressive or not aggressive (say, by ratings from teachers or employers) are given the instrument. Each item is statistically analyzed to see if it discriminates aggressive from non-aggressive subjects. By a series of validation and reliability studies, an instrument is produced which measures traits the researcher was originally attempting to gauge. Several of these variables are often embodied in, say, a single 200-item instrument.

According to Kassarjian, a second type of personality instrument is created not with theoretically predetermined variables in mind, but via factor analysis. Items which account for a significant portion of the variance are selected. Subjects are given questionnaires, ratings or tests on a wide variety of topics and test items are grouped in the factor analysis by how well they measure the same statistical factor. The meaning of a particular factor is thus empirically determined and a label attached to it. Further reliability and validation measures lead to the creation of a test instrument with several variables that supposedly account for the diversity and complexity of behaviour. The theoretical structure is statistical and the variables are

empirically determined and creatively named. The concept of traits, factors, or variables that can be quantitatively measured has led to numerous personality scales (Kassarjian 1971).

The Mc Clelland and the Riesman Models

Schewe (1973) mentions that several theories proposed by behavioural scientists are relevant to the understanding of consumer behaviour. Most appropriate to the project in hand are the Mc Clelland model stressing the theory of achievement and motivation and the Riesman model classifying individuals into inner versus other-directed.

The Mc Clelland Model. The theory of achievement/motivation is one class of theories which attributes the strength of motivation (i.e. the active impulse to engage in some activity) to the cognitive expectation that the activity will produce a particular consequence and also to the attractiveness or values of that consequence to the individual. The theory deals only with an important but limited type of behaviour-achievement-oriented activity. This type of activity is usually undertaken with the idea that performance is judged against some standard of excellence. Presumably, any situation which affords a challenge to achievement must also pose the threat of failure. Therefore, achievement-oriented activity is always affected by the conflict between the tendency to achieve success and the tendency to avoid failure. The theory of achievement/motivation focuses mainly upon the resolution of these two opposing tendencies, both of which are inherent in any achievement-oriented activity. Evidence indicates the importance of need achievement in motivating buyer behaviour (Kassarjian 1971). Men scoring high on need achievement tended to favour products considered virile and masculine (such as boating equipment, straight razors, and skis). Men with low need achievement scores preferred to buy products characterised as meticulous or fastidious (such as mouthwash, deodorant, and automatic dish-washers). No such clear-cut patterns exist for females, suggesting that the need for achievement is more closely associated with the male sex role than with the female sex role. Men are expected to be competitive and aggressive, while women are collaborative and compassionate.

The Riesman Model. This theory claims that human beings can be grouped into three major types of social character: tradition-direction, inner-direction, and

other direction. By social character, Riesman refers to “ways of behaviour” or “modes of conformity to the culture and society” in which the individual is operating. Riesman’s thesis is that each society or culture shows one of the three types depending upon its particular phase, society enforces conformity and molds social character in a definably different way.

(1) Tradition-direction. This society is characterised by general slowness of change, dependence on family ties, low social mobility, and rigid values structures. The important relationships in life are controlled and made stable by intensive socialisation of the young in the extended family. In this society, conformity is maintained by the fear of shame.

(2) Inner-direction. This society is characterised by increased social mobility, less security for the individual, rapid accumulation of capital, industrialisation, and almost constant expansion. The source of direction for the individual is inner in the sense that it is implanted early in life by the elders. The inner-directed individual has a feeling of control over his life and sees his goal as striving for a career. While he seems independent, he is actually guided by an internal gyroscope based upon the values and principles acquired from his parents. Riches are assembled and consumption is conspicuous, but as a sign of success rather than for pleasure. In this society, conformity of behaviour is maintained through the fear of guilt.

(3) Other-direction. This society finds a world of social mobility and mechanization such that production is no longer a problem. In this world of abundance, the individual is taught to be a consumer rather than a producer. Other-directed persons behave according to the expectations and preferences of their contemporaries. In this society, the peer group rather than the family provides guidance for both children and parents. The primary pressure for conformity in this society is the anxiety created by what others think of the individual.²

According to Schewe (1973), the most important implication of the Riesman Model is that it can be helpful in identifying inner-and other-directed market segments; some studies have found a relationship between advertising appeals and social character. Inner-directed persons favor inner-directed appeals in their advertising while other-directed individuals prefer other-directed appeals.³

PERSONALITY-BEHAVIOUR RELATIONSHIP IN THE TRAIT AND FACTOR TRADITION

In this stream of research, some authors are convinced that analysis should go beyond assessing relationships between personality traits and particular consumer behaviour dimensions (product use, brand choice, product preferences, etc.). Rather, they propose to adopt a comprehensive view by looking at personality profiles and structures and product use (Sparks and Tucker 1971) or product attribute desirability (Alpert 1972).

According to Sparks and Tucker (1971), it is legitimate to think of personality as an intimate aspect of the cognitive and affective organisation of the central nervous system. It is equally legitimate to regard it as a verbal construct describing behavioural regularities. On the basis of a questionnaire using the inventory of such traits as ascendancy, responsibility, emotional personality, and the assessment of the use of 17 products, a correlation analysis shows essentially weak and spotty relationships between personality traits and particular product use (for instance, the use of men's cologne is associated with sociability).

According to the above mentioned authors, canonical analysis provides some hints concerning the relationship between personality and consumption. For instance the first root is associated with the use of shampoo, alcoholic beverages, cigarettes, and early fashion adoption. Those involved are best described as sociable, emotionally stable and irresponsible. The authors conclude that the relationships are intuitively acceptable: it makes sense to think that early fashion adopters are those sociable individuals who are almost emotionally stable and also somewhat irresponsible. This seems to be exactly the kind of relationship personality theory implies: not a simple connection between sociability and early fashion adoption, but a more complex one in which sociability combined with emotional stability and irresponsibility are oriented toward one sort of action while sociability combined with emotional instability and cautiousness are oriented toward its opposite. Hence, a simple model based on trait interaction can be more predictive than a trait by trait approach.

By adopting the view that a product was a set of utilities, rather than some physical characteristics bound by a brand name, Alpert (1972) addressed the question

of whether or not a relationship existed between personality traits and the relative importance a buyer places upon various product attributes. A bivariate correlation analysis for each product revealed several statistically significant correlations but which explained little variance between personality traits and product attributes. Canonical analysis related profiles of personality to the relative importance of attributes. Strong relationships, although not all readily interpretable, appeared to offer logical and potentially useful insights. For instance, the first root was associated with unclean appearance, large rooms, friends living there, and friendly atmosphere. The related personality attributes were nurture, disorder, non-endurance, affiliation, autonomy, non-deference and non-exhibition. Although other variables and relationships could have been involved, it seemed reasonable that this set of socially related product attributes would determine choice of residence for persons who were somewhat nurturing, free-spirited, and casual.

PSYCHOGRAPHICS AND LIFE-STYLE

Comprehensive research in the consumer behaviour field is advancing. Psychographics consist in a “blend” which combines the objectivity of the personality inventory with the rich qualitative motivation research (Wells 1975). It is typically quantitative because, drawing upon survey research, it “makes data amenable to complex multivariate analysis” (p.197). In a typical study designed to provide information concerning the psychographic profile of television viewers (Villani 1975), respondents completed two separate self-administered mail questionnaires. One, a psychographic questionnaire determining the personality and life-style characteristics of the viewer, consisted in 214 statements asking degree of agreement on a 5-point scale. The second questionnaire measured television viewing behaviour by asking respondents to indicate the number of times they had seen each of four programs in the fall of 1971 season.

The decision of which personality and life-style variables should be measured was based on theory and previous research. Most were general characteristics (e.g. attitude toward overall home cleanliness) although some situation-specific ones were included for product areas advertised heavily on television (e.g., attitude toward clean floors). The statements used to measure these variables were adopted from other questionnaires or based on intuition. To determine independent psychographic

measures and appropriate weights for aggregating individual statement scores to form trait scores, the personality and life-style responses were factor analysed separately. Thirteen independent factors interpretable as personality traits and 51 life-style factors were derived (see Appendix 4-B). The associated factor scores were used to measure respondents' level of possession of these traits along with life-style variables in subsequent analyses.

To provide a framework which would help advertisers evaluate audience characteristics of new programs as well as existing ones, individual programs were grouped into program types on the basis of similarity in content. The most straightforward approach to analyze the relationship between the viewing of program types and the characteristics of the audience members was regression analysis for each programme type. The viewing factor score for a particular program type was the dependent variable and independent variables were drawn from the following 68 variables: 4 demographic measures (age, education, family size, and income); 13 personality factor scores; 51 life-style factor scores. In general, the squared R values were low, similar to those found in other audience segmentation studies. The personality variables did not outperform demographic variables at all, and the life-style variables outperformed the demographic variables.

Some authors contend that contemporary society is redefining the role of women in a way that young women play the role of wife and mother but not necessarily in the traditional sense of being subject to their husband and by following a prescribed pattern of home oriented behaviour, regardless of individual abilities and interests (Reynolds et al. 1977). The problem is who has changed and in what ways. If modern female orientation was synonymous with working status, that would be easy. According to the authors, life style is a better predictor of differences between women who prefer traditional female orientation and women who prefer modern orientation. In a study on modern feminine life styles (Reynolds et al.), respondents were categorized into three distinct groups, the "traditional", "the egalitarian" or "modern". Significant differences were found between the modern and the traditional within working and non-working groups. Such a finding was important because it meant that, the notion of the modern female was not just the working female.

Both working and non-working traditional women tended to agree with assigning women to traditional roles. Egalitarian females were less inclined to enjoy housekeeping tasks, the socially “undervalued” aspect of homemaking and are more inclined to avoid them than the traditional women. Many housekeeping views were moderated by employment status. For instance, the traditionally oriented working wife was more likely than her non-working counterpart to say “meal preparation should take little time” while the modern non-worker was much more apt to follow routine than the modern working wife.

These findings suggested a certain practical coping with reality: No matter what role was performed, there was adaptation to the environment demands (Reynolds et al. 1977). The authors were also interested in investigating whether egalitarian roles allowed women to actualise their own potential to a greater degree than traditional role. If so, one might expect that modern women would be more satisfied with life. The data showed however that traditional women were more satisfied with life than their modern counterparts. They were the least likely to wish to leave their present life. So what the expectation ignored was the possibility that traditional women did not feel undervalued in their home role.

VALUE SYSTEMS, PRODUCT CHOICE, AND OWNERSHIP

In this stream of research, it is believed that values guide product and brand choices (Henry 1976; Pitts and Woodside 1983). Durables evaluation are made not on the basis of objective attributes but on more abstract levels involving the evaluation of products on the basis of their ability to satisfy underlying consumer values (Corfman et al. 1991).

According to Henry (1976), four basic values adapted to the sociology literature (particularly, man’s relation to nature, time activity, personal activity, and man’s relation to others) are assumed to influence ownership of automobiles. For instance as the orientation shifts from subjugation, to planning, and to mastery of the environment, the desirability of automobiles which ignore environmental impact diminishes. The author devised a multivariate additive model to assess the effects of the above mentioned values on the number of automobiles (in each generic category) owned by a nuclear family. A self-administered questionnaire among nuclear families collected data on the dimensions of culture and demographics (independent

variables) and on ownership of automobiles in terms of the number owned for each of five categories (full-size, intermediate, compact, subcompact, and sports). By use of MCA (Multiple Classification Analysis), the authors concluded that even if not all independent variables included in the model were significant, value dimensions were comparable in importance to demographic variables.

Some of the ownership profiles were interesting. On the one hand, heavy ownership of intermediate and subcompact categories was favoured by families with democratic orientations. On the other hand families owning sports cars tended to be young, to have multi-drivers and to hold values oriented towards tradition and harmony with the environment. Finally, the author confirmed that the use of values as predictors of shifting consumption patterns was promising. For example, the movement towards harmony and mastery orientations with respect to man's relations to nature, a greater emphasis on non-materialistic and a more democratic orientation could predict a long term shift from full size to subcompact automobiles.

Pitts and Woodside (1983) conducted a study on the basis of a modified version of the RVS which consisted of 2 lists of 18 values (one containing terminal values or ideal end-states of existence; and the other containing instrumental values, or ideal modes of behaviour). These were submitted to respondents to be ranked in order of importance. The consumer behaviour variables consisted in choice criteria, beliefs, preferences, intentions and previous behaviour. For the choice criteria, respondents were asked to evaluate a list of attributes in terms of their importance in selecting a product class (in this case, the automobile); then, in terms of their importance in selecting a brand within a preferred product class. For beliefs, perception of product attribute configurations were quantified through direct similarity judgements. For preferences, respondents ranked all the study brands as to personal preference. For intentions, respondents were presented with a list of the study models and asked to rank these in terms of their "likelihood of purchase" in the next 12 month period. Previous behaviour was measured by the number of previous purchases in the preceding 24 month-period. Particularly statistically significant differences were found between value segment importance evaluation and class model choice criteria.

In a study on consumer durables, Corfman et al. (1991) developed a model that demonstrated the importance of values in utility formation and their subsequent impact on ownership. According to the authors, the importance of values stemmed from the fact that when consumers chose among durable classes, they made comparisons among dissimilar products that could not be compared on objective or concrete attributes. Rather, the choices were made at more abstract levels and involved evaluating the products on the basis of their ability to satisfy underlying consumer values. According to the authors, values provided a foundation and a standard for behaviour and were most relevant in societal, role, and psychological adaptation. This could involve adaptation of the person to the environment, or adaptation of the environment to the person. According to the authors, acquisition of durables was one way of adapting the environment to consumers' values. Respondents were asked whether they owned each of 27 products (ownership), how important to own each (utility), and were asked questions about their values using LOV (List Of Values) indices, and about their demographic profile. LOV indices were factor analyzed and produced three factors: social values, self-oriented values, and stimulation. The results showed that the proposed structural formulation was highly significant.

VALUES, FAMILY DECISION MAKING, AND PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR IN CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISONS

This body of research draws upon cultural relativism and puts into question the validity of theories and findings in family decision making (FDM) for contexts different from the US and other Western European countries. In particular, Green et al. (1983) contends that the theory of resources needs to be placed in cultural contexts. He postulates that comparative resources have a major impact on family decision structures in modernised societies because of the following underlying cultural factors : (1) the transition toward egalitarian marital ethics ; (2) a high degree of flexibility about the distribution of marital power ; (3) the importance of education, occupation and income in defining a person's status. However, when these factors are not present, the theory of resources is of less value in understanding FDM behaviour. Thus FDM is influenced by the interaction between resources and cultural perspectives.

A typology of ideal type societies is in the form of different stages of societal development. The four ideal types are patriarchy, modified patriarchy, transitional egalitarianism, and egalitarianism. The authors conducted a cross-national study involving the U.S., France and Holland (placed in the transitional Egalitarian category) Venezuela (placed in the modified patriarchy category) and Gabon (placed in the Patriarchy stage). Correspondence analysis on decision making responses by product category and by country revealed that there was a general similarity among the five countries. Groceries were reported as a wife dominated decision area, and automobiles and insurance as a husband dominated decision in all five countries.

A cluster that might be considered as a “developing country” cluster, included only decisions from Gabon and Venezuela. In Gabon, appliances, savings, furniture, and vacation decisions were reported to be made more autonomously than in the other countries; vacations and furniture are reported as more husband dominated and saving and appliances as more wife dominated than in the more developed countries. In Venezuela, appliance decisions were thought to be made more autonomously by the husband than in the more developed countries. The identification of this fourth cluster provided some support for the a priori classification of the nations previously mentioned.

A comparison of responses between pairs of countries revealed the following. In all cases, the husbands in the less developed nations were reported to make significantly more decisions than the husbands in the developed nations. There was significantly more joint decision making in the developed nations than in the less developed nations. The Gabon wives were reported to make more decisions than their counterparts in the developed nations. The authors concluded that the findings were illustrative of the types of differences that might be found in family purchasing patterns across cultures.

Douglas and Urban (1977) conducted a life style research profiling respondents in terms of their daily life patterns, their work habits and leisure activities, their interests and self-perceptions, their aspirations and frustrations, their attitudes towards their families and others, and their beliefs and opinions about the environment. A comparison between women in U.S., U.K. and France was conducted. Principal components factor analysis was performed and in each case.

Five factors were extracted. The home factor could be considered as the “hub” of women’s life style and reflected the degree of home orientation. The social factor was concerned with women’s involvement in social activities outside the home. It was an alternative behavioural set designed to enrich and extend the homemaking role to compensate for home-centered frustration, or merely to provide an alternative source of potential satisfaction and fulfillment. The frustration factor reflected a woman’s failure or success in coping with the dominant role model as expressed through feelings of frustration, lack of optimism, and of self-confidence. The innovation factor concerned the degree of interest in innovation as it was expressed in terms of willingness to try new things and products, and of interest in fashion. The intellectual factor concerned interests in various intellectual pursuits, ranging from preferences for print media as opposed to T.V, to classical music as opposed to popular music, etc. It was also associated with a degree of independence or aloofness, as well as above average education and interests in such areas as politics, etc.

A sixth factor stood out for the French sample: the role factor. It was concerned with traditional perceptions of male and female roles. These attitudes were distinct from those related to the home factor, suggesting that in the French context, attitudes towards women’s traditional homemaking role were more complex. French women, whose lives centred around the home, did not necessarily subscribe to the philosophy of male dominance, and equally, those who did accept this ideology were not necessarily home-centered. Thus role specialisation was a separate element of French life style, not always related to home orientation.

In a comparison of working wives across the French and the U.S. samples, two groups (matched in terms of age, occupation, and number of children) were examined by Douglas and Urban (1977). In both countries, as in the general life style study, the major dimension differentiating working and non-working wives was their attitudes towards the homemaking role. Working wives were less involved in the home making role and were more self-confident and outgoing than non-working wives. Then, differences in attitudes and life style patterns among working wives were examined. This revealed the existence of two highly similar subgroups among working wives in each country. One was a “liberated” group who thought women should have equal status to men, and that a woman’s role was not necessarily

confined to homemaking. The other was a group of “traditionalists” who had conservative outlooks about women’s role and were more oriented towards the home.

ROLE ORIENTATIONS AND FAMILY PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

Scanzoni (1977) has noted in a landmark article that there is evidence, in recent years, of changes in sex or gender role norms: younger wives define work in the same way as men; it is a means to earn money, prestige, esteem, independence and autonomy; the relation with the husband has moved from “traditional arrangement” whereby the wife complements the husband who is the head of the family to “symmetrical”, “egalitarian” or “interchangeable” arrangements.

From that time on, a whole stream of consumer behaviour research focused on the relationship between sex-role orientations (SRO) and family purchasing and decision behaviour. Some authors were interested in investigating the consequences of SRO changes on decision making processes (Spiro 1983). Others were interested in assessing SRO effects on influence strategies and patterns (Rosan & Granbois, 1983; Qualls 1982; Qualls 1983). More recently, SRO was presented as a key concept in integrative and comprehensive models of family decision behaviour (Qualls 1987).

Sex-Role Orientations (SRO), Decision Making Processes and Influence Strategies

According to Scanzoni (1977), ongoing changes in sex-role make the formerly long-standing consensus about spousal roles less spontaneous, more problematic and less common. Bargaining becomes necessary to organise the actor’s rights and duties. Hence, freshly negotiated arrangements are introducing a whole series of specific decision making processes into the marriages that were simply not there before. Child-care and many more duties which used to be women’s domain are now open to negotiation. These changes have important implications for decision making processes regarding consumption and leisure-time activities.

The most important significance of such changes hinges around the question of how women negotiate. While traditional women tend to negotiate with the husband on the basis of collective interests - what is best for the family group - modern women tend to negotiate more in terms of their own individualistic interests. Traditional women negotiate in a reactive fashion, but modern women are less

reactive and involve in more give and take processes because they are more goal-oriented and are likely to maximise their own interests. According to Scanzoni, as women shift the ways in which they carry out the process of decision making, they are replacing their traditionally relative passivity with more assertive and individualistic negotiation. Scanzoni's paradigm heralded a whole stream of research in the consumer behaviour sphere on sex role orientations and their impact on family decision making processes.

In an article aimed at examining the strategies used by individual spouses in making accommodative joint decisions for major durable purchases, Spiro (1983) identified six different influence strategies on the basis of interviews with couples. These are expert influence, legitimate influence, bargaining, reward/referent influence, emotional influence, impression management.

(1) *Expert influence* is reflected in the enumeration of specific information concerning the various alternatives. For example, one spouse can try to convince the other that s/he is more knowledgeable concerning the product under consideration by presenting detailed information about various aspects of these products.

(2) *Legitimate influence* deals with one spouse's attempts to draw upon the other's feelings of shared values concerning their role expectations. Therefore, the spouse's influence is based on the shared belief that s/he should make the decision because s/he is the wife/husband.

(3) *Bargaining* involves attempts by one spouse to turn the joint decision into an autonomous one in return for some favour granted to the other spouse. For example, in return for autonomy in a particular decision, one spouse may agree to give the other autonomy in another decision when s/he had previously refused to do so. "If you do this, I'll do that" may be the most common type of bargaining attempt.

(4) *Reward/referent influence* is based on a combination of the reward and referent power/influence. Reward influence is the influence based on an individual's ability to reward another, i. e. one spouse may be able to reward the other by doing something that the other would enjoy. Referent influence is the influence based on an individual's identification or feeling of oneness (or desire for such an identity) of one person with another. These two influence types may be combined. It is determined during the interviews that the things a spouse does to "reward" the other are usually

those things which, in the view of the other, an ideal husband or wife is supposed to do. For example, one spouse can be very “loving” to or buy a gift for the other in anticipation of trying to influence him/her.

(5) *Emotional influence* attempts are influence techniques that involve displaying some emotion-laden reaction. These attempts are often nonverbal techniques. For example, one spouse may get angry at the other or may cry while the other may use the “silent treatment” tactic.

(6) *Impression management* encompasses premeditated persuasive attempts to enhance one’s influence differential in a dyadic relationship. For example, one spouse may claim that the other’s preferred brand is out-of-stock when, in fact, it is not. The objective is to convince the spouse to attribute the influence attempt to external pressures beyond the influencer’s control.

Basing his investigation on the contention that individuals may use different combinations of influence strategies simultaneously during their attempts to persuade one another (Spiro 1983), the focus of the investigation is on the spouse’s use of an influence strategy mix, as opposed to individual influence strategies per se.⁴ A multiple discriminant analysis of demographic and attitude scores on the influence groups reveals that marriage satisfaction and the importance of the decision are not determinants of the use of an influence strategy mix. Traditional family ideology, gender and no avoidance of conflict are significant determinants, as are the life cycle variables, with the exceptions of age and number of children.

The “Traditional” Versus “Modern” Continuum and Family Decision and Purchasing Behaviour

In assessing the impact of SRO on decision processes and influence tactics, many authors identify, on the basis of an orientation continuum, “traditional” “modern” wives/husbands, etc. (Rosan and Granbois; Qualls 1982, 1983, 1987).

Rosan and Granbois (1983) are interested in investigating money management. The authors hypothesized that the family role structure is some function of husband/wife sex-role attitude, locus of control, in addition to the wife’s working status/motivation and demographics. *Sex-Role Attitudes* refer to what people consider appropriate male and female behaviour. *Locus of Control* is a personality variable which classifies individuals in the extreme as “internals”, i.e. individuals

perceiving events in their lives as resulting from their own action and “externals”, i.e. individuals perceiving their lives as affected by uncontrollable forces.

According to Rosan and Granbois (1983), a clear distinction is indicated in role performance between implementation and decision making in financial activities. An analysis of group 1 decision tasks (number/ownership of checking accounts, method of financing, methods of saving, handling of leftover money, etc.) reveals only locus of control to be significant. The results indicate that separate decision making is more likely to occur when the couple has an external locus of control. Possibly, “externals” feeling a lack of control do not perceive a need to invest time in the discussion of the activities; couples with more internal locus of control may attribute more importance to the decision and hence employ joint decision making. For group 2 decision tasks (payment amount of credit cards accounts and priority for bill payment), one dummy variable reflecting wife’s working status and motivation made the greatest contribution to the discriminant function.

According to the above mentioned authors, this indicates that these financial decisions are more likely to be made by the wife and husband separately when the wife is working for financial reasons. Also significant is the “family life cycle” component, indicating that separate decision making increases with years married and family income level. Thus it appears that role structure is more complex than previously thought. A difference in variables associated with role structure for implementation as opposed to decision tasks variables is found.

According to Qualls (1982), sex-role is often left undefined but generally, it is based on one of three commonly employed interpretations: the sexual gender, the division of labour and the sex-role orientation conceptualisation. Regardless of which of the 3 approaches has been utilized to define the sex-role construct, the result is a sex-role typology conceptualized as a continuum, the extreme end of which are sex-role traditionalists (SRT) and sex-role moderns (SRM). SRT exhibit attitudes and behaviour patterns consistent with past conception of male-provider and female-housekeeper roles. Decision making in such a family is dominated by the husband, while the wife takes a more subservient role in the FDM process. Alternatively, SRM family members are identified by their more egalitarian role perceptions and

behaviour. Spouses in this group tend to share decision responsibility and task performance on a more egalitarian basis.

Based on this conceptualisation, Qualls conducted a study to assess the extent to which husbands and wives who differ in their sex-role orientation differ in their perceptions of spousal influence. The results reveal that the patterns of perceived influence are somewhat different for husbands and wives when they are compared on the basis of their sex-role orientations. "Husbands who are sex-role traditionalists consistently perceive their levels of influence to be higher than do their wives, sex-role modern husbands, and the more general set of all husbands. In contrast, wives in both groups, sex role traditionalists (WSRT) and sex-role moderns (WSRM) exhibit patterns of influence perceptions which are similar to each other as well as to those of the general category of all wives. One noticeable pattern in family role structure as related to sex-role orientation is that joint influence perceived by spouses who are sex-role modern is higher than that perceived by spouses who are sex-role traditional. According to the author, these results are reflective of the trend towards egalitarianism.

Qualls (1983) notes that while the majority of studies have examined the impact of sex-role on family decision outcomes, very few have attempted to explore their effect on the process of family decision making. He based his investigation upon the following model (see figure 4.1).

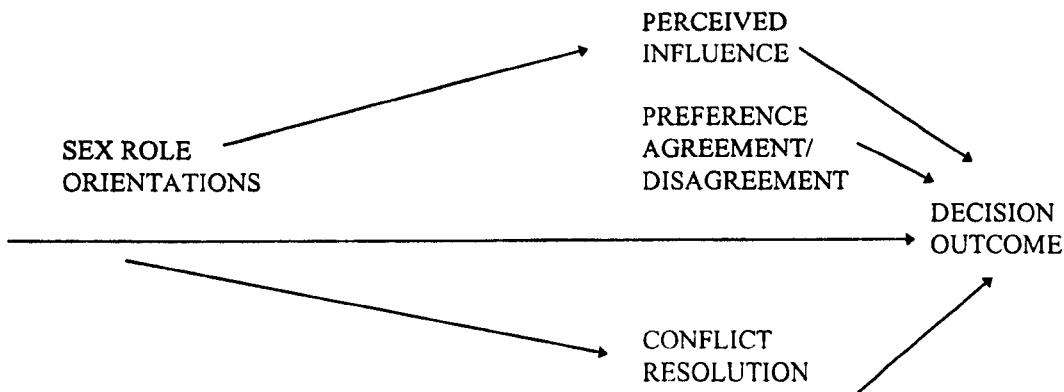


Figure 4.1

SEX-ROLE ORIENTED MODEL OF FAMILY DECISION MAKING

Source: Qualls (1983), p. 271.

The objective of the study is to identify the effect of spousal sex-role orientation (SRO) on perceived spousal influence, conflict resolution modes, preference agreement/disagreement and decision outcomes in a joint family purchase decision (housing). S.R.O is an all encompassing term that subsumes such terms as sex-role attitudes, values, opinions, behavioural standards, and cultural norms and constraints. The measurement instruments are as follows:

(1) *Self-reported influence*. Each spouse indicates the degree of his/her perceived influence, based on 100-point-constant-sum scale, in relation to his/her spouse. This score is used to place each spouse in one of 3 classifications of influence- husband dominated (HD), wife dominated (WD) or joint with respect to specific sub-decisions.

(2) *Self-reported preference ranking*. Each spouse rank-orders his or her product-feature preference from most important (=1) to least important (=8), both individually and jointly for each of the eight housing sub-decisions.

(3) *Sex-role orientation scale*. Each spouse is asked to complete an attitude questionnaire regarding his or her own SRO, based on the Osmond Martin Sex-Role Attitude Scale (OMSRAS). As determined by husband/wife SRO scale score, each household is classified as sex-role modern (SRM), sex role traditional (SRT), or sex-role opposite (SRO). Only SRM and SRT couples are examined in the study.

(4) *Assessment of conflict/conflict resolution*. During the joint preference ranking exercises, interviewers are required to assess when preference disagreement occurs and how this disagreement is resolved. Conflict is operationalised as actual disagreement over the first three preferences in each housing sub-decision. Two conflict resolution modes are utilised: concession and negotiation. SRM households exhibit a greater frequency of negotiation and SRT households exhibit a greater frequency of husband and wife concessions. An implication of this finding is that because SRT households have more clearly defined decision roles than SRM households, the use of concessions is acceptable.

Quall's (1983) findings appear to confirm the basic hypothesis that SRM households believe that influence should be distributed equally between husbands and wives. Conversely, when the influence scores for SRT households are examined, significant differences between SRT wives and husbands are uncovered. SRO in

general does have an impact upon husbands' and wives' perception of spousal influence. On the other hand, SRT households exhibit higher levels of preference agreement across housing sub-decisions than SRM households.

Quall's study examines the hypothesis that SRT households will utilise concession modes and SRM households will employ negotiative means of conflict resolution. Concession is a form of conflict resolution in which one spouse gives in to the preference desires of the other spouse with very little resistance (you-win-I-lose situation). Concession can be made without any promise for future consideration. Alternatively, negotiative modes of conflict resolution are characterised by the mutual satisfaction of both the husband's and the wife's individual preferences. Negotiative modes include bargaining, problem solving, compromise, and sequential concessions. Regardless of which means is utilized negotiation requires a give-and-take attitude with the objective being that both spouses win. Examination of the distribution of housing choice (whereby couples asked to jointly select a house from among 8) and SRO revealed no differences. The final outcome, according to Qualls, is the result of variables that interact throughout the process.

SRO as a Key Concept in Comprehensive Models of Family Decision Making

Modelling is advancing particularly after the validation of comprehensive models of buyer behaviour by Farley and Ring (1970). The consumer behaviour literature proposes not only descriptive models (Buss and Schaninger 1983) but also predictive ones (Qualls 1987; see also Menasco and Curry 1989; Corfman et al. 1991).

According to Buss and Schaninger (1983), because sex role norms and task allocations within families are changing, traditional generalisations about family decision making may be obsolete. These changes may radically alter the appropriate strategies for both reaching and persuading the evolving family and may also affect family purchase priorities and behaviour. For example, labour-saving devices, restaurants, leisure activities, vacation planning, and convenience goods will be purchased by different types of families through different decision processes for different reasons. The author provided a unifying framework as a basis for organising and identifying factors which influence the family decision making process and their links with sex roles, as follows :

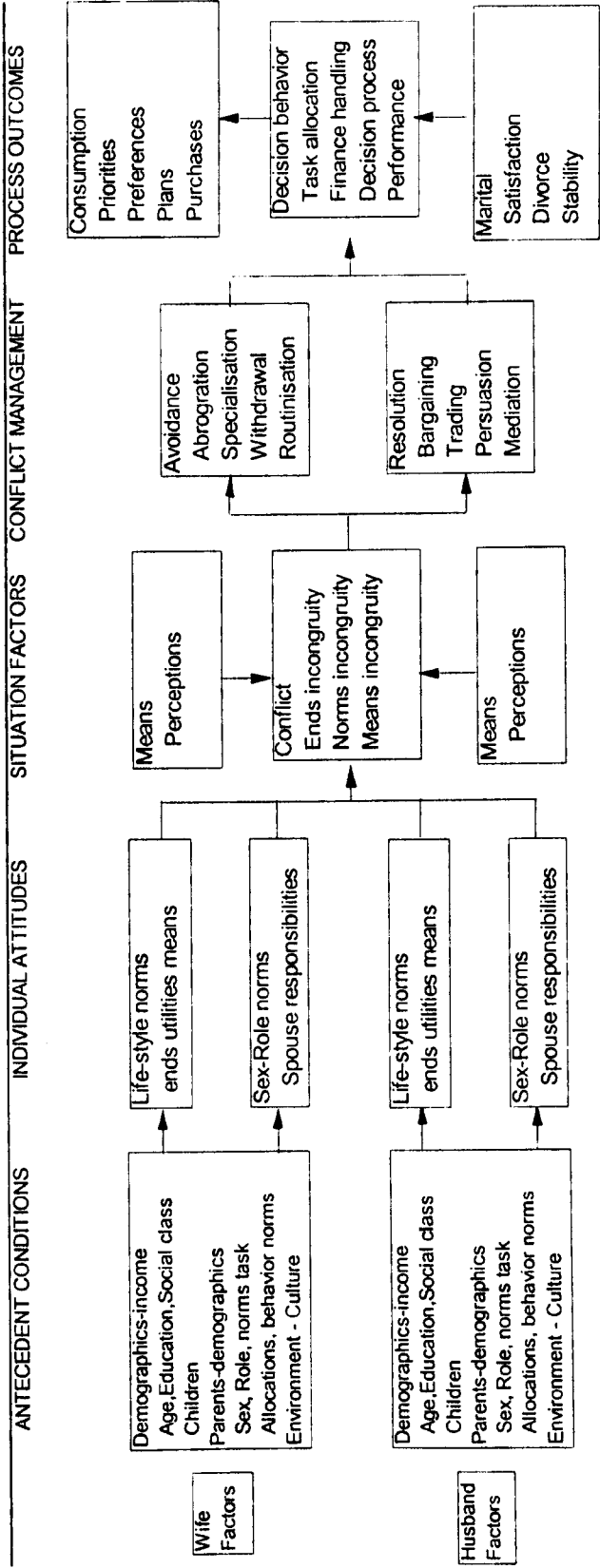
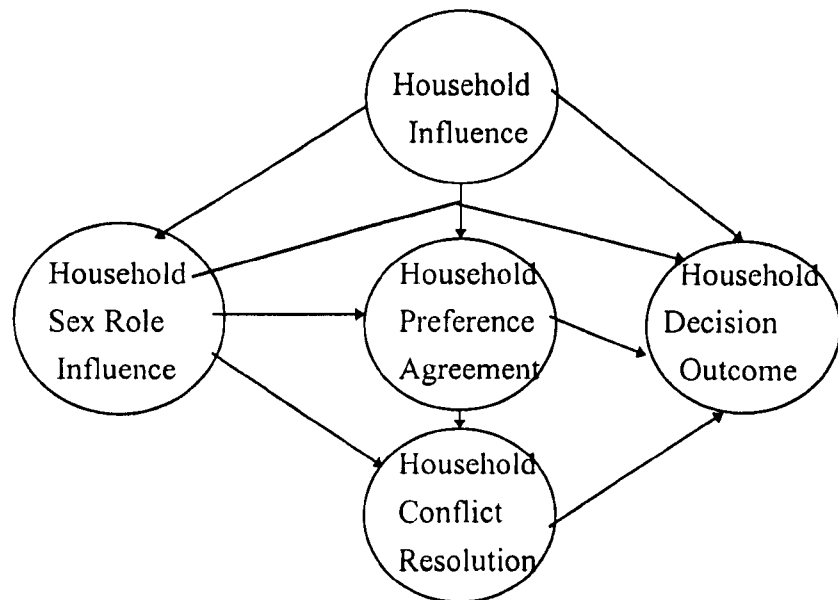


Figure 4-2
A DESCRIPTIVE MODEL OF FAMILY PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR
Source: Buss and Schaninger (1983), p. 440.

The key concept in the model is sex role norms. Sex role norms are those values and norms (both instrumental and terminal) which are related to the duties and responsibilities of each actor. Different sex-role norms lead to different task allocations, purchase responsibilities, and marital outcomes. Among other factors, they are influenced by demographics (modern sex-role norms are found in couples with higher social status and are defined by a shift towards more joint role sharing) environmental influences (a concurrent shift towards a more egalitarian view of task sharing) and life style values. The term life-style norm is used to describe preferred modes of behaviour and roles other than those related to sex. These norms should influence both consumption priorities and purchase process preferences.

According to Qualls (1987), family decision-making requires the integration of key variables that are theoretically related via a network of dimensions. An overall model is described as follows: Sex Role Orientation SRO is the force driving the process and has an impact on Decision Outcome (DO). The observable variables chosen to represent DO reflect whether the decision includes dimensions associated with the husband or dimensions associated with the wife. Household Influence (HI) is a measure of spousal influence based upon a constant sum scale indicating the level of perceived influence in a particular decision while indicating simultaneously the man's or the woman's preferences. Preference Agreement (PA) is based on the degree of similarity that exists between husbands' and wives' preferences. These variables, along with Conflict Resolution (CR) are found to be moderating the effect of the independent manifest variable SRO upon the dependent one DO. Two modes are hypothesised for DO. Concession is used to classify situations in which one spouse puts up minimal or no resistance and gives in to the preference of the other spouse without any promise of future consideration. Bargaining is characterised by spousal discussion in which some fair exchange between preferences is achieved such that both spouses preferences are maximally satisfied to the extent possible. The relations are cast into a series of simultaneous equations. Most hypothesised relations are verified and the model is presented as follows:



A GENERAL MODEL OF FAMILY PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

Figure 4-3

Source: Qualls (1987), p. 267.

In conclusion, the consumer behaviour literature is moving towards comprehensiveness in dealing with the value-behaviour relationship. After the insistence on personality characteristics and the use of standard inventories, there is a shift towards life style studies that take into consideration situation variables and product-specific judgements. Quite recently, there is more and more insistence on integrative approaches that define key variables, present them in a systems framework, and measure them simultaneously for explanation and prediction purposes. This paradigm is, to my view, most relevant to the project before hand.

NOTES

1. The importance of culture for marketing and consumer behaviour specialists stems from the fact that not only does it give meaning to acts of communication about a product, but also to acts of consumption hence creating what Engel et al. (1995) called an "ideology of consumption". This is defined as the social meaning attached to and communicated by products. The marketing literature recently has focused on cognitive meanings and symbolic functions of products emerging in a concept called product semiotics.
2. According to Schewe (1973), Riesman's model assumes that the United States no longer contains anyone who can be characterised as tradition-directed, but is composed primarily of inner and other-directed individuals. However, he states that the majority of the population would still have to be considered inner-directed. It is proper to visualize tradition-direction, inner-direction, and other-direction as having sharply defined differences for study purposes. It would, however, be a mistake to expect to find such a sharp separation in the real world. In some circumstances, a person could be more motivated by inner-direction; while in others, he could be more motivated by other-direction. The main questions concern the degree to which an individual or social group relies upon one or the other of the available mechanisms.
3. As the population becomes more other-directed, word-of-mouth communication may have a greater impact on consumer buying than advertising. When advertising is used, however, the marketer should emphasise the benefits derived from social approval rather than product characteristics.
4. The investigation conducted by Spiro (1983) among couples who experienced disagreement in their decision making revealed the following. A six-group taxonomy of influence strategy mixes showed that, among the mixes, there are not only differences in the level of influence used, but also distinct patterns in the relative level of use of the alternative strategies. (1) Non-Influencers (22%) are those who reported the lowest use of the influence types. When an influence attempt is made, expertise is most likely to be used. (2) Light-Influencers (35.9%) are similar to the previous group in terms of influence strategies, with the exception of their use of impression management. (3) Subtle Influencers (18.8%) rely heavily on the reward/referent strategy. They attempt to put their partners in a favorable "mood" before a decision is made. (4) Emotional Influencers (9.9%) are characterised by moderate use of all the influence strategies. The strategy mix patterns showed that husband and wife use more or less the same influence strategy mix in resolving disagreement. It appears that if one spouse does not make strong attempts to use influence strategies to resolve disagreement, neither does the other spouse.

APPENDIX 4-A TERMINAL AND INSTRUMENTAL VALUES

Terminal Values		Instrumental Values	
A comfortable life	(a prosperous life)	Ambitious	(hard-working, aspiring)
An exciting life	(a stimulating, active life)	Broadminded	(open -minded)
A sense of accomplishment	(lasting contribution)	Capable	(competent, effective)
A world at peace	(free of war and conflict)	Cheerful	(lighthearted, joyful)
A world of beauty	(beauty of nature and the arts)	Clean	(neat, tidy)
Equality	(brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)	Courageous	(standing up for your beliefs)
Family security	(taking care of loved ones)	Forgiving	(willing to pardon others)
Freedom	(independence, free choice)	Helpful	(working for the welfare of others)
Happiness	(contentedness)	Honest	(sincere, truthful)
Inner harmony	(freedom from inner conflict)	Imaginative	(daring, creative)
Mature love	(sexual and spiritual intimacy)	Independent	(self-reliant, self-sufficient)
National security	(protection from attack)	Intellectual	(intelligent, reflective)
Pleasure	(an enjoyable, leisurely life)	Logical	(consistent, rational)
Salvation	(saved, eternal life)	Loving	(affectionate, tender)
Self-respect	(self-esteem)	Obedient	(dutiful, respectful)
Social recognition	(respect, admiration)	Polite	(courteous, well-mannered)
True friendship	(close companionship)	Responsible	(dependable, reliable)
Wisdom	(a mature understanding of life)	Self-controlled	(restrained, self-disciplined)

Source : Rokeach (1973), p. 28.

APPENDIX 4 -B
FIFTY-ONE LIFE STYLE FACTORS / VARIABLES

A. Cooking

1. Cooking/ Entertaining Self-Confidence -enjoy having guests for dinner, enjoy entertaining.
2. Convenience Cook -desire for convenience in cooking.
3. Creative Cook - enjoyment and skill in cooking fancy meals.

B. Household Activities

4. Home Cleanliness - activities and expectations about house cleaning.
5. Home/Laundry Cleanliness - judge floors by shine laundry by whiteness.
6. Do Husband's Shirts - do husband's shirts one self.
7. Planning and Routine - plan shopping and budget, limit shopping trips.
8. Attention to Detail - attend to detail in carrying out a task.

C. Family Relationships

9. Spend Time with Children - take time to teach and talk with children, family is close knit group.
10. Children Are Center of Attention - consider children in family, household decisions.
11. Father Should be Boss in Family - man (versus woman) should run the family.
12. Marriage Should Be a Partnership - neither the man nor the woman should be "boss" in family .

D. Leisure

13. Formal Entertainment - go out to dinner, concerts, movies, plays, and formally entertain regularly.
14. Reading - read novels, newspapers, and magazines regularly .
15. Music - enjoy listening to music.
16. Participation in Activities - often visit friends, enjoy activities outside of the home.
17. Spend Time Out Every Day - out of house every day.
18. Enjoy Doing Nothing - often like to do nothing.
19. Self-Indulgence justified - believe entitled to play hooky once in a while.

E. Attitudes Toward Television

20. Television as Primary Entertainment - watch television often ; television is a companion, brings enjoyment.
21. Watch TV to Relax - watch television to relax and escape problems.
22. Watch Television if Nothing Else to Do - watch television because there is nothing else to do at the time.
23. Watch Television Selectively - certain about programs liked and watch specific ones.
24. Watch a Variety of Programs - watch different programs instead of the same ones from week to week.
25. Rarely Change the Channel-once the television set is on, the channel is rarely changed.
26. TV as Company - like having television on while do other work.
27. Like TV violence - like to watch shows about murder and violence.

F. Health

28. Use of Non-Prescription Drugs - believe in use of non-prescription drugs for minor ailments.
29. Purchase of Non-Prescription Drugs - believe some brands are more powerful.
30. Concern about Nutrition - believe nutrition is important, make family take supplementary vitamins.
31. Nutrition Is Instinctive - believe children instinctively know the best foods to eat.

G. Appearance

32. Dress for Comfort - usually dress for comfort (versus fashion).
33. Importance of Woman's Appearance - believe woman's appearance is very important, tend to dress for fashion.
34. Overweight Problem - feel overweight.
35. Weight Consciousness - eat carefully and exercise to control weight.

H. Finances

36. Present Financial Situation - distressed with present financial situation.
37. Financial Future-optimistic about future family income and financial position.

I. Mobility

38. Attitude Toward Moving - do not mind moving to a new community , have moved often before.

J. Risk

39. Attitudes Towards Risk - not afraid to take a chance.

K. Morality

40. Moral Issues - believe movies should not be censored, marijuana should be legalized.
41. Belief in work Ethic - believe becoming a success is a matter of hard work, not luck.
42. Religious Practices and Attitudes - attend church and pray regularly , believe abortion should be restricted.

L. Buyer Behaviour

43. Attitudes Toward Advertising - believe advertising is expensive, wasteful, and generally misleading.
44. Susceptibility to Advertising - believe advertising cannot sell one anything not wanted.
45. Product Innovativeness /Opinion Leadership - try new food brands before friends and neighbors, like to try new gadget, products ; advise other of new brands and products.
46. Dependent-Influencer - influenced by friends to try new products, desire sympathy of friends give advice to friends about new products.
47. Price Consciousness -use price, price-off coupons, check prices and sale advertisements.
48. Price/Quality believer - believe you get what you pay for.
49. National brand Preference -believe national brands are better and worth paying more for than private brands.
50. Credit Practices and Attitudes -believe in use of credit cards and charge accounts .
51. Shopping Practices - enjoy shopping, take frequent shopping trips.

Source : Villani (1975)

Chapter 5

Product-Consumer Relationship

The Consumer-Product Relationship

A body of the literature proposes to look deep into the relationship between the consumer and the product. Some researchers investigate it in terms of purchase, and in terms of the ability of the purchased product to satisfy consumer needs. These are categorised under theories of motivation and involvement (Buskirk & Buskirk 1992; Laurent and Kapferer 1985). Some other researchers investigate consumer products relationships in terms of product use and in terms of emotional as well as imaginal arousal as a consequence of consumption. These are referred to as experiential and hedonic approaches (Hirshman & Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook and Hirshman 1982). Other researchers investigate consumer-products relationships in terms of their ability to carry and communicate meaning (Belk et al. 1982; Gentry, Baker and Kraft 1995; Mc Cracken 1986; Richins 1994a, 1994b; Solomon 1983). Another stream of research, basically heralded by economists, looks at household possession patterns and acquisition priorities. Of particular interest to them is the order in which products are acquired (Clarke & Soutar 1982; Dickson et al. 1983; Kasulus et al. 1979).

PRODUCT PURCHASE AND THE THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

This stream of research is interested into revealing buying motives. Buskirk & Buskirk (1992) review theories of motivation in terms of the rational and emotional approaches, and in terms of the self-concept and the problem-solving approaches. Laurent and Kapferer (1985) investigate involvement as a motivating variable.

The Theories of Motivation

No overall theory of motivation has been universally accepted. Various authorities have taken slightly different approaches to the problem. The three main approaches to understanding buying motives are: the traditional emotional-rational theory, the problem-solving theory, and the self concept theory (Buskirk & Buskirk 1992).

The Traditional Approach. The traditional approach to buying categorises motives into two major groups: rational and emotional.

Rational Buying Motives. These concern such matters as price, durability, servicing, reliability, length of useful usage and, in general, any consideration affecting the full long-run cost of the article to the purchaser. Classical economists base much of their theory on the so called “economic man”, who is a sort of ambulatory computer able to feed into his brain a mass of performance data. Obviously, this is too much to expect where the factors influencing consumer behaviour are numerous and complex. The rational motive does play a role in practically all buying and many, if not most, people like to believe that they are behaving rationally even though the real drives underlying their actions are emotional.

Emotional Buying Motives. Long lists of emotional motives, like security, comfort, ego, emulation, pride, recreation and many others have been compiled by various authorities. Although it is helpful to study such lists and discussions, a complete classification of the emotional buying motives is impossible. Emotions are so complex that it is difficult to isolate each motive and classify it. Two executives may purchase exactly the same luxurious office furniture for ostensibly the same emotional motive of ego gratification. However the “motive mixes” underlying these two purchases can be quite different. The first executive may purchase the furniture to prove to fellow employees that s/he possesses certain status within the organisation. The other executive may purchase the furniture to impress such outsiders as competitors, other business executives, and customers and to convey an image of success, largely for business reasons.¹

The Problem Solving Approach. The best way for marketing practitioners to view buying behaviour may be to consider that all purchases are made to solve some problem. Homemakers must prepare attractive, palatable meals for their families approximately 20 times each week. They buy food products and kitchen equipment in the hope that they will solve the problem. This is actually only a slight variation of the consumer benefit theory of marketing. It is axiomatic in all marketing that companies do not sell products but consumer benefits. The homemaker is not buying a vacuum cleaner for the metal, bolts, and motor it contains, but because it delivers certain benefits, such as a cleaner house with less work. In general the more

problems a product solves, the stronger its appeal (Kotler 1984). Also the seriousness of the problem solved directly affects its attractiveness.

The Self Concept Theory. The self-concept theory of buying behaviour is closely tied to the emotional buying motive of ego gratification. However, it gives a better explanation of the consumer's behaviour than the just simple assertion that one buys a given product in order to gratify one's ego. This last statement is subject to the additional question, just how does it gratify the ego? The theory of self-concept is probably the best integrated thought on buying behaviour to date because it nicely combines the rational-emotional, the pleasure-pain and the problem solving theories into one unified concept. This theory of behaviour is a contribution of behavioural scientists and is consequently being continually refined and supplemented. It has some semantic problems; different scientists have assigned slightly different labels to essentially the same concept. The terms "self-image" and "self-concept" are two examples. The term "self-concept" is a bit misleading because it implies that a person has but one self-concept.

Sentis and Markus (1986) contend that before looking for relationships between the self-concept and consumption behaviour, it is important to measure how individuals perceive themselves in the domain of interest and to evaluate their knowledge about products and brands. Memory structures or schemata are the central cognitive units in the human information processing system and are the framework for representing the consumer's knowledge about, and experience with, a product or a brand. Specifically, attributes of a brand - how it feels or tastes or smells - are represented in the schemata along with consequences of consumption, i.e., what happens when I use such or such a brand. A schemata for a brand includes also personal values: the reasons why those consequences of consumption are important to the self i.e., how the consequences of consumption make one feel. The problem is how to describe the important features of content and structures of brand schemata. A brand personality conveys a synthesis of everything represented in the brand schemata.²

According to Buskirk & Buskirk (1992), buying is strongly influenced by several different selves which each individual conceptualises in the mind. These are

the Real Self, the Ideal Self, the Real Other, and the Ideal Other. The Real Self is what one thinks s/he really is. It is one's concept of abilities, personality, character, and other factors which make up one's total existence. The Ideal Self is how one would like to think of oneself. Much of the individual's behaviour is directed toward making one's Real Self coincide with one's Ideal Self. The Real Other is one's perception of others' perception of him/her - what other people think of him/her in terms of abilities and personality. The entire self-concept theory is based on how one perceives one-self and what one thinks others think of him/her. The Ideal Other is how one wants other people to think of him/her. The woman who wants others to think of her as a successful business executive will not behave like the woman who wants others to see her as a good mother and homemaker. According to Buskirk & Buskirk (1992), people express themselves to others and to themselves with the goods and services they buy as well as through non-consuming activities. The individual is constantly trying to bring the Real Self and the Ideal Self closer together and to make the Real Other and the Ideal Other coincide. The key point is that the mind continually requires evidence of who and what it is. It is not enough to be highly successful if there is little or no evidence of it which can be perceived by oneself and others.

However, Buskirk and Buskirk (1992) point out that there are not only motivators, but there are also barriers to buying. Among these are incompatibility with the self concept, risk of moving away from the ideal self, and guilt.

Incompatibility with the Self-Concept. People may refuse to purchase a product because its purchase is simply incompatible with their self-concept. It does not fit into the role they play in life. A landmark motivation study on the purchase of instant coffee discovered that one of the barriers to women's use of the product when it first came out was the fact that they considered it incompatible with their concept of themselves as diligent homemakers and good cooks (Buskirk and Buskirk).

Risk of Moving Away from Ideal Self or Ideal Other. People are constantly striving to bring their Real Self closer to their Ideal Self and their Real Other to their Ideal Other. They want to buy goods which are believed to facilitate this movement. However, the purchase of an item involves some risk of moving away from ideals.

People usually will not buy even if the purchase proves to be a wise one. They prefer the status quo to moving away from their ideals or jeopardising their self-concept. The sales of many products suffer because many people are uncertain of the impact of these products on their self-concepts.

Guilt. Not all aspects of one's self concept are completely harmonious with one another. Although a person may like to own a sports car, the desire is not fulfilled because it creates guilt feelings. A sports car is a selfish purchase for a family because there is room for only one passenger and the family cannot enjoy the purchase. Similarly, a person who wants to buy a luxury car may refrain from doing so lest s/he penalises one's family in other areas.

Consumer Involvement

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) suggest that in order to better specify the nature of the relationship between consumers and products, marketing researchers should stop thinking in terms of single indicators of involvement and use involvement profiles. In theory, involvement is considered as an individual difference variable. It is a motivating variable with a number of consequences on the consumer's purchase and communication behaviour.

As a hypothetical construct, involvement cannot be measured directly and its antecedents should be specified. Involvement can stem from the intrinsic importance of the issue, personal meaning, or strong effect vis-à-vis an issue. In marketing, price is the commonly used indicator of involvement because risk of a mispurchase is high when price is high, and so involvement is high. Researchers and managers must not be content with knowing only that an individual is or is not involved because knowing the level of involvement gives a static description of consumers. However, the understanding of the sources of involvement provides a dynamic picture of the consumer's subjective experiences and gives clues as to what appeals should be used in communicating with consumers. Five antecedents or facets of involvement are identified: (1) the perceived importance of the product, (2) the perceived risk associated with the product purchase which in turn, has two facets; (a) the perceived importance of negative consequences in case of poor choice and (b) the perceived probability of making such a mistake, (3) the symbolic or sign value attributed to the

product, its purchase or its consumption, (4) the hedonic value of the product, its emotional appeal, i.e., its ability to provide pleasure and affect.³

The Experiential and Hedonic Theories

Hirshman & Holbrook (1982) introduce the hedonic and experiential views of consumption as an important extension of traditional consumer research and a complementary perspective of conceptualising some neglected consumption phenomena. According to the authors, the behaviour of consumers is far more sensorily complex, imaginative and emotion laden than has been reflected in the traditional approach to marketing research. Hedonic consumption refers to consumers' multi-sensory images, fantasies and emotions in using products. Theoretically, it draws upon motivation research by focusing on the emotional aspects of products and the fantasies that they fulfil, and upon product symbolism. Products are viewed not as objective entities, but as subjective symbols. The researcher is concerned not so much with what the products is as with what it represents. Product image, rather than strict reality, is a central focus.⁴

Hirshman and Holbrook (1982) contend that most conceptualisations of consumer behaviour presuppose individuals who actively seek information and make personal decisions which lead to utilitarian or at least pragmatic goals. Even authors critical of the highly rational problem-solving perspective take as their premise the notion that consumption is most meaningfully construed as a process centered within the individual - as opposed to the group, the tribe or society. The authors propose a controversial approach whereby personal spirituality and ancestral tradition are thought to imbue acts of consumption. These manifestations of the primitive within modern society are not antiquated anomalies, but are vital and enduring aspects of modern society.

The Spirituality of Products

It is widely assumed within modern values that the sacred and the secular are carefully contained in separate experienced spheres. However, according to Hirshman and Holbrook (1982), the natural and the supernatural are often intertwined during consumption, and to attempt to segregate them in theory - especially within the all too frequent assumption that secular interests dominate

spiritual ones - is false. There are many ways in which primitive spirituality suffuses consumption. Primitive spirituality is centered around the embodiment of transcendent concepts in concrete objects. Cultivation refers to the extent to which an individual invests psychic energy (i.e., spirituality) in his/her personal possessions. The more a spiritual relationship is cultivated between the consumer and the objects s/he has acquired, the more these objects come to transcend their constraints as a mere assemblage of physical features and to embody the ideals and recollections that the consumer holds most dear. Personal possessions, thus cultivated turn into shrines for the individual. They become the means by which personal values can be made manifest and visible.

Hirshman and Holbrook (1982) propose a bi-axial model of personal orientation that determines to a great extent the amount of spirituality a consumer will invest in his/her possessions. The two axes are differentiation/integration and activity/contemplation. The differentiation and activity poles are associated with consumers who make little attempt to cultivate spirituality with either possessions or other people. Conversely, consumers oriented towards the integration and contemplation poles experience spiritual in-dwelling with the objects they have chosen to possess. These objects represent for them a path to transcendence of the material world either as objects of aesthetic contemplation or as existential linkages of family friends, ancestors, and future generations. In essence, the first type of consumers acquires possessions in order to achieve materiality. The second type acquires possessions to acquire ethereality.

Ancestry, Ethnicity and Consumption

A second consumption feature often attributed to primitive societies is the importance of kinship and ancestral traditions. The view that much consumption in modern melting-pot America occurs in similar ancestral and kin-bounded patterns may appear untenable. Despite the achieved-status values given widespread lip service in modern societies, ascribed-status realities have an important role in shaping consumption. According to Hirshman and Holbrook (1985), primitive aspects of ancestry and kinship reside in its various ethnic groups who possess several structural and functional qualities of an ancestral and kin-based nature.

Ethnic identity provides them with common sets of beliefs and values that inform many acts of their consumption behavioural patterns and attitudes (e.g., the effects of ancestry and kinship on consumption practices in American ethnic groups of Blacks, Italians, etc.).

Holbrook & Hirshman (1982) question the hegemony of the information processing perspective on the grounds that it may ignore important consumption phenomena. Recognition of these important aspects is strengthened by contrasting the information and experiential views. The phenomena of primary interest to the information processing perspective and those of central concern to the experiential view are compared in terms of environmental inputs, consumer inputs, intervening responses, output consequences, and criteria and learning effects. These are found to differ for both perspectives.⁵

In conclusion, the authors contend that the behaviour of people in general and of consumers in particular is the fascinating and endlessly complex result of multifaceted interactions between the organism and the environment. Future research shall work toward redressing this imbalance by broadening the area of research to include some consideration of consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun.

PRODUCT POSSESSION AND THE EXPRESSION OF MEANING

This stream of research is interested in the investigation of the symbolic dimensions of product use and possession in contrast to their utilitarian and commercial character. Products are invested with meaning and consumption can be perceived as an encoding and a decoding process (Belk et al. 1982). As such, products can be used as a means of setting the stage for the multitude of roles people must play (Solomon 1983). Richins (1994a, 1994b) investigates the value of possessions and demonstrates that it is meaning of different natures that gives a product its true value. Taking the case of materialists, the author contends that possessions can be used as a means of expressing personal values. The expression of personal values takes the form of characterisation and communication (Richins 1994b). As for Mc Cracken (1986), he deals with the location and movement of meaning.

Belk et al. (1982) note that there is a tendency to make inferences about other people based on their choices of consumption objects. This may involve prejudicial stereotyping but may also involve non-verbal communication to achieve the satisfaction of self-expression through consumption. Hence, the need to know how people perceive that the acquisition of some kinds of products or brands can be instrumental to successful social role enactment. Prior research notes that consumption can be used as an encoding and a decoding process (Belk et al. 1982).

Encoding. People do express themselves through consumption and see their possessions as part or an extension of themselves. Examining the relation between self and consumption through the congruence of self-images and images of owned and desired products has revealed significant results for a number of product categories such as clothing, retail store patronage, health, clothing, etc. Conspicuous consumption also reflects the intended communication role played by certain consumption decisions.

Decoding. Although there is consistent evidence that people utilise the consumption cues of others in forming impressions about them, the ability of consumption objects to clearly communicate status has been challenged in recent years (Belk et al. 1982). Because of the decline of material scarcity, status symbols rapidly disappear in the face of abundance. It is contended that people adopt simpler life styles that are devoid of status symbols. Material life styles may serve more to mask than to transmit material inequalities. Whether or not consumption communicates status as clearly as was once the case, it is clear that there are still a number of inferences about people which are affected by the goods and services that they select. ⁶

According to Solomon (1983), many products possess symbolic features that may depend more on their social meaning than utility. Consumers employ product symbolism to define social reality and to ensure that behavioural patterns appropriate to that reality ensue. They often rely upon the social information inherent in products to shape self-image and to maximise the quality of role performance. Relations between material cues and social behaviour are approached by melting the sociological theory of symbolic interaction⁷ with empirical work of market research.

Richins (1994a) assumes that given the centrality of things in consumers' lives, it is useful to ask what meaning those things have and why they are so valued. She also proposes a distinction between public and private meaning.

Meaning as a Source of Value

The notion of value has proved to be difficult, and scholars from a variety of disciplines have attempted to explicate it (Richins 1994a). The economics literature places value within the context of exchange. A good's value to a consumer is represented by the price s/he is willing to pay and stems from the utilities or satisfaction the good provides, although the precise nature of these satisfactions are generally unspecified. In the marketing literature, value is also examined in the exchange context but from a slightly different perspective. The emphasis has been on consumers' perceptions of value when faced with choices within a product class. In this context, value is most frequently conceptualised as involving a relationship between quality received for price paid. However, many possessions are not subject to normal economic exchange. For some people money is not their medium of value and economic value is not the most important form of value. Market value does not necessarily represent the most important form of value because of the distinction between value in use and value in exchange.⁸

The Nature of Meaning

Visible possessions are signs that are interpreted by observers in a given context by means of an interpretative code. The result of the interpretation code is meaning. This meaning can be public or private (Richins 1994a).

Public Meanings. They are the subjective meanings assigned to an object by outside observers (non-owners) of the object, that is, by members of society at large. Although outside observers are likely to differ in some of the meanings they ascribe to objects, members of the general population or of social subgroups are likely to agree on some aspects of an object's meaning. These agreed upon elements of meaning constitute the object's shared public meaning. Although the public meanings of some goods may be stable over time, the meanings of others are dynamic, reflecting changes in popular perceptions and culture. Possessions may take on new meanings when they are associated with a particular TV character, a

celebrity, or a highly visible social subgroup. Advertising and the fashion system actively attempt to influence the meanings of goods.

Private Meanings. They are the sum of the subjective meanings that an object holds for a particular individual. Some meanings may include elements of the object's public meaning, but the owner's personal history in relation to the object also plays an important role. The symbolic value of ear-rings given as a present for a woman may contain elements of shared meaning (e.g., the recognition that diamond jewelry is expensive), but it also contains meanings that are not available to others. Additional meaning derives from the possessor's memories of the occasions on which the ear-rings were worn, the compliments received and so on. The value and meaning of an object is "cultivated" over time and emanates from the psychic energy invested in it and experiences related to it.⁹

The Sources of Meaning

A possession's public and private meanings are what gives it value. They arise from a number of sources. Most of the meanings that create value can be classed into the categories below (Richins 1994a).

Utilitarian value. That commodities have value because of their usefulness is a basic tenet of classical economic theory. Utilitarian value relates to a possession's role in providing necessary functions or allowing one to lead a more efficient life.

Enjoyment. This is a possession's capacity to enable some enjoyable activity or to provide pleasure for the consumer.

Representations of Interpersonal Ties. Anthropologists have long recognised the importance of goods in forming and symbolizing social relationships.

Identity and Self-Expression. Possessions also have value for their role in expressing or reinforcing the sense of self. It also includes situations in which a possession is valued because it expresses personal values or religious beliefs. Identity of self notions are also relevant when possessions represent one's competence, mastery or achievement.^{10, 11}

Richins (1994b) focuses on two aspects of the expression of personal values in possessions: characterisation and communication. Using the case of materialism the author examines empirically whether possessions characterise or embody

personal values and measures the extent to which possessions communicate their owner's material values to other people.

Characterisation of material values in possessions. If personal values are important, it is inevitable that these values influence what people consume. The question of why certain products are chosen or become significant, however, must be considered in light of the meanings these objects possess and the relationship of these meanings to personal values.¹²

Communication of material values. There is evidence that others (acting as observers) are capable of reading elements of a person's identity by observing that individual's possessions. This reading is based on social stereotypes about the relationships between possessions and their owners.¹³ For example, recreational equipment means a high value on fun and excitement, albums of family photos mean a high value on warmth and interpersonal ties.

In general, low materialist consumers are more hedonically oriented than their high materialist counterparts. The former are much more likely to mention recreational possessions as important to them and to describe the value of their possessions as stemming from the possession's ability to provide pleasure or comfort. Materialists are less happy because they do not cultivate pleasurable meanings and experiences. The meanings of goods important to them seem to relate more to the goods' utilitarian benefits or to their value in signaling accomplishment than to the pleasure associated with it.

Mac Craken (1986) confirms that consumer goods have a significance that goes beyond their utilitarian character and commercial value. This significance rests largely in their ability to carry and communicate meaning. Cultural meaning is located in 3 places, the culturally constituted world, the consumer good, and the individual consumer, and moves in a trajectory at two points of transfer: world to good and good to individual. Mc Cracken proposes an analysis of this trajectory of meaning in terms of location and transfer.

Locations of Cultural Meaning. The culturally constituted world is the world of every day experience in which the phenomenal world presents itself to the individual's senses fully shaped and constituted by the belief and assumptions of

his/her culture. Culture constitutes the phenomenal world in two ways: (1) a “lens” through which the individual views phenomena; as such, it determines how the phenomena will be apprehended and assimilated ; (2) a “blueprint” of human activity; it specifies the behavioural patterns and objects that issue from both. As a blueprint, it determines how the world will be fashioned by human efforts. In short, culture constitutes the world by supplying it with meaning. This meaning can be characterised in two concepts: cultural categories and cultural principles.

Cultural categories. According to Mc Cracken (1986), these are the fundamental coordinates of meaning representing the basic distinctions that a culture uses to divide up the phenomenal world. Cultural categories of space, time, nature and person make up the vast body of categories creating a system of distinction that organises the phenomenal world. Each culture establishes its own special vision of the world , thus rendering the understandings and rules appropriate to one cultural context inappropriate in another. By investing the world with its own particular meaning, culture “constitutes” the world. It is from a world so constituted that the meaning destined for consumer goods is drawn. Cultural categories are the conceptual grid of a culturally constituted world. They determine how this world is segmented into discrete, intelligible parcels and how these parcels are organised into a large coherent system. Cultural categories are constantly substantiated by human practice. One of the most important ways in which cultural categories are substantiated is through a culture’s material objects.¹⁴

Cultural principles. According to Mc Cracken (1986), cultural meaning also consists of cultural principles. If cultural categories are the result of culture’s segmentation of the world into discrete parcels, cultural principles are the organizing ideas by which the segmentation is performed. When goods show a distinction between two cultural categories, they do so by encoding something of the principle according to which the two categories have been distinguished (e.g., clothing: male and female, high and low social class; it communicates both the supposed delicacy of women and strength of men or, the refinement of higher classes and the vulgarity of lower ones). Apparently, the categories of class and sex are never communicated without the indication of how and why they are to be distinguished. The world of

goods, unlike that of language, never engages in a simple signalling of differences. In fact, goods are more forthcoming and more revealing. In the world of goods, signs are always, in a sense, more motivated and less arbitrary than the world of language.

Instruments of Meaning Transfer. Meaning first resides in the culturally constituted world. To become resident in consumer goods, meaning must be disengaged from this world and transferred to goods. Two institutions are used as instruments of meaning transfer: advertising and product designers.¹⁴ Clothing, transportation, food, housing exteriors and interiors, and adornment all serve as media for the expression of the cultural meaning that constitutes our world. Then, meaning, now resident in goods, moves from the good into the consumer through rituals. A ritual is a kind of social action devoted to the manipulation of cultural meaning for purposes of collective and individual communication and categorisation. Most important of these are the exchange, the possession, the grooming, and the divestment rituals.¹⁵

Gentry Baker and Kraft (1995) underline the importance of possessions in creating, maintaining and preserving identity over the life course. Within each stage of the life course, the role of possessions differs. To the young, possessions that reflect ability and control and that reinforce future orientation are important. To the adults, possessions that reflect the work identity are important because one's identity is a function of doing, being, and having. For the elderly, as work and family roles diminish, possessions are used to filter out the negative experiences of the past and stimulate only positive memories. According to the above authors, marketers shall not view possessions from their own frame of reference, but from that of different life stages and identities.

HOUSEHOLD PRODUCT OWNERSHIP AND PRIORITISATION

In this stream of research, consumer populations are believed to have an underlying common order of acquisition for heterogeneous durables. The knowledge of this order is of interest because, by only knowing the last durable acquired, one can predict a consumer's total stock of durables and the durables to be purchased next. Some researchers investigate the order of acquisition of such durables as radio, gas, cooker, refrigerator and washing machine (Kasulus et al. 1979). Other

researchers while investigating underlying common order of acquisition are interested into meaningful breakdowns, such as home owners versus renters (Clarke & Soutar 1982). However, others criticise the technique on the grounds that it implies an analytical contradiction. Accordingly, one cannot on the one hand claim that a common order of acquisition exists and on the other hand, claim that there are several different acquisition orders (Dickson et al. 1983).

Kasulus et al. (1979) have conducted a study where two hypotheses are formulated: (1) there is an underlying structure of acquisition of durables; (2) there is a difference in the order of acquisition. They proposed the use of ownership situations framework given in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1
SIX OWNERSHIP SITUATIONS REPRESENTING PERFECT SCALE PATTERN FOR FIVE DURABLES

	DURABLES				
Scale score	D5	D4	D3	D2	D1
S5	1	1	1	1	1
S4	0	1	1	1	1
S3	0	0	1	1	1
S2	0	0	0	1	1
S1	0	0	0	0	1
S0	0	0	0	0	0

Source : Kasulus et al. (1979), p. 49.

According to them, each consumer fits any one of the patterns (rows); one can transform the multivariate data into a unidimensional scale. Thus only by knowing the last durable acquired, one can predict a consumer's total stock of durables and the durables to be purchased next. In other words, if the last durable to be purchased is D3, then one knows that D1 and D2 are also owned, but not D4 and D5. Furthermore, the next durable to be acquired is D4. Deviations inevitably exist, and the task is to determine whether this divergence is too large for the perfect model to be considered realistic for the real world. ¹⁶

The results of the above mentioned research support previous findings. The population has an underlying common order of acquisition for a large set of heterogeneous durables. Meaningful breakdowns reveal different patterns of acquisition. The order of acquisition scales generated are internally valid and generally longitudinally reliable. It is speculated that there is a strong underlying

competition between the dishwasher, the freezer, the cooker, the dryer, etc. Early adopters of microwave ovens cannot be accurately identified in terms of their stock of the other 11 durables. They cut-across established priority on acquisition patterns. Future examination shall include studies across different sets of durable goods, within different geographic samples and between other segmentation variables, such as social class, family life-cycle, and income groups.

Clarke & Soutar (1982) conduct a study aimed at verifying whether or not a common acquisition order can be found for a large number of heterogeneous durables, if meaningful breakdowns between homeowners and renters exist, and whether there are differences between Americans and Australians in patterns of acquisition. The study is based on the ownership of 15 heterogeneous durables. Results reveal that there is an underlying scale for the set of durables, thus supporting Kasulis et al.'s findings (1979). The acquisition patterns of home owners and renters are also examined for the same set of durables. Although the order of acquisition comprising the scale for the owner group is the same as for the total sample, there are some changes, for the renter group: the washing machine is third, after the fridge and the vacuum cleaner. Perhaps, rental dwellings are sometimes furnished with a washing machine by the landlord, thereby removing the need for tenants to buy this durable. For the owner group, hi-fi is seventh, but is fourth for the renter group. May be the latter attach more importance to hi-fi, and this difference may be explained by life-style variables.

Dickson et al. (1983) contended that one alternative to asking notoriously unreliable time-specific-purchase intention questions may be to track acquisition priorities and to see how they vary over time and across consumers. They conducted a study where home-makers are asked to indicate whether each of 12 appliances is now owned, how long ago the family purchased its first appliance of that type, whether it was new or used when acquired, or whether it came with the dwelling, whether it came as a gift, and the major reason for the purchase of the most recently acquired model of each appliance. The number of durables (the scale score ranging from 0 to 12) indicates which appliances are owned and which one is to be purchased next. Information about which appliances are owned can be used to derive

acquisition priorities. The average years of ownership of each appliance appear however to be inversely related to the acquisition order. Only one quarter of the sample conforms to the expected ownership profile, despite the apparently high goodness of fit indicated by the Green coefficient of reproducibility. A rather obvious analytical contradiction also exists. The technique assumes a common utility structure which implies a common acquisition pattern and different acquisition priorities for segments within the overall sample. Despite the assurance of the test statistics, one cannot, on the one hand, claim that there is a common acquisition pattern and that, on the other hand, there are differences between sub-samples. The latter finding disconfirms the former one.

To illustrate the above idea, the “average years of ownership” statistic identifies a problem in interpreting the acquisition priority of the color TV set. As a new innovation, it is not surprising that its order of priority based on scalogram analysis does not match the relative average years of ownership score. The average years score does not necessarily measure the average order of acquisition. When the average years of ownership of color TV are compared to the average years of other durables (such as sewing machine, kitchen range, see Table 5-2), it is hard to accept that color TV is typically the third appliance acquired by households.

Table 5-2
ACQUISITION PRIORITIES ^a

		Average number of years of ownership	Percent of households owning the durables	Percent of appliances purchased as used	Percent of appliances purchased with dwelling	gifts from outside
Guttman scale ^b						
Consumer Durable						
Refrigerator	1	15.4	97.0	14.4	10.8	5.0
Clothes washer	2	12.5	91.0	10.5	4.3	4.2
Color TV	3	6.0	84.7	8.8	0.3	8.3
Sewing machine	4	12.0	83.2	17.5	0.4	16.1
Kitchen range/oven	5	11.3	83.1	23.1	35.1	3.0
Clothes dryer	6	8.4	80.9	11.9	4.7	5.5
Stereo AM/FM radio	7	5.2	70.1	6.5	0.5	10.8
Seperate freezer	8	5.5	55.2	18.6	30.7	5.7
Dishwasher	9	3.4	48.7	16.8	30.7	5.7
Room air-conditioner	10	3.0	40.5	25.3	9.5	8.9
Microwave	11	0.3	16.9	5.7	4.7	10.0
Video recorder	12	0.1	5.0	6.5	0.0	5.9

Source : Dickson et al. (1983), p. 433.

a. Total sample N=3,311

b. Predicted order of acquisition according to the Guttman scale.

Consequently, it cannot be assumed that the scalogram analysis reports actual historical orders of appliance acquisition across the sample. Even if it does, such information may not be very useful to marketers and behaviourists who are interested in the priorities of current rather than past purchasers. There are potentially serious problems in using the behaviour of past purchasers to predict priorities of today's buyers. Families at the last stages of the life-cycle have acquired a list of durables from a limited number now available to younger families.

NOTES

1. Some of the more common emotional buying motives mentioned by the authors follow (Buskirk and Buskirk 1992).

Physical Pleasure, Comfort, Avoidance of Effort. Every human being has the same physiological needs. Humans require food, drink, sleep, and so on. Many humans spend most of their efforts in acquiring these basic necessities; others are able to satisfy these with a portion of their efforts and go on from there to acquire other desirable things. Washing machines, vacuum cleaners, automatic dish-washers, elevators and escalators, beverages, precooked foods, and air conditioning are all examples of things which we value because they satisfy this urge.

Esthetic Pleasure. We derive strong satisfaction or pleasure from the impact of the beautiful on our senses and emotions. This may be beauty of form or color or sound. It may be found in art, music, literature, or nature, in the home or at work. The purely utilitarian and functional approach has been modified by this determination to produce things that will also appeal to the esthetic motive.

Self -Esteem, Pride, Ego Striving, Power Status. Whatever we call it, all of us have it. We want to be appreciated, to be complemented, to be made to feel important, not only must we feel important but we crave for recognition from others. This desire for the approval of others leads us to do things merely because society has laid down certain behaviour patterns as correct.

Imitation or emulation. Pure imitation is the purchase of certain things with the idea that by so doing they are showing themselves as superiors to others. To this extent, then, this motive is akin to the urge of self importance, because some people imitate those who are, in their opinion, more important in this respect than they are.

Acquisitiveness. The acquisitiveness or possessive urge may manifest itself in many ways. Many of us like to own things. We seem to have an urge to possess, to call things "mine". Much of the underlying motivation toward home ownership is the basic desire of people to own land and property; to rent makes them feel rootless, homeless, insecure. The ownership of property is one avenue people travel in their search for security.

Curiosity or the Desire for New Experience. We like to go places and do things, to travel and visit new scenes, to extract new thrills from life. This urge is found more strongly in the young than in the old.

The Urge to Create. Many people who spend their working hours at some uncreative task find an outlet for their creative bent in hobbies. One of the rewards of gardening for example is the satisfaction of this urge. One of the biggest obstacles that confronted the manufacturers of cake mixes was the reluctance of many homemakers to abandon the pleasure of exercising their imagination and skill in baking a cake. They wanted to create.

Desire for Justice and Right, Sense of Duty, Love of Others. These may be acquired motives, but their power cannot be deny. People have died for what they thought was right, they fight to obtain justice for themselves or others; they forego pleasures for the higher satisfaction of feeling that they have done their duty. In the average adult, a sense of duty and the desire to be of service are intermingled with the wish to play a role in public life. The appeal of such a motive yields better results when used on a conscientious prospect. Parental or romantic love, a selfless devotion to others, is a motive prompting millions of purchases daily.

2. Self-concept is conceptualised as a system of self-schemata, which are knowledge structures developed to understand, explain, or integrate one's own behaviour in particular domains. Schemata about the self are cognitive structures about the self; they are like road maps to one's own personality. They are the basis of selectivity that characterises all information processing. A study was conducted by the authors (Sentis and Markus 1986) and aimed at exploring the perception of brand personality of five men's fragrances among Schematics and Aschematics. The perception of the personalities of the diverse brands is expected to differ as a function of the presence or absence of the masculine self-schema. Self-schema would influence category usage and brand preference. Results revealed that Schematics are more likely to describe themselves using stereotypically masculine characteristics. Usage of men's fragrance can be seen as a behavioural manifestation of a concern and involvement with masculinity. As expected, Schematics used after-shave and cologne more than Aschematics. Brand personalities were perceived differently by the two groups.

3. According to Laurent and Kapferer (1985), instead of developing a composite of items tapping these different sources, it seems essential to keep the full picture of the nature of consumer involvement by measuring the consumer's position on each of these facets- thus providing their involvement profiles. Methodologically, in order to create a reliable and valid measure of each of the facets of involvement, the selection of the stimulus products is crucial. Fourteen products were selected on the basis of in-depth interviews with housewives to represent contrasting profiles on the above dimensions. Five scales were constructed, containing three to five items each. To test simultaneously trait and discriminant validity, factor analysis of the items revealed that each scale is single factored except for two scales, denoting lack of discriminant validity, which merged into one scale. The correlations between the facets indicate that one facet cannot be fully predicted by another. No single facet alone catches the richness of the relationship between a consumer and a product class. As for the consequences of the involvement profiles, the theory predicts that involvement exerts a strong influence on consumers' decision process and information search. Because involvement is captured better when all its antecedents are taken into account, it is useful to investigate the influence of these facets on consumer behaviour. Traditional views hold that highly involved consumers: seek to maximise satisfaction through extensive choice process, are information seekers, are more likely to be influenced by reference groups, are more likely to express their life-style and personality characteristics in their brand choice, process communication cognitively by going through the stages of awareness, comprehension, attitudes and behaviour. When extensiveness of choice processes and information seeking were regressed against the different facets of the involvement profile, different patterns of influence emerged. Sometimes one facet is determinant and sometimes another facet exerts a major influence. Some facets influence specific behavioural patterns but not other behavioural patterns. On practical grounds, involvement profiles can be used to segment the market. Rather than merely indicating high-low division of the market, the profiles allow identification of consumers high on some facets of involvement but low on others. Moreover, the involvement profile affords a better understanding of the dynamics of consumer involvement. Looking at the facets, one may understand better where involvement originates, which provides clues as to what types of appeals should be used in communicating with each segment.

4. Practically, the hedonic approach can be applied to several areas of concern to marketers: mental constructs, product classes, product usage and individual differences (Hirshman and Holbrook 1985).

Mental Constructs. Plato described the faculties of the human mind in terms of cognition, emotion and conation and marketing researchers translated these into belief affect and intention. While present research focuses on verbal information, other modalities of emotions such as gustatory, olfactory, tactile, pictorial and aural, remain unexamined. The neglect of such emotional dimensions result from traditional, economic view of products as objects that can maximise utility. Utility is typically measured as some function of the product's tangible attributes. Hence the following three propositions are made. Emotional desires dominate utilitarian motives in the choice of products. There are contexts in which emotions such as love, jealousy and so on, override the consumer's economic decision rules. Consumers imbue a product with subjective meaning that supplements the concrete attributes it possesses. For many products, intangible symbolic attributes are key determinants of brand selection. Hedonic consumption acts are based not on what consumers know to be real, but on what they desire reality to be.

Product Classes. While traditional consumer research focuses on packaged goods and durables, the hedonic perspective focuses on performing and plastic arts and on culture products such as movies, music, concerts, fashion apparel, and so on. The divergence of product classes between hedonic and traditional consumer research mirrors the divergence in the theoretical philosophies underlying each discipline. Each has chosen products where a priori one might anticipate that the assumptions it advanced would most likely be found. Hedonic researchers have played strong suit by selecting emotion-laden and subjectively-experienced products.

Product Usage. Within traditional research, the most studied consumption activity is the decision process. While the hedonic perspective in no sense advocates a reduction of such research, it argues for increased attention to phenomena involved in product usage. The hedonic perspective includes the psychological experiences that accompany product usage. A dynamic interaction between products and consumers is important. For instance, the notion of imaginal-emotional effort allocation during product usage extends the traditional marketing focus on money expenditures.

Individual Differences. Much traditional marketing research has taken a post hoc approach to sources of interpersonal variance, in which consumers evincing certain behavioural patterns such as brand loyalty, low satisfaction and so on, are profiled according to some discriminating characteristics. However, a complementary orientation, more typical of hedonic research, employs an approach in which subcultural groups are defined a priori- before being compared on the basis of hedonic responses. Here, the central proposition is that individual differences in ethnic backgrounds, social class, and gender cause products to vary greatly in the emotions and fantasies they inspire in a consumer. The focus is on the social origins of variation in hedonic response and on the cultural sources of image, both of real and fantasy nature, that guide consumers in their adoption and image of products.

5. Holbrook and Hirshman (1982) compare the information and the experiential views from the perspectives of environmental inputs, intervening response systems, and output criteria.

Environmental Inputs. These are analyzed in terms of product, stimulus property and communication content.

Products. Much consumption research focused on tangible benefits of conventional goods that perform utilitarian functions based on relatively objective features (calories, fluoride, etc.). The experiential view however explores the symbolic meanings of more subjective characteristics (cheerfulness, sociability, elegance).

Stimulus Property. Traditional research concentrated on product attributes that lend themselves to verbal descriptions (conjoint, multi-attribute models). However, many products project important non-verbal cues that must be seen, heard, tasted, felt or smelled to be appreciated properly. Yet, scant research on nonverbal multi-sensory properties has been reported in the literature.

Communication Content. Content analysis in consumer research has more often focused on drawing inferences about the source of a message than on exploring its effects. The focus on effects attributable to the syntactical aspects of message content is more germane to the experiential perspective.

Consumer inputs. These are looked at in terms of resources, task definition, involvement type and search activity.

Resources. In examining the resources that a consumer brings to the exchange transaction, conventional research has focused on monetary income constraints and effects of prices. This has been expanded to include roles played by consumer's allocation of time resources to the household production function. The investigation of subjective time may help to unravel the mysteries of the psycho-temporal expenditures involved in experiential consumption. Studying discretionary time deserves high priority.

Task Definition. Both perspectives envision different kinds of consumption behaviour. The consumer as a problem solver engaged in goal-oriented activities -which Freud labelled secondary processes thinking- is contrasted to experiential consumption -primary processes thinking - involving a hedonic response.

Type of Involvement. The focus is not on the degree of involvement, but on the type of involvement (engagement of cognitive responses vs orientation reaction involving arousal). Difficulties point out that work on the physiological components of consumption remains in its

infancy and needs further conceptual and methodological developments in measures of arousal and hemispheric involvement.

Search Activity. Information processing adopts various strategies for the study of information acquisition while the experiential view drew on exploratory behaviour of Engel et al.'s (1995) stimulus ambiguity and arousal.

Individual Differences. For some time, the focus is on general consumer characteristics such as demographics and psychographics. Because the personality concept has a poor performance, life style is closer to the experiential perspective and includes consideration of time use. This offers a new scope for the revival of personality and allied variables which differ from those of information processing views. These include sensation seeking, creativity, religious view, etc.

Intervening Response System.

Cognition. In conventional research, the consumer's cognitive apparatus is viewed as a complex knowledge structure embodying intricately interwoven subsystems of beliefs referred to as "memory schemas". For Freud, it is a manifest content that is accessible to introspection. By contrast, the experiential perspective focuses on cognitive processes that are more subconscious and private in nature. Interest centers on consumption-related flights of fancy involving pictorial imagery, fantasies, and daydreams. In its treatment of cognitive phenomena, particularly material of a subconscious nature, the experiential view borders somewhat on motivation research. However there are two methodological differences.

- ° Much relevant fantasy life and many key symbolic meanings lie just below the threshold of consciousness- that is, they are subconscious or preconscious as opposed to unconscious.

- ° The use of structured projective techniques that employ quantifiable questionnaire items is advocated.

Affect. Traditional expectancy value model emphasises only one aspect of the experiential view, hedonic response- namely like or dislike (attitude) or its rank (preference) . This corresponds only to a tiny component of emotions and feelings of interest to the experiential view.

Behaviour. The traditional choice process culminates in actual behaviour. By focusing on consumption activities, the experiential perspective gives attention to the experiences with a product that one gains by actually consuming it. This constitutes a departure from the traditional positivist focus on an observable buying behaviour and focuses on the mental events surrounded by the acts of consumption. This deals with purely subjective aspects of consciousness.

Output Consequences, Criteria, and Learning.

Output Consequences and Criteria. From the information processing perspective the consequences of consumer choice are typically viewed in terms of the product's useful function: objects attain value primarily by virtue of the economic benefits they provide. For the experiential view, the consequences of consumption appear in the fun that a consumer derives from a product- the enjoyment that it offers and the resulting feeling that it evokes. In this generally neglected perspective, the criteria for successful consumption are essentially esthetic in nature and hinge on an appreciation of the product for its own sake, apart from any utilitarian function that it may or may not perform.

Learning. since Howard's et al.. (1992) feedback loop, learning is said to exert a strong impact on future components of the intervening response system. The traditional view of learning based on operant conditioning or instrumental learning holds that satisfaction with the purchase serves to reinforce future behavioural responses in the form of repeated purchases. Contiguity is another learning principle that depends on the frequency with which mental events have been paired in experience. The resulting patterns of association exhibit a form of respondent conditioning. When expanded to the experiential view, this contiguity principle suggests that sensations, imagery, feelings, pleasures and other symbolic hedonic components which are frequently paired together in experience tend to become mutually evocative, so that fantasy, dreams, and certain forms of play can be similarly construed as respondent consequences. This experiential component- the stream of associations that occur during consumption may be equally important experiential aspects of consumer behaviour.

6. Belk et al., also contend that there is little research about children's perception of consumption symbolism. They hypothesise that the tendency for children to make inferences based on others' consumption increases with age; that the extent of consumption based stereotyping will also increase

with age; and that the members of higher social classes should make stronger status inferences than members of lower social classes. Results reveal that the ability to recognise the social implications of consumption choices is minimal among preschoolers, significant by second grade, and almost fully developed by sixth grade. Taken as a whole, these findings indicate that consumption symbolism recognition develops during grade school.

7. According to Solomon 1983, symbolic interactionism focuses on the process by which individuals understand their world. It assumes that people interpret the actions of others rather than simply react to them. The elicited response is a function of the meaning attached to such actions which in turn, is mediated largely by symbols. A symbol may be regarded as a stimulus with a learned meaning and value. The person's response to the stimulus is in terms of this meaning and is not generally isomorphic with its effect upon the person's physical sense organs. Symbols acquire their meaning through the socialisation process that begins in childhood. Individuals with common history of acculturation should exhibit considerable overlap in their interpretation of symbolic meaning. Cultural symbols are vital to the interpretation of social reality; they allow the role player to assign meaning to the world. A role is a set of related meanings that direct the individual's behaviour in a social setting. Behaviour is made up largely of role playing. Role behaviour is facilitated or inhibited by the presence or absence of the material symbols (product cues) that have culturally been associated with a particular role. Given this overlap, individuals should be able to predict the behaviour of others. The degree to which one is committed to a social identity determines the power of that identity to influence behaviour. Identities that are central to the self have a greater probability of being invoked as a guide to appropriate behaviour.

8. According to Richins (1994a), possession value refers to value in use rather than to economic value and is defined as the extent to which an owner holds a possession to be dear, independent of exchange opportunities. Furthermore, an object value pertains to the consumption experiences associated with that object. A possession's value derives from its meaning. The first justification for product meaning as an important source of value comes from the inherent communicative power of possessions. Possessions play an important role in communicating information about their possessors and about social relationships. Possessions are part of an elaborate social communication system that makes visible and stable the categories of culture; consumers are active participants in this communication system, choosing and valuing possessions for their meaning within the cultural system. The second basis for relating meaning to value is the literature on personal identity, which describes the role possessions play in forming and reflecting the self.

9. According to Richins (1994a), because private meanings are based in part on shared meanings, it is likely that some similarities will exist among the private meanings ascribed to an object by different possessors. They are also likely to differ in their spheres of influence. Because of the consensual nature of public meanings, they influence the kinds of possessions that people choose to communicate aspects of themselves to others. Public meanings are also likely to have an important influence in shaping desires, in determining the types of things people hope to acquire. Private meanings on the other hand are more important in determining consumers' feelings about the things they already possess.

10. According to Richins (1994a), two points are relevant in considering the sources of meaning described above. First, a particular source can influence both public and private meanings. Second, for any particular possession several or even all of the meaning dimensions mentioned above may influence its value. A leather briefcase, for example, might be valued because it is relied upon to transport documents in an efficient manner (utilitarian value), because it was a graduation present from an admired aunt (representing an interpersonal tie), and because its stylish design and good workmanship help create and project the possessor's desired image of polished efficiency (identity and self-expression).

11. Richins (1994a) proposed a multi-Stage approach to Meaning. Self reports of product meaning ignored the role of public meanings, and are subject to social desirability. Two studies are conducted to investigate private and public meanings. Study one identified the private meanings of possessions

to consumers by means of unstructured questions to elicit private meanings. Respondents were asked to think about a possession that was important to them and describe how and when they acquired the possession and why it was important to them. Content analysis of the reasons for value given by respondents was used to explicate private meanings. The content yielded four major categories of meaning: utilitarian value, enjoyment, interpersonal ties and identity/self expression. Additional categories relating to the financial aspects and possession appearance emerged. Respondents usually provided multiple reasons for valuing their possessions. While some noted that the object possessed beauties that were personally appealing, many tied the possession's appearance to themselves in some way, reporting that, in essence, having an attractive object made them feel better about their own appearance to other people. For several subjects, audience reaction to their possession's appearance was clearly an important dimension of meaning, and this sense of appearance goes beyond the conventional notion of esthetics. Study two is designed to assess shared public meanings as they relate to sources of value. The valued possessions generated in the previous study were used as stimuli. Participants were given a deck of cards to sort, with each listing one of the possessions, on the basis of the similarity of reasons why they were deemed important. Incidence matrices were created with one indicating that two possessions had been placed in the same group and zero if not. They were summed across subjects, which yielded an overall similarity matrix. The matrix was analysed by means of Multiple Dimensional Scaling yielding a three dimensional solution which explained 93.7% of the variance. The first is a symbolic dimension that represents the self or attachment to others on the positive pole and instrumental and practical objects on the negative pole. The second dimension forms a status-based continuum, with high prestige items at the positive pole and ordinary ones at the negative. Dimension three ranged from necessities to recreational items. In addition to examining private and public meanings in isolation, it is useful to look at the similarities and differences in these two sources of meaning. The correspondence between private and public meanings was examined by generating a cross-tabulation for the two meaning types. The table reveals some differences. First, some elements of meaning were present in either but not in both: financial and appearance meanings were revealed in content but not in MDS; conversely, status value was present in public but not in private. Second, private meanings revealed in the content analysis appear to be more nuanced than the public meanings derived from MDS. For example, necessity meanings of MDS do not distinguish between meanings derived from practical form of utility or pleasure-based meanings. Third, the idiosyncratic nature of private meanings is revealed for different products. For example, enjoyment is obtained not only from recreational possessions but also, from necessities such as one's home and from status objects. On the whole, public and private meanings are distinct but related entities. The public meaning of an object result from socialisation and participation in shared activities; private meanings consist of these public meanings shaped by the private knowledge and experiences of the possessor to the particular object he/she owns. Although the distinction between public and private meanings has been made in some conceptual studies, practical studies have generally failed to distinguish between them, and it is not always clear to which meaning an author is referring when a possession meaning is studied. Because the two types of meaning have different sources and different spheres of influence, it is appropriate that consumer behaviour scholars clearly discriminate between them.

12. Characterisation of meaning is analysed in two ways: (1) by examining the nature of the objects significant to materialists; (2) by examining both the (private) meanings the possessions have for their owners and the (public) meanings they have for others (Richins 1994a). H1: consumers with different levels of materialism value different types of possessions. Compared to the possessions valued by consumers low in materialism, possessions valued by high-materialism consumers: tend to be publicly (rather than privately) consumed; are more expensive; and are less likely to be associated with significant others. H2: private meanings of possessions valued by high-materialism consumers (as compared to those valued by low materialism consumers) are: less likely to concern the possession's role in representing or facilitating interpersonal ties; and more likely to relate to the financial worth of the possession. H3: the public meaning of possessions valued by high materialism consumers (as compared to those valued by low-materialism consumers) are more likely to refer to success or prestige.

13. The question addressed in the study by Richins (1994b) is whether such socially construed stereotypes exist for materialism. If hypothesis one is true, low and high materialism consumers will hold dear different kinds of goods consistent with their materialism values. According to the literature, observers will be able to judge the materialism level of others by knowing something about the possessions they value, which leads to hypothesis four: the possessions valued by those low in materialism and those high in materialism will be consistent with socially constructed stereotypes of non-materialistic and materialistic consumers respectively. Study one aimed at determining whether the type of possessions significant to consumers and the private meanings of these objects express their owner's material values. Respondents were asked to list their most important possessions and explain why each is important to them. Materialism was measured by the Richins and Dawson Materialism Scale. Two judges independently classified the respondents' possessions in terms of social visibility and revealed: private (album), home-available to guests (living and dining room, kitchen) displayed publicly (clothes, jewelry). Private meanings of possessions were assessed by content analysis and revealed the same categories as Richins (1994a). Results reveal that possessions valued by low-materialism respondents were more likely to be those used privately or visible only to guests at home; valued possessions of those high in materialism were more likely to be objects worn or used in public places. High materialism respondents' possessions are less likely to choose recreational items, more likely to choose assets and appearance related possessions. Besides, high materialism consumers are less likely to mention interpersonal ties and more frequently refer to financial worth. In study two, subjects were told that people had mentioned possessions as important and asked to sort them into piles in terms of similarity of reasons why they were valued. Each subject's grouping was turned into an incidence matrix, then into a similarity matrix submitted to MDS. The same three categories as before emerged (Richins, 1994a). A fourth dimension not observed before was also revealed; it appears to represent accomplishment-based value; possessions representing achievement have positive values, while received possessions are at the negative end of the dimension.

14. Like any other species of material culture, goods allow individuals to discriminate visually among culturally specified categories in the form of a set of material distinctions. Categories of person divided into age sex, class and occupation can be represented in a set of material distinctions by means of goods. Advertising and fashion are instruments of meaning transfer.

Advertising. It works as a potential method of meaning transfer by bringing the consumer good and a representation of the culturally constituted world together within the frame of a particular advertisement. Advertising conjoins the two elements in such a way that the viewer/reader glimpses an essential similarity between them. The known property of the culturally constituted world thus comes to reside in the unknown properties of the consumer good and the transfer of meaning from world to good is accomplished. The viewer/reader is an essential participant in the process of meaning transfer. S/he is the final author in the process. It is left to her/him to see similarity and effect the transfer of meaningful property.

The Fashion System. It serves as a means by which goods are systematically invested and divested of meaningful properties. The fashion system works in three distinct ways to transfer meaning to goods.

a- *conjoin aspects of world and good and the same process of glimpsed similarity is sought after.* In this capacity, the fashion system takes new styles of clothing or home furnishings and associates them with established cultural categories and principles, moving meaning from the culturally constituted world to the consumer good. This is the simplest aspect of the meaning delivery capacity of the fashion system.

b- *invents new cultural meanings in a modest way.* The invention is undertaken by opinion leaders who help shape and refine existing cultural categories and principles. They are sources of meaning for individuals of lesser standing.

c- *radical reform of cultural meaning.* Groups responsible are those existing at the margins of society. Such innovative groups represent a departure from the culturally constituted convention and redefine cultural categories as age and status (hippies, punks). The second category of agents consists of fashion journalists and social observers (study documents on new social development: example, market researchers). Journalists play the role of gate-keepers and state whether innovation is important or trivial. When they have identified genuine innovations, product designers begin the task

of drawing meaning into the mainstream and investing it in consumer goods. The designer, like agency director, depends on the consumer to supply the final act of association, the meaning transfer from world to object. It is thanks to them that the objects of our world carry such a richness, variety, and versatility of meaning and can serve people so variously in acts of self-definition and social communication.

15. In North America, four types of ritual are used to serve this purpose; exchange, possession, grooming, and divestment rituals.

Exchange Ritual. In the case of gifts, the giver chooses a gift because it possesses the meaningful properties he/she wishes to see transferred to the gift receiver. Thus a woman who receives a particular kind of dress is also made the recipient of a particular concept of herself as a woman- the giver invites the recipient to define herself in its terms.

Possession Ritual. Consumers spend a good deal of time cleaning, discussing, comparing, reflecting, showing off, and even photographing many of their possessions. Claiming is an attempt to draw from the object the qualities that it has been given by the marketing forces to the world of goods. This process is most conspicuous when it fails to take place.. "This never really seemed to belong to me". The good becomes a paradox: the consumer owns it without possessing it.

Grooming Rituals. Some of the cultural meaning drawn from goods has a perishable nature. The consumer must draw cultural meaning out of his /her possessions on a repeated basis. "The going out" ritual with which one prepares for an evening out are examples of this process. Sometimes, not the consumer, but the good is groomed. This occurs when the consumer cultivates the meaningful properties in the object rather than coaxing out the properties in him/herself. In the case of the automobile, the grooming ritual surcharges the object so that it, in turn, may transfer special heightened properties to an owner. In grooming rituals, the meaning moves from good to the consumer. Grooming rituals help draw cultural meaning out of these goods and invest it in the consumer.

Divestment Ritual. Individuals who draw meaning out of goods come to view these meaning sources in personal items, associating goods with their own personal properties. The possible confusion between consumer and good encourages the use of divestment ritual to erase meaning associated with previous owner (cleaning, redecorating, dispensing with the good, etc..). Goods must be emptied of meaning before being passed along and cleared of meaning when taken on.

16. According to Dickson et al. (1983), whether ranking represents priority patterns or merely frequencies of ownership without schema is assessed through Green's index of reproducibility; it measures how successful the Guttman scale is reproducing the individual's ownership of the durables, given knowledge only on an individual's scale score (1= perfect reproducibility, 0= perfect non-reproducibility). To assess this, expected reproducibility coefficient is calculated and compared through Student's t, to the former coefficient.

PART II

CONCEPTUALIZATIONS

Chapter 6

Role Orientations and Purchasing Behaviour

Role Orientations and Purchasing Behaviour

Consumer researchers underlined the importance of demographics such as employment status, age, life cycle, income, education, and so forth in analysing purchasing behaviour. Since the present study is on role orientations, I propose to focus on the concept of employment status, particularly that of women.

WORKING STATUS AND PRODUCT OWNERSHIP

The accelerated entrance of women into the labour force fosters the obvious distinction between working and non-working wives, with the expectation that they consume differently as a result of time constraint, job related purchases, and so forth (Weinberg and Winer 1983; Bryant 1988; Bellante and Foster 1984; Rubin et al. 1990; Oropesa 1993). Two alternative theories have influenced this stream of research. The economic theory and the economics of household production theory.

The Economic Theory

It suggests that working wives (WW) and non-working wives (NWW) with the same total amount of income differ with respect to purchases of time saving goods and services. Because WW spend more time working outside the home than the NWW, WW tend more often than NWW ones to substitute time saving goods for home production and household activities. Therefore durable expenditures rise with wives's employment. The hypothesis here is that services of durable goods replace labour in the household. This theory is supported by the permanent income hypothesis which rests on the assumption that a high proportion of wives' earnings is transitory and is therefore saved (Bryant 1988). Durables expenditure is a form of savings. Consequently, durable expenditures from wives' earnings are higher than those expenditures from other income components (Bryant).

The Economics of Household Production Theory

It assumes that durable purchasing and wives' home time are complements in household activities, not substitutes as stipulated by the economic theory. This implies that if wives devote more time to paid employment, the demand for wives' time spent on household activities and the family's demand for durable goods will decline. Thus WW have less time and possibly less interest in consumption and

durables administration than NWW counterparts. Therefore, they will purchase fewer “wife-operated and maintained” machines (Bryant 1988).

Previous research in the field supports neither the economics of household production nor the economic theory (Weinberg and Winer 1983; Bryant 1988; Bellante and Foster 1984). Weinberg and Winer (1983) investigate the effect of wife’s employment on durables purchasing. Wife’s employment is not significantly related to the purchase of each of the five time-saving durables - dish washers, dryers, refrigerators, stoves, washers - taken separately or as a group. In the other durables categories such as colour TV, furniture, hobby and recreation items, working status is significantly related only to the purchase of furniture. So, the authors conclude that the participation of the wife in the labour force appears to have no significant impact on the purchase of time-saving durables.

Rubin et al. (1990) analyse the impact of income and the wife’s work status on household expenditure over time. Overall, the expenditure data indicate that expenditure patterns have a fairly high degree of consistency among different types of households, income levels and over time, by comparing 1973 to 1984 data. On the one hand, it is notable that the wife’s work status is significant for only a limited number of expenditure categories and only for the two lower income household categories. On the other hand, the importance of the wife’s work status to household expenditures appears to have declined over time, even at lower income levels. According to the authors, this appears to indicate that expenditure patterns of households are converging regardless of the wife’s work status. This is why consumer behaviour researchers propose to go beyond demographics for a proper understanding of family consumption behaviour.

BEYOND THE EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Oropesa (1993) notes that previous research fails to demonstrate clearly the effect of the employment status of women on ownership of time saving household technology (microwave). According to the author, the reasons why there is no effect or there is an indirect effect is that some of these studies do not take into account the following considerations. The investigation of the relation deals with earlier stages of the product adoption process; the subjects considered are not innovators. In this case even if the women are employed, they may not be owners of time saving products,

because they may not be innovators. Moreover, the relation between employment and ownership changes over time. When prices are at their peak, income may intervene as a significant variable; in this case, the relation between ownership and employment is indirect. Later on, a direct relation between the variables is appropriate. Hence, employment status is a dynamic process. A woman who is now unemployed may have bought the product when she was employed. This is why the nature of employment status and duration and time of purchase shall be defined.

The author devises an analytic plan that takes into consideration the dynamic nature of the marketplace and of female labour participation. Ownership of a microwave is regressed on female labour participation measured on a five-level variable reflecting employment status, on income, and on other family and socio-economic variables such as age of younger child, pre-school children, household size, region, etc. The model is significant on the whole. On the one hand, full employment status and at a lower degree self-employment status make the largest contribution to microwave ownership. On the other hand, by taking the year of surveying into account, recent years witness the disappearance of employment effect on microwave ownership.

These results have led some researchers to conclude that the wife's work status per se is not a useful or practical predictor of consumption behaviour. More complex classification schemes may produce meaningful and practical differences. According to Schaninger et al. (1993), major segmentation schemes which categorise wives according to some operationalisation of work involvement such as the simple working non-working dichotomy, the level of workforce participation, the number of hours of paid work, and the part versus full time working status, fail to uncover consumption differences between career versus income oriented women and monetarily versus non-monetarily motivated women. Neither working nor non-working wives shall be treated as homogeneous segments. The classification of the female working population into "career" versus "just-a-job" and non-working into "plan to work" versus "stay at home" outperforms previous schemes. Career wives are more sex-role modern and more self-fulfillment oriented, hold less traditional values, and feel stronger work and time pressures than all of the other Bartos categories. Consequently, they are expected to consume differently. Employment per

se is not significant, but motivational considerations are more important factors in understanding consumer behaviour.

Not only does the woman's employment depend on her investment in the job, but also on the ideology of the couple that manages the woman's employment. Hood (1986) contends that it is important to distinguish between the enactment of the role (who does the specific task, i.e. behaviour) and the responsibility for its enactment (who is responsible for providing and is recognised as such, i.e. attitude). These dimensions are more accurately dealt with in terms of attitudes and behaviour, rather than in terms of status alone. These will be covered by the role orientations concepts.

ROLE RELATED CONCEPTS

Because the role orientation is multifaceted, such concepts as role, values, and norms will be looked at before dealing with the role conceptualisations proper.

Role

Role is a more or less homogeneous set of behaviour patterns which are normatively defined and expected of an occupant in a social position (Araji 1977). Each individual has a position set, which consists of all positions occupied by that individual across social institutions. A position can be defined as the behaviour expected of an institutional member. The behaviour of an incumbent in a position is defined as that individual's role enactment. Different individuals enact the same positions differently because differences exist even in the role enactment of positions with rigidly defined role expectations (Reilly 1982). Role expectations comprise the rights and privileges, the duties and obligations, of any occupant of a social position in relation to persons occupying other positions in the social structure (Schewe 1973). The sources of these expectations are numerous: society at large, similar role others, i.e. people enacting the same role as the incumbent, reciprocal role others, i.e. people enacting reciprocal roles, and the incumbent himself. The contents of these expectations may be behavioural, attitudinal, and cognitive (Thornton and Nardi 1975).

Values and Norms

Values are beliefs that have been internalised by the individual and norms are beliefs held by the consensus of a group concerning the behaviour rules for individual members or the obligations to behave in particular ways (Engel et al.

1995). Rockeach (1973) defines a value as an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to a converse mode of conduct or end state of existence. He develops a value system where a dichotomy between “terminal values” or desirable conditions or ends, and “instrumental values” or desirable modes of attainment is made. According to him, a value system is an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end states of existence along a continuum of relative importance (Rockeach, p.5).¹ Usually, the value and norm concepts are used along with culture hence giving such concepts as cultural values and norms. These are values and norms that are related to a culture or a society and that are learned through socialisation, i.e. a process of absorbing values and norms in the society (as by learning, imitation, observation) and through acculturation, i.e. a process of transfer between different societies or cultures (as by influence, indoctrination, or colonisation). Culture includes both abstract and material elements. Abstract elements include values, attitudes, personality types, and summary concepts such as religion. Material elements of culture such as knowledge, arts, etc. are described as cultural artifacts or the material manifestation of culture, thereby restricting the use of culture to abstract elements. Not all individuals hold the same values, and the further you are from being the typical middle class or mainstream person, the more likely you are to hold values at variance with some of these (Engel et al. 1995).

Role Orientations

The Role Orientations concept is often left undefined in the literature, but it is generally based on one of the three following interpretations (Qualls 1982). The “sexual gender” approach holds that men, because of their physical stature and status position in societies, hold a dominant position while women hold a subordinate position. This approach is similar to the sociological concept of “sex stratification” and “gender differentiation”. The “division of labour” perspective holds that the female role is perceived to fall somewhere on an equality-inequality continuum. Sex role equality occurs when females are accepted in the labour force. Conversely, the belief that women’s place is in the home is associated with the inequality end of the continuum. The “sex-role orientation” approach (referred to as “sex-role preference” and “gender norms”) is defined as a person’s evaluation of a behaviour with respect

to values, opinions, cultural beliefs, and behavioural standards which are based on the division of labour (Qualls 1982, 1983).

Brogan and Kutnar (1976) suggest a distinction between sex-role preference, sex-role adoption and sex-role identity. Sex role preference is defined as the activities or traits an individual will engage in or possess. Sex role adoption is defined as the activities or traits actually manifested by an individual. Sex role identity is a more complex concept including both cognitive and affective factors reflecting both self-evaluation and evaluation of others to one's adequacy as a male or a female. Sex role identity refers to normative prescriptions for or conceptions of the appropriate behaviour of males or females. Buss and Schaninger (1983) define sex role norms as values and norms, both instrumental and terminal, which are related to the duties and responsibilities of each sex.

Because the Sex Role Orientation concept is laden with gender considerations, the term life-style norm is usually used to describe preferred modes of behaviour and roles other than those related to sex (Buss and Schaninger 1983). The authors propose, however, the use of role orientations. Role orientations are values and norms about role expectations. Role expectations comprise the rights and privileges, the duties and obligations, of any occupant of a social position in relation to persons occupying other positions in the social structure. The content of these expectations can be behavioural, attitudinal and cognitive (Thornton and Nardi 1975). Given changing social structures and varying environmental conditions, a certain degree of role attitude behaviour discrepancy will occur; the degree of discrepancy will be associated with roles that are not clearly defined as belonging to either husband's or wives' positions, or that are both (Hood 1986). Hence, role ambiguities will exist until some suitable patterns are worked out between the couple. Men's and women's attitudes towards women's roles at home and in the work force directly influence the distribution of labour (Hardesty and Bokemeier 1989).

Because of eventual attitude-behaviour discrepancies, the above authors propose two different, although interrelated, concepts of role orientations: role ideology (RI), and role performance (RP) which will be dealt with hereafter. The importance of role orientations stems from the fact that they are central to family

decision making and to consumer behaviour. These norms should influence both consumption priorities and purchase processes and preferences (Qualls 1982, 1983, 1987). Different sex-role norms lead to different task allocations, purchase responsibilities, and marital outcomes. Among other factors, they are influenced by demographics and are defined by a shift towards more joint role sharing and more egalitarian views of task sharing and life style values (Buss and Schaninger 1983).

ROLE IDEOLOGY

In recent years, there has been evidence of changes in sex or gender norms: the family relation has moved from “traditional arrangements” whereby the wife complements the husband who is the head of the family to “symmetrical” or “egalitarian” or “interchangeable” arrangements (Scanzoni 1977). According to Scanzoni, ongoing changes in sex-roles make the formerly long-standing consensus about spousal roles less spontaneous, more problematic and less common. Bargaining becomes necessary to organise the participant’s rights and duties. Freshly negotiated arrangements are introducing a whole series of specific decision making processes into the marriages that were simply not there before and duties which used to be women’s domain are now open to negotiation (Scanzoni 1977). This may signal a new configuration of power within families as women press for more equal partnership in family decision making, the disposition of family resources and the division of domestic labour (Davis and Robinson 1991).

An overall change in role orientations for both men and women is evident, but this change is more significant for women than for men (Mc Broom 1987). This change is particularly significant for younger wives who define work in the same way as men. It is a means to earn money, prestige, esteem, independence and autonomy (Scanzoni 1977). Contemporary society is redefining the role of women in a way that young women play the role of wife and mother but not necessarily in the traditional sense of being subject to the husband or by following a prescribed pattern of home oriented behaviour regardless of individual abilities and interests. Many are opting for more egalitarian sex roles ² that stress similar behaviour for men and women and allow actualisation of potentials for both sexes (Reynolds et al. 1977).

According to Bielby and Bielby (1989), these fundamental changes may not only have direct connections to labour markets, but also to a cultural consensus about women's identity.³ Women are moving toward attaching greater importance to their own characteristics in their identification processes. Particularly, working wives who used to borrow class identification from their husbands declare that their work experience is a core part of such an identification: they shift away from a *borrowing model* whereby only the spouse's characteristics are taken into account to a *sharing model* whereby equal weights are attributed to both spouses' characteristics (Davis and Robinson 1988). A separate identity is essential if a woman is to pursue social activity and to cope with the demands of the workplace. She has to reshape traditional role expectations in response to changes in modern community by using opportune situations as they arise (Williams 1988).

Consistently with these views, Harper-Simpson et al. 's study (1988) aims at verifying whether class identification processes are the same or not for working and non working women. He proposes that a *family model* whereby identification based on husbands' statuses applies to non-working wives but not to working wives who tend to take into account both their own autonomous statuses as well as their husbands'. The underlying hypothesis of the above authors is that an *autonomous model* which applies to men may apply to working women. But this is not the case because, on the one hand, women share family resources with men who continue to be assigned a quasi-legal role of head of the household, and on the other hand, women's work experiences differ from that of men. Work place variables differ for men and women in a way that class identification for men is more crystallised around the work place than for women (Harper-Simpson et al. 1988).

Role Ideology and Status

If modern female orientation is synonymous with working status, the identification and the understanding of diverse populations as consumer segments will be easy. However, the notion of the modern female is not just the working female. Role ideology is found to be a better predictor of differences between women who prefer traditional orientation and women who prefer modern orientation (Reynolds et al. 1977). Life style, a construct more or less similar to role ideology, is used as a basis for categorising women into three distinct groups: traditional,

egalitarian and modern. Significant differences were found between the modern and the traditional within working and non-working groups (Reynolds et al.). Both working and non-working traditional women tend to agree more with assigning women to traditional roles. Egalitarian females are less inclined to enjoy housekeeping tasks, the socially “undervalued” aspect of homemaking and are more inclined to avoid them than the traditional women. Many housekeeping views are moderated by employment status. For instance, the traditionally oriented working wife is more likely than her non-working counterpart to say “meal preparation should take little time” while the modern non-worker is much more apt to follow routine housework than the modern working wife (Reynolds et al. 1977).

A comparison of working wives across French and US samples, matched in terms of age, occupation, and number of children, reveals that the major dimension differentiating working (WW) and non-working wives (NW) are their attitudes towards the homemaking role (Green and Cunningham 1975). WW are more self-confident and outgoing than non-working wives. Attitudes and life-style patterns among working wives are also examined and reveal the existence of two highly similar subgroups among working wives in each country. One is a “liberated” group who thinks women shall have equal status to men, and that a woman’s role shall not be confined to homemaking. The other is a group of “traditionalists” who have a conservative outlook about women’s role and are oriented towards the home (Green and Cunningham).

The pattern of authority between husbands and wives and the emphasis given to their obligations at home versus public spheres have become an important area of investigation for sociologists. On the basis of work and family dimensions, four patterns of behaviour among women stand out (Hall 1987).

The reluctant dependent accepts her husband’s position as the authority figure in the home who wants her to work and earn money but who also expects her to maintain a traditional role as homemaker and mother. Though unhappy, she does not complain about her life.

The semi-independent/family oriented has more or less a well defined sense of personal worth and is less dependent on her husband. She emphasises independence by contrasting her life to her parents’. The strain her role causes her

reflects a struggle to maintain her identity as a career woman along with her identity as a wife and a mother. The family however takes precedence over public activities and tensions often arise because of lack of time and financial resources. The women's and the husbands' expectations are congruent, but women still feel bad about the "unfairness" of engaging in a role making process where coping with the "super-mom" expectations is a must - something their mothers and grand-mothers never had to face.

The semi independent/career oriented is more committed to her career and is somewhat less committed to being a home-maker than the previous one. Many intend to continue their education so as to achieve occupational goals. Although they gain a strong sense of personal and social identity from their work, they nevertheless consider their husbands' careers as more important than their own.

The independent with constraints is uncommon; she considers her career more important than her husband's but avoids emphasizing monetary success or professional achievements in comparison with her husband because this makes him feel threatened.

Role Ideology as Reflective of Social Character

Role ideology can be dealt with in terms of an attitude rooted into the social character itself and the society in which the individual lives. According to Schewe (1973), human beings can be grouped into three major types of social character: tradition-directed, inner-directed, and other directed individuals. His thesis is that each society shows one of the three types depending upon its particular phase, enforces conformity and molds social character in definably different ways.⁴

Tradition-directed society is characterized by general slowness of change, dependence on family ties, low social mobility, and rigid values structures. The important relationships in life are controlled and made stable by intensive socialization of the young by their extended family. In this society, conformity is maintained by the fear of shame.

Inner-directed society is characterized by increased social mobility, less security for the individual, rapid accumulation of capital, industrialisation, and almost constant expansion. The "source of direction for the individual is 'inner' in the sense that it is implanted early in life by the elders and directed toward

generalised but nonetheless inescapably destined goals”(Schewe 1973, p.37). The inner-directed individual has a feeling of control over his life and sees his goal as striving for a career. While s/he seems independent, s/he is actually guided by an “internal gyroscope” based upon the values and principles acquired from his/her parents. Riches are assembled and consumption is conspicuous, but as a sign of success rather than for pleasure. In this society, conformity of behaviour is maintained through the fear of guilt.

Other-directed society finds a world of social mobility and mechanisation such that production is no longer a problem. In this world of abundance, the individual is taught to be a consumer rather than a producer. Other-directed persons behave according to the expectations and preferences of their contemporaries. In this society, the peer group rather than the family provides guidance for both children and parents. The primary pressure for conformity in this society is the anxiety created by what others think of the individual. ⁵

Role Ideology and Product Ownership

Because of its insistence on motivations, beliefs and perceptions, Role Ideology is deemed superior to the simple categorisation of working/non-working in revealing differences in consumer preferences and purchasing processes characteristics. According to Schaninger et al. (1993), the major segmentation schemes which have categorised wives according to some operationalisation of work involvement such as the simple working-non-working dichotomy, the level of workforce participation, and the part versus full time working wives fail to uncover consumption differences. The authors contend that neither working nor non-working wives shall be treated as homogeneous segments. Clear differences emerge between “plan-to-work” and “stay-at-home” wives, as well as between “career” and “just-a-job” wives, with regard to underlying sex-role norms and values. In particular, differences between the two working wife categories suggest that they be treated as different segments with different marketing mixes.

Role Ideology is similar to Araji’s (1977) role attitude, i.e. an attitude surrounded by certain role proscriptions and prescriptions which predispose the individual to act in one way rather than another. To a certain extent, it is similar to Brogan and Kutnar’s (1976) concept of role identity which reflects both self-

evaluation and evaluation of others to one's adequacy as a spouse (rather than as a male or a female as suggested by Brogan and Kutnar 1976).

Following previous research findings (Qualls 1982, 1983; Green and Cunningham 1975; and Rosan and Granbois 1983), I contend that contemporary men and women exhibit conservative, moderate and liberal ideologies about their appropriate roles. Particularly, sex-role traditionalists (SRT) exhibit attitudes and behaviour patterns consistent with past conceptions of male provider and female housekeeper role. Sex-role moderns (SRM) are identified by their more egalitarian role perceptions and behaviour patterns. Spouses in this group tend to share task performance on a more egalitarian basis.

In perceiving family roles as an interdependent system of activities (Araji 1977), the redistribution of roles may have some impact on purchasing role configuration and consumption behaviour. For instance SRM women and particularly career-oriented ones will be very active in the purchasing process and will be highly involved in acquiring products that are congruent with their self-image.⁷

ROLE PERFORMANCE

Role performance refers to the actual role enactment of an incumbent in a family position. These are normally reflective of role ideology. But because of persistent discrepancies between prescriptive beliefs about role enactment and behaviour (Hood 1986), it is necessary to go beyond attitudes and investigate actual behaviour of the couple (White 1983). The roles of husbands and wives and the roles of fathers and mothers are subject to changes. Some of the changes that are occurring is a tendency towards role interchangeability (Scanzoni 1977) and a shift from traditional sex-roles to a blurring of sex-roles (Engel et al. 1995). As the family is an interdependent system of role relationships, a change in one spouse's role shall be related to some change in the other spouse's role (Araji 1977). Interaction between husbands and wives in coping with their roles leads not only to role taking thereby sustaining some conformity to other's expectations but also to role making which involves an active remaking and reshaping of roles (Williams 1988).

As the individual moves through the various stages of the role acquisition process, i.e. the anticipatory, the formal, the informal, and the personal stages, he starts shaping his role to fit himself. The anticipatory stage is a period prior to

incumbency during which a very generalised and stereotyped conception of roles is found. During the formal stage, the individual in a position shifts from viewing a role from outside to viewing it from inside. During the informal stage, there tends to be less consensus among the various expectations than in the prior stages. During the personal stage, the individual cannot be ignored; the person and the social structure are linked and the linkage can only be understood in terms of the mutual transformation of person and role (Thornton and Nardi 1975).

Multiple Role Obligations of Men and Women

Since families must obtain resources from the economy through occupational roles, the characteristics and demands of occupations may influence internal family interaction (Clark et al. 1978). Women are found to adjust their work identity to accommodate their family identity and not vice versa. They balance work and family identities in a way that gives causal priority to identification with family roles. As for men, they make no such trade-off (Bielby and Bielby 1989). Work place variables differ for men and women in a way that class identification for men is more crystallised around the work place than for women. Working wives borrow class identification from their husbands, but their own work experience is also a core part of such an identification (Harper-Simpson et al. 1988).

Research findings on the distribution of husbands' and wives' commitments to work and family are conflictual. While some researchers confirm some change in role enactment and household role distribution (Clark et al. 1978; Barnett and Baruch 1987), others confirm that there are no such changes (Bernardo et al. 1987; Maret and Finlay 1984). Some studies suggest there is a decline in the amount of time spent by employed women in housework with a tendency towards role interchangeability. However, in comparison with their spouses, women continue to bear primary responsibility for homemaking, regardless of their employment status or the presence of children in the home. They still spend considerable energy in homemaking activities (Kibria 1990).

Interest in fathers' participation in child-care and household chores has been ignited by the massive entry of women, especially married women with children, into the labour force, and by mounting evidence that fathers play an important role in their children's socialisation (Barnett and Baruch 1987). In particular, people in

professional positions generally feel the pressures to offer their wives active support in the form of reduced household responsibilities (Berardo et al. 1987). Husbands' participation is found to be linked more to women's attitudes and needs than to structural family variables. High parental participation is unlikely to occur for men unless there is approval from significant others (Barnett and Baruch 1987). On the whole, the distribution of roles within the home to match the increased sharing of instrumental roles has apparently not yet occurred (Araji 1977; Berardo et al. 1987). Roles known as the province of the wife remain as traditional as ever, though there is a greater acceptance for the participation of women in the provider role (Albrecht et al. 1979). There is no unitary trend with respect to attitude and behaviour. Whether there has been a "liberalisation" of role definition or "democratization" of role enactment depends upon the specific role or attitude which is considered (Albrecht et al. 1979).

Role Performance/Role Ideology

Previous research reveals the complexities married men and women face in working out suitable role behaviour patterns that are consistent with husbands' and wives' attitudes (Araji 1977). Understanding of time use in the family role system requires research on the allocation of time to multiple sectors and the place of individuals' preference structures in this process. Negative outcomes of husband's involvement are likely only when work-involved husbands give low priority to marital roles and wives expect their husbands to participate extensively in marital roles (Clark et al. 1978). The more traditional the attitude, the more the wives are expected to have sole responsibility for domestic tasks (Maret and Finlay 1984). When discrepancies between role attitude and role behaviour occur, role behaviour tends to correspond to traditional patterns. Attitudes and behaviour patterns may be moving in the direction of egalitarianism, but behaviour patterns do not always correspond to attitudes (Araji 1977).

Neither the scarcity view whereby the individual is located along a dimension of commitment to work and family nor the multiplicity view whereby individuals are able to form strong commitments to work and family and are almost infinitely capable of sustaining numerous obligations, is capable of explaining how men and women distribute commitments to work and family. Behaviour patterns are shaped

by a sex-role division of labour and the values placed on these behaviour patterns are prescribed by sex-role norms (Bielby and Bielby 1989). Societal norms influence the exchange value of specific resources. Contribution to resources enhances egalitarianism in husbands' and wives' commitments (Maret and Finlay 1984).

However, resources such as income and job status may work differently for wives than for husbands. If men's traditional role has been to promote financial security, women's role has been to provide emotional nurture. Whereas income and job prestige are central to husband/father breadwinner role, they are certainly less important if not inconsistent with the woman's role as wife and mother. To the extent that the capacity to generate income is more highly valued than the capacity to nurture, a great emphasis is put on the husband's/father's breadwinner role, and the occupational, educational, and income statuses are positively associated with husband's power (Steil and Weltman 1991).

Some researchers view the distribution of labour as resulting from the economic mode of production and manifestation of the oppression of women. The difference in men's and women's relationship to the occupational structure consistently confines women to subservient, unrewarding, and lower paid jobs that reinforce their dependence on men. The relation of dominance and dependence promotes a cultural norm that operates to reduce the wife's power in marriage, permits the exploitation of her household labour and justifies the inequitable distribution of household labour. In this cultural context, it is not viewed as the responsibility of men to engage in housekeeping tasks (Curtis 1986).

So, distribution of housework is not dependent on resources alone, but hinges on the cultural norms that stem from the patriarchal control of such resources. Men's and women's attitudes towards women's roles at home and in the work force directly influence the distribution of labour. Attitudes act as moderating the effects of resources on the division of housework. Attitudes that reflect adherence to patriarchal cultural norms promoting gender inequality are examined as moderating factors between resources and household labour. Investigations about the effect of women's employment on the division of labour reveal no significant relationships. This means that when women work outside the home, their husbands are not significantly more likely to contribute to housework. However, there are substantial indirect effects

through husbands' and especially women's work role attitudes (Hardesty and Bokemeier 1989).

The Provider Versus the Housekeeper Roles

According to Hood (1986) family sociologists have produced voluminous literature on the changes in the division of household responsibility that may accompany the women's entrance into the labour market. The underlying assumption is that the provider role is the reciprocal of housewife-mother role, and therefore, changes in the allocation of provider role responsibilities are closely related to changes in the allocation of other household responsibilities. Since the 1970's, the husband-as-economic-provider (HEP) dream has become less and less approachable in most families. However, the enactment of the provider role has not always been linked to the recognition that shall go with it. Because women and children traditionally "belong" to man, their labour is his labour. But as market work becomes separate from family work, the house-wife-mother-role (HWMR) has become the reciprocal of the husband-as-economic-provider-role (HEPR). When speaking of the provider role, it is important to distinguish between the enactment of the role (who does the required task?) and the responsibility for its enactment (who is responsible for providing and is recognised as provider?). It is only when the economic support for the family ceases to be the primary responsibility for the man that such roles as housekeeping and child-care cease to be the primary responsibility for the woman.

However, research in dual worker families shows that the husband does not share housework to the same extent that their wives share market work (Hood 1986; White 1983). Such asymmetry is usually explained by many theories. Among these are resource-based power theories and bargaining and exchange theories (Shukla and Kapoor 1990). Whereas resource-based theories have emphasized the contribution of women's income to the decision making power and division of labour, bargaining theorists now put stress on the provider role definition (Hood 1986).

In this perspective, bread-winning responsibility is a more important determinant of domestic role sharing than is the women's employment status. This is confirmed by Barnett and Baruch (1987) who contend that research findings about household role distribution are inconsistent because, among other reasons, maternal

employment has been inadequately specified. I contend that if working status and bread-winning responsibility are properly clarified, research on role distribution among spouses will be more consistent.

In order to distinguish between role enactment and role responsibility, family role is defined as mutual expectations negotiated by the actors that define each actor's responsibility to other family members in a given situation. According to this definition, earning an income is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for being defined as co-provider. Provider roles are determined not only by incomes, but also by each spouse's expectations of the other as a provider as well as each spouse's role attachment - that is the investment one has in one's present roles. The mother's sex-role attitudes may play a crucial "gate-keeping" role either fostering or impeding the father's participation in family work. When her attitude is liberal, he does more; when it is traditional, he does less. The father's attitude towards the male role is not related to any forms of the father's participation. Hence, the father's participation is not primarily a function of resources or of demands placed on him by the children; rather, it is conditioned by the demands placed on him by the woman's attitudes and needs. Role attachment and relinquishment have also been proposed to understand the process of role distribution (Barnett and Baruch 1987). Before one person can assume all or part of another's role, the other must relinquish all or part of that role. Role relinquishment depends on role attachment and is therefore a precondition for the reallocation of family roles.⁸

Walker (1989) provides support for the relevance of the provider/housekeeper dichotomy in role distribution and performance. According to him, in spite of all the talk about egalitarian ideology, abstract beliefs about what women and men "ought" to do are not connected with the division of family work. As long as a woman's paid labour is construed as a privilege for her rather than as a necessity for her family, her husband will not do more family work. However, as long as wives perceive themselves as family breadwinners, they have husbands who do more housework. According to the above author, women's employment, their accrued resources and sex-role orientations combine to shape power in marriage. Housework is usually perceived as onerous and it takes power to get out of it. The more power wives have in marriage, the more housework their husbands do.

Walker looks also at role redistribution, not only in terms of the provider/breadwinner dichotomy, but also from the point of view of images of parenthood among modern contemporary couples which influence role enactment. More than family work or child-care, it is the daily experience and the larger meaning of having children. Images of fatherhood and motherhood reveal our shared ideals, standards, beliefs, and expectations, regarding women and men as parents. Both emerging and enduring images exist, much to the confusion of mothers and fathers. Amidst idealisation and blame, the enduring image of motherhood is incompatible with women's wage-work. The emerging "new parenthood", is an image of mother and father sharing the full weight of raising their children. "New" fathers are intimately and actively involved in their children's socialisation. With juggled schedules and good day care in the early years, "new" mothers and fathers can have fulfilling work lives and rich and rewarding family lives. Regardless of children's age, however, the activities of mothering and fathering differ. Mothers are more invested and involved in the daily lives of their children than are fathers. More than mothers, fathers are novel, unpredictable, physical, exciting and engaging. When both parents are present, the distinction between mothers as comfort givers and fathers as play mates is more pronounced; but when parents share daily care-giving, the distinction fades and mothering and fathering seem much the same. According to the author, the image of new parenting provides standards that are too high for most couples.

While role enactment is covered by the role behaviour concept, the responsibility for enactment, i.e. role expectations, is covered by the role ideology concept. Based on the role ideology conceptualisation mentioned above, it is assumed that sex role traditionalists (SRT) exhibit attitudes and behaviour patterns consistent with past conceptions of male-provider and female-housekeeper role. Sex role moderns are identified by their more egalitarian role perceptions and behaviour patterns and by their new image of parenthood whereby mother and father share full weight of raising children (Walker 1989). Spouses in this group tend to share task performance on a more egalitarian basis (Qualls 1982). Maret and Finlay (1984) find that the most important variable in predicting women's home responsibility, simultaneously controlling for other variables, are wife's and husband's income.

Role Overload

Entry into the labour force and entry into the marriage are supposed to be the most important changes in family life because the demands associated with these roles typically require adjustment in both outlook and behaviour. No matter what role is performed, there is adaptation to the environment demands (Reynolds et al. 1977). Family adaptability is the ability of a marital or family system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to situation and developmental stresses. It is a measure of how well a family can meet the challenges presented by changing needs (Engel et al. 1995). The difficulties of adapting to the environment demands are usually referred to by sociologists as role conflict or role overload.

The sociology literature tends to use role conflict and role overload interchangeably despite the difference between both concepts. Individuals experience conflict when others' expectations for their behaviour are inconsistent with the individual's own expectations (Chusmir and Koberg 1986). As for role overload, it is defined as the stresses experienced by a family member, typically the wife, in trying to fulfill the set of demands of paid work and family involvement and eventually roles performed in social activities. Role Overload occurs when the sheer volume of behaviour patterns demanded by the positions in the position set exceeds available time and energy (Reilly 1982). To a certain extent, role conflict is felt at the level of role definition while role overload is experienced at the level of role enactment.

Researchers tend to equate the role overload phenomenon with women because their numerous sub-identities present a clear example of chronic conflict. This is defined as mutually conflicting demands emanating from role senders. These conflicts between roles are often more a matter of overload and competition over time - a scarce resource - than an issue of intrinsic incompatibility (Hall 1987). To the extent that career demands interfere with a wife's /mother's ability to meet the emotional needs of her family or that her success undermines rather than enhances her husband's status, these demands may become incongruent with her primary obligations (Steil and Weltman 1991).

According to Kibria et al. (1990), the notion of overload has both contributed to and reinforced the popular view of homemaking as a purely burdensome aspect of employed women's lives. This is based on two implicit assumptions: homemaking is of less importance than paid work to employed women and homemaking is a purely negative aspect of employed women's lives. But this view is criticised on the basis that the primacy of paid employment over family work has an implicit class bias. It is based on a "dual-career" family model which reflects the reality of a minority of women's lives. The dual-career model has difficulty dealing with the apparent commitment of women to their family work. Recent studies have shown that, rather than being purely burdensome, homemaking like many other activities is more accurately conceptualized as being composed of both negative and positive dimensions. This is why the prevailing images of homework as burdensome may be over simplistic. It involves its own set of both costs and rewards. Another challenge to role overload comes from research showing positive effects of multiple-role involvement. Involvement in several roles may not only generate stress but also several sources of gratification (Kibria et al. 1990).

Some researchers extend the use of role overload conceptualisations in analysing men's role enactment. Clark et al. (1978) contend that there exists a structured competition between occupation and family roles, and that time and energy devoted to work are at the expense of family involvement.. Accordingly, actors must allocate their scarce time among role alternatives, seeking to create the most profitable contribution of time within the structure of opportunities. Besides, the understanding of time use in the family role system requires understanding of the allocation of time to multiple role obligations which is guided by the actor's role hierarchy. In this process, highly valued roles will be given priority or curtail performance of other roles.

Clark et al. (1978) conducted a study on men's role involvement. Controlling for income, education and wives' role expectations, husbands' work time did not significantly reduce their participation in the housekeeper, the therapeutic, and the recreational roles. Occupational and marital roles were not found to be in direct competition. Husbands who worked long hours generally gave priority to marital roles and thus, contrary to the theory of competition, did not allow their work

involvement to interfere with marital interaction. Negative outcomes were likely only when work involved husbands gave low priority to marital roles and wives expected their husbands to participate extensively in marital roles.

Role Overload and Product Ownership

The relationship between product ownership and role overload is investigated on the grounds that one might expect a working wife to experience more overload than a non-working wife and, as a consequence, to own overload relieving products. Since work may create additional demands on her time and energy supplies, the working woman may try to minimise her role overload by saving time and energy in the performance of household chores, including serving convenience foods and buying time-saving appliances.

But, according to Reilly (1982), data on household purchasing consistently fail to indicate any differences in convenience and durables consumption patterns by wives' employment. Clearly one of the two premises is incorrect. Either working does not necessarily lead to role overload, or convenience consumption is not used by working wives to reduce their role overload. Some theoretical support exists for the first of these two possibilities. On the one hand, the positive outcomes from occupying an additional position may well outweigh any additional role conflict and role overload that such occupancy creates. There are four basic positive outcomes: role privileges, status security, status enhancement, and personality involvement. Time and energy devoted to a particular position may reflect the individual's commitment to that position, as well as the availability of time and energy. On the other hand, the role overload expressed by working wives in their family role may be low because of their commitment to that role. Working may not cause role overload for a wife if the rest of the positions in her position set are not demanding. According to the author, any or all of these arguments may explain the lack of empirical evidence linking working-wife families with differential consumption of convenience products and ownership of time-saving durables.⁹

Bellante and Foster (1985) hypothesise that the value assigned to time differs substantially from working wives families to non-working wives families. The authors anticipate a positive relation between wives' labour force participation and expenditure on time-saving services (such as food away from home, child care

outlays, domestic services, clothing care, and personal care). But the relation is found to be insignificant indicating that working wife families do not substitute paid services for housework.

The role overload phenomenon usually depends on the quality of experience in the homemaking role. This experience is expected to differ for women not only among working statuses but also across a variety of social and demographic variables. Having children may be expected to increase the demands of homemaking, thus resulting in a negative experience of the role. Women of lower socio-economic status have fewer material resources and may thus experience greater distress for the homemaking role.

Role Overload and Role Ideology

Because of multiple role obligations and in order to reduce conflict, coping strategies are adopted by role actors. They intervene in terms of strategic role redefinition, i.e. altering external structurally imposed expectations such as an arrangement on a revised set of expectations, personal role redefinition, i.e. changing one's personal concept of role demand from others, reactive role behaviour, i.e. imposing a quality of role performance (Chusmir and Koberg 1986).

Schaninger and Allen (1981) go beyond the simple employment categorisation and propose a three-way classification scheme based solely on wives' occupation: non-working wife (NWW), low-occupational status working wife (LSW), and high occupational-status working wife (HSW) ¹⁰ in order to underline life style and consumption differences among NWW, LSW, and HSW families.

Differences between HSW and LSW are found to be consistent. This provides support to previous investigations which revealed that career wives were more sex-role modern and more self-fulfillment oriented, held less traditional values, and felt stronger work and time pressures than all of the other working categories. Career wives were most likely to use both maid and day-care services, frequency of food and beverage consumption, and meals prepared away from home than non-career wives (Schaninger et al. 1993).

It is my contention that the role overload experience is not just a matter of working and not working, it is a matter of role ideology. On the one hand, family status is generally found to be more salient than employment position for women's

identity (Davis and Robinson 1988). On the other hand, contemporary men and women exhibit conservative, moderate and liberal ideologies about their appropriate roles (Buss and Schaninger 1983; Qualls 1982, 1983, 1987; Reynolds 1977). Consequently, actors who are committed to egalitarianism may be more sensitive to role overload relieving products than their traditional counterparts.

Role Performance and Purchasing Role Structure

Interest in a specific product determines purchasing role distribution. Consequently, I contend that the spouse who uses a product more or less frequently may deem the purchase of such a product as important. S/he will hold more responsibility in the decision making process (Laurent and Kapferer 1985), particularly in the need identification and in the final choice phases of the purchasing process.

In conclusion, I believe that it is necessary to investigate the employment statuses of the actors. But these are not sufficient for a proper understanding and prediction of family purchasing behaviour patterns. Hence, in addition to employment statuses, I propose to investigate role orientations in terms role ideology, role performance and role overload. These are inter-related and are associated to such behaviours as product ownership, purchasing roles, and influence strategies use. I also believe that it is necessary to make the distinction between role ideology and role behaviour because eventual discrepancies between both.

NOTES

1. Applications of such theories in the consumer behaviour sphere used the term « ends and means preferences » to reflect the difference between desired ends (e.g. financial securities) and preferred methods of attainment (e.g. savings account).

2. Egalitarianism is a value supporting the belief that all people should have equal opportunities for achievement. This is more of a moral imperative than an actual condition, and many groups face discrimination by other groups and individuals. Open patterns of subordination based on variables other than personal achievement bother most people (Engel et al. 1995).

3. The study concerns the 1970's and the 1980's period. Cultural consensus in the 1970's was that family status, not employment position were more salient for women's identity. In the 1980's, the direct connection to the relation of production, and the meaning of such a connection has taken more salience for female identity.

4. The most important implication of Schewe's model is that it can be helpful in identifying inner-and other-directed market segments. This means of market segmentation is particularly helpful when presenting an innovative or new product to the market. The categories of adopters have been fairly well defined. The innovators are described as venturesome and consequently more willing to

take risks. They are the opinion leaders who diffuse the innovation through the remaining individuals within their peer group. The other-directed individuals, less willing to accept risk, will adopt the new product upon the word of the inner-directed innovator. Consequently, to gain proper initial product acceptance, marketers should gear their campaign to the wants and desires of the inner-directed market. Further studies have found a relationship between advertising appeals and social character. Inner-directed persons favor inner-directed appeals in their advertising while other-directed individuals prefer other-directed appeals.

5. According to Schewe, it is proper to visualise tradition-direction, inner-direction, and other-direction as having sharply defined differences for study purposes. It would, however, be a mistake to expect to find such a sharp separation in the real world. In some circumstances, a person could be more motivated by inner-direction; while in others, he could be more motivated by other-direction. The main questions concern the degree to which an individual or social group relies upon one or the other of the available mechanisms.

6. We can anticipate that at any time, some men (and women) will have adopted the values and attitudes that are associated with the new emerging roles, others will be in a state of ambivalence and flux, some others will continue their adherence to rather traditional values and attitudes (Green and Cunningham 1975).

7. Notice that career involvement is conceptually different from employment status. Methodologically, the former is tapped through attitudinal data, the latter through demographic data.

8. The findings of the article concern the American society but are deemed relevant to the study under consideration. According to the author, couples are much slower to relinquish the HEPR as an abstract ideal than they are to give it up as a standard for their own families and that wives are readier to agree that they are actually co-providers than they are to accept the notion that they have a duty to. The women's contribution is important and perhaps even necessary. However, only a minority will agree that the duty to provide should be shared equally. Perhaps this inequality is the transitional double standard of the 1980's. In this study (Hood 1986), three categories of providers were identified. Main/secondary providers relied on the second income for improving the quality of their lives. Co-providers pooled their incomes and/or failed to distinguish the types of expenses payable by each spouse. Ambivalent co-providers admitted being dependent upon women's wages but gave conflicting accounts both about who was responsible for providing and about who should be responsible.

9. If role overload, wife's employment, and convenience consumption were measured simultaneously, an indirect relationship between working and convenience consumption might be found. It could be that working causes role overload, which in turn causes increased use of convenience goods and/or likelihood of owning time-saving durables. Each of these effects may be weak enough that no direct effect is observable between work status and consumption. However, any model would be incomplete without considering other factors (such as work involvement, education) which have previously been related to convenience consumption.

10. This measure is operationalised by asking for both wife's occupation and job title in open-ended questions, and then classifying wives into one of the seven occupation categories of the Hollingshed Index of Social Position. The authors have come to the conclusion that the three-way classification scheme of family types based on wives' occupational status holds promise as a summary segmentation construct. Besides, social class may be the consumer behaviour construct most in need of reevaluation; the majority of working wife families would be assigned to different social classes if the wife's rather than the husband's occupation was used in class assignment. Using wife's occupation may alter conclusions about differences among classes. Incorporating wife's occupation into social measurement might change traditional generalisations regarding class differences in consumption and lifestyles.

Chapter 7

Perceived Product Instrumentality

Perceived Product Instrumentality

Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI) is basically a perceptual construct moderating the effects of demographics and the role orientations on purchasing and decision behaviour. PPI deals with the broad and profound question of the reasons why consumers - apprehended also as actors committed to role enactment - possess, own, value or use products. The PPI concept draws essentially from Richin's theory of product value (1994a) and from previous consumer behaviour conceptualisations, such as the theories of motivation, involvement and self-perception (Belk et al. 1982; Laurent and Kapferer 1985; McCracken 1986).

PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY AND PRODUCT MEANING

According to Richins (1994a), possession are valued for the meanings they are invested with. These can be public or private meanings. Public meaning is the subjective meaning assigned to an object by outside observers, that is by society at large. It concerns agreed upon aspects of meaning. Although outside observers are likely to differ in some of the meanings, members of the general population or of social subgroups are likely to agree on some aspects of an object's meaning. These agreed upon elements constitute the object's shared public meaning.

According to the above mentioned author, although the public meanings of goods may be stable over time, the meanings of others are dynamic, reflecting changes in popular perceptions. Private meaning is the subjective meaning that an object holds for a particular individual. The meaning of an object is cultivated over time and emanates from the psychic energy invested in it and experiences related to it. Major categories of public meanings are symbolic and status-based meanings. Symbolic meanings are reflected in the ownership of products translating attachment to others as opposed to the ownership of practical objects. Status-based meaning is reflected in the ownership of prestige items as opposed to ordinary ones.

Most of the meanings that create value are classified into utilitarian, enjoyment, interpersonal and identity values (Richins 1994a). *Utilitarian value* relates to a possession's role in providing necessary functions or allowing one to lead

a more efficient life. *Enjoyment value* refers to the capacity of a possession to enable some enjoyable activity or to provide pleasure. *Interpersonal value* refers to the fact that goods are means of forming and symbolising social relationships. *Identity value* refers to the fact that possessions play a role in expressing or reinforcing the sense of self and for creating, maintaining, and preserving identity (Belk et al. 1982; Gentry et al. 1995).

Because private meanings are partly based on shared meanings, it is likely that some similarities will exist among the private meanings ascribed to an object by different possessors. They are also likely to differ in their spheres of influence. Because of the consensual nature of public meanings, they influence the kinds of possessions people choose as means of communication. Public meanings are also likely to have an important influence in shaping desires, in determining the types of things people hope to acquire. Private meanings on the other hand are more important in determining consumers' feelings about the things they already possess (Richins 1994b).

Two points are relevant in considering the sources of meaning. First, a particular source can influence both public and private meanings. Second, for any possession, several or all of the meanings mentioned above may influence its value.¹ A leather briefcase, for example, might be valued because it is relied upon to transport documents in an efficient manner (utilitarian value), because it is a graduation present from an admired relation - representing an interpersonal tie, and because its stylish design and good workmanship help create and project the possessor's desired image of polished efficiency (identity and self-expression).

PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY AND EMOTIONAL VERSUS RATIONAL MOTIVES

The private versus public conceptualisation of product meaning is reminiscent of broader and earlier theories of buying motivation: rational versus emotional motives in purchasing, buying as a problem-solving act, and buying as an act seeking compatibility with the self-concept (Buskirk and Buskirk 1992), meaning as a source of value (Richins 1994a) and of consumer involvement (Laurent and Kapferer 1985).

When a product is perceived as practical, operative, or efficacious (this is more or less private meaning from Richin's point of view), it is said to be capable of satisfying a rational need. When the product is ego-gratifying (identity in private meaning) or is seen as enhancing an image or a position (status in public meaning), it is said to be capable of satisfying an emotional need. When the product is new (foods, scenes, places, devices) it appeals to desires and curiosity for new experiences and thrills (emotional meaning which is reminiscent of enjoyment meaning). The more the product is seen as satisfying this range of needs, the more its perceived instrumentality.

The neglect of emotional dimensions in product consumption results from the traditional, economic view of products as objects the utility of which the consumer desires to maximize, where utility is typically measured as some function of the product's tangible attributes. Emotional desires may dominate utilitarian motives in the choice of products. There are contexts in which emotions such as love, jealousy and so on, override the consumer's economic decision rules. Consumers imbue a product with subjective meaning that supplements the concrete attributes it possesses. For many products, intangible symbolic attributes are key determinants of brand selection (Belk et al. 1982; Hirshman and Holbrook 1982). Much consumption research focused on tangible benefits of conventional goods that perform utilitarian functions based on relatively objective features (calories, fluoride, etc.). The experiential view (Holbrook and Hirshman 1982) explores the symbolic meanings of more subjective characteristics (cheerfulness, sociability, elegance).

PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY AND CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

The different categories of meaning and the different classes of buying motives are also reminiscent of another concept in the consumer behaviour literature - consumer involvement. Most of the phenomena alluded to as sources of meaning by Richins (1994a) or as symbolic intangible attributes by Hirshman and Holbrook (1982) are referred to as sources of involvement by Laurent and Kapferer (1985). Among these are perceived importance, perceived risk, symbolic and hedonic values. According to the authors, knowing only that the individual is or is not involved gives

rather a static description of consumers, but knowing the sources of involvement gives a dynamic picture of them. It follows from the involvement conceptualization that products may have different meaning configurations or motive mixes or still, instrumentality profiles. Consequently, measuring the consumer's position on each facet of instrumentality helps one give a dynamic picture of consumers and provides him/her with a basis for profiling them. No single facet of instrumentality alone catches the richness of the relationship between a consumer apprehended as actor and a product.

From the perspective of buying as problem solving, a product is appreciated because it solves the consumer's problems. The more problems a product solves, the stronger its appeal to the consumer. The seriousness of the problem to be solved affects the attractiveness of the product, hence its perceived instrumentality. Contemporary couples are facing problems daily. They buy food and kitchen equipment in the hope of solving their problems. Those who have more time constraints are more sensitive to such products. The more products are capable of solving problems, the more the PPI.

PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY AND THE SELF-CONCEPT THEORY

According to Buskirk and Buskirk (1992), the self-concept theory is a broad approach which integrates most theories of buyer behaviour in a unified framework. It nicely combines the rational-emotional approach and the problem-solving approach into one unified concept. From the self-concept theory perspective, buying is influenced by several different selves which each individual conceptualises in the mind.

The term self refers to a person's cognitive structure based on his/her past experience of identity arising from his/her interactions with the environment. Each of us carries a complex mental picture of himself whose components are: the Real Self, the Ideal Self, the Real Other and the Ideal Other.² The Real Self is what one thinks s/he really is. The Ideal Self is how one would like to think of one. The Real Other is one's perception of other's perception of one - what other people think of oneself, one's abilities and personality. The Ideal Other is how one wants other people to

think of oneself (Buskirk and Buskirk 1992). The individual is constantly trying to bring the Real Self and the Ideal Self closer together and to make the Real Other and the Ideal Other coincide. One is constantly striving to bring the Real Self closer to the Ideal Self as well as one's Real Other to one's Ideal Other. Moreover, one wants to buy goods which one believes will facilitate this movement. The more a product helps the individual consumer bring together the Real and the Ideal Self or make the Real Other and the Ideal Other coincide, the more its perceived instrumentality. However if the purchase of an item involves some risk that may move the individual away from his/her ideals, s/he usually will not buy it even if ultimately the purchase might prove to be a wise one. The individual prefers the status quo to moving away from his/her ideals or jeopardising his/her self-concept. The more there is a risk of a product to move him/her away from his/her ideals, the less its perceived instrumentality.

Belk et al. (1982) give to the self concept a broader social perspective, hence the concept of the social self. Each of us has as many selves as we do social roles. According to these authors, we have a separate me for each of our roles. All "mes" are not equally articulated or learned and some are more salient than others for self-definition. The individual's set of "mes" combine to form a total self-conception termed "I". The self is the result of the individual's imaginative process during interaction with others. It is a reflected self composed of three elements: imagination of our appearance to the other person, imagination of the other person's judgement of that appearance, and some sort of self-feeling such as pride, mortification. The most important implication of the social self is that behaviour is patterned to be consistent with the "me" that is called forth. The "looking glass self" provides a useful way of viewing this process: the feedback that the individual receives from the reflection of others' estimated appraisals results in a decision as to who he/she is at that point. It is then that the individual can make conscious, minor adjustment to optimise the image quality communicated to others; that is, products can be used to communicate role information after they have been used by their owners to decide what role should be communicated.

Gentry et al. (1995) underline the importance of possessions in creating, maintaining and preserving identity over the life course. Within each stage of the life course, the role of possessions differs. To the young, possessions that reflect ability and control and that reinforce future orientation are important. To the adults, possessions that reflect the work identity are important because one's identity is a function of doing, being, and having. For the elderly, as work and family roles diminish, possessions are used to filter out the negative experiences of the past and stimulate only positive memories. According to the above authors, marketers shall not view possessions from their own frame of reference, but from that of different life stages and identities.

In any case, products are perceived as instrumental either because they satisfy a need (rational, emotional or symbolic), they have meaning (private or public), they solve problems, they are congruent with the self-concept, or they help the actor maintain and preserve identity. The more a product is deemed capable of satisfying a need, the more it is invested with meaning, the more accurately it solves problems, the more its perceived compatibility with the self-concept, the more its perceived capacity to maintain and preserve identity, the more its perceived instrumentality. However, it should be pointed out that products, while appealing to some rational motive, may be at odds with an emotional motive, or while appealing to a private meaning may be at odds with a public meaning. Products may solve problems in terms of time and effort to such an extent that they may imply consumers abandoning the pleasure of exercising imagination or performing skills. We all have in varying degrees a desire to create. Some products may hinder the sense of duty and love of others. According to previous consumer research, many women spend hours daily in the kitchen, forego pleasure or practicality for the higher satisfaction of feeling that they have done their duty and of being of service to others. Pre-cooked foods, for instance, are usually supposed to have a great appeal to contemporary women (particularly to overloaded women). Nonetheless, some women, particularly those who value their relation to their family, may find it difficult to buy such products. They would feel guilty. In such cases, products will not be perceived as instrumental. On the contrary, they will have a low degree of instrumentality.

PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY AND ROLE IDEOLOGY

During the 1970's, an overall change in role orientations for both men and women is evident; this change is more significant for women (Scanzoni 1977). More than men, women shift their time and investment back and forth between paid and family work so that family life is sustained (Albrecht et al. 1979). Even though most women do paid work, the responsibility and recognition of family provision falls to men (Hood 1986). Men are better able than women to keep paid work and family as separate spheres of life; women shape their paid work in response to family needs (Clark et al. 1978). Family status is more salient than employment position for women's identity (Walker 1989).

But, in the 1980's, the direct connection to the relation of production, and the meaning of such a connection took more salience for female identity (Davis and Robinson 1989). Though these changes are partly related to a tendency towards increasing individualism or independence of partners from each other, there is a tendency towards an increasing acceptance of women having an identity of their own apart from their families and their husbands (Bielby and Bielby 1989).

In a life style study accomplished by Douglas and Urban (1977), the major dimension differentiating working and non-working wives was their attitude towards the homemaking role. Working wives were less involved in the home making role and were more self-confident and outgoing than non-working wives. Then, differences in attitudes and life style patterns among working wives were examined. This revealed the existence of two highly similar subgroups among working wives in each country. One was a "liberated" group who thought women should have equal status to men, and that a woman's role was not necessarily confined to homemaking. The other was a group of "traditionalists" who had conservative outlooks about women's role and were more oriented towards the home.

Among the working females, segments who differ attitudinally and motivationally were identified. There were significant differences between career and income-oriented working women, and between monetarily versus non-monetarily motivated women. Other schemes have divided both working and non-working women into "progressive egalitarians" (who were similar to career-orientated or high

occupational status women) and “fashionable traditionalists” (who were similar to income oriented or low occupational status women, Green et al. 1983).

On the whole, compared to men, women were found to adjust their work identity to accommodate their family identity and not vice versa. They balance work and family identities in a way that gives causal priority to identification with family roles. Within working and non-working groups, significant differences were found between the modern and the traditional (Reynolds et al. 1977). Both working and non-working traditional women tend to agree more with assigning women to traditional roles. Egalitarian or role modern females are less inclined to enjoy housekeeping tasks, and are more inclined to avoid them than the traditional women. Reynolds et al. pointed out that many housekeeping views are moderated by employment status. For instance, the traditionally oriented working wife is more likely than her non-working counterpart to say “meal preparation should take little time” while the modern non-worker is much more apt to follow routine housework than the modern working wife. Role moderns will be more sensitive to effort and time saving devices than their traditional counterparts.

I contend that perceived instrumentality of effort and time saving products is influenced by the compatibility of products with an identity depending on the salience of that identity. Consequently, egalitarian or modern females will be interested into products that help them perform housekeeping tasks more accurately or more easily. Because moderns as well as traditionals were found within working and non-working groups, perceived product instrumentality is more linked to role ideology than to employment status. It is a matter of identity and of self-concept, rather than a matter of working status. Consequently, the more the woman is oriented towards egalitarianism, the more she believes that her role should not be confined to homemaking, the more she perceives time and effort saving products as instrumental. Not only the practical (utilitarian) value of products determine PPI but also the symbolic (identity) value is key to determining PPI.

Consumption can also be considered an act of communication, that is, an encoding and a decoding process (Belk et al. 1982). As an *encoding process*, it means that people express themselves through consumption and their possessions

are seen as part of or extension of themselves. In the presence of others, the actor is seen to organise his/her activity in order to express an impression that s/he wishes to convey (Schewe 1973). Consumption cues are utilised in forming impressions. As consumers committed to role enactment, people use products to “set the stage” for the multitude of social roles they play. They rely on social information inherent in products³ to shape self-image. The congruence of self-images and owned products is important in such a communication process (Belk et al. 1982). The more the product is deemed congruent with self images, the more it is perceived as instrumental. The degree to which one is committed to a role identity determines the power of that identity to influence behaviour in general and consumption choices in particular. Hence, the more a product is perceived as capable of facilitating role enactment, enhancing the quality of role performance, or preserving a salient identity, the more its perceived instrumentality.

Consumption can be looked at as a *decoding process* in the act of communication. Most research assumes that products are employed in a strategic deliberate sense, either for the purpose of need satisfaction or for impression management. In both cases, consumption is a response to a need or to a strategic goal. However, products can also play an a priori role as stimuli that are antecedent to behaviour. They can be a potent information source from which to draw inferences about the individual. Product cues provide information about an individual's occupation of social roles. These roles are frequently signified by the unique nexus of products that accompanies them. Products can be considered as socially significant symbols and a guide to behaviour. For the case of clothes, the wearer is cast as a social object and arouses other's anticipation of behaviour. The individual's self-concept is largely a result of other's appraisals, both imagined and actual. Evaluation of a person's role are dependent upon the appropriateness and quality of the symbols which accompany that role, and many of these symbols are man-made, e.g., products that have acquired learned symbolic values. The actor's reflexive evaluation of the meaning assigned by others is influenced by the products within which the self is surrounded. This (real or imagined) appraisal by significant others is, in turn, incorporated into self-definition. The “looking-glass self” requires the proper

constellation of products to deliver a satisfactory reflection. Hence products are not only perceived as strategic or communication tools (product as response), they may also “set the stage” for role performance: behaviour is matched to the particular role by a set of products (products as stimuli). Products are likely to act as stimuli when a discrepancy exists between the ideal set of behaviour patterns associated with a given role and the individual’s ability to enact those behaviour patterns. This ability is called role knowledge (Solomon 1983). The more confident we are in our ability to meet role demands, the less we rely on objects to convince others and self of this ability.

In the experiential stream of research (Holbrook and Hirshman 1982), interest into the investigation of the symbolic dimensions of product use and possession in contrast to their utilitarian and commercial character is important. Traditional research (Davis 1970, 1971; Wilkes 1975) concentrated on product attributes that lend themselves to verbal descriptions. However, many products project important non-verbal cues that must be seen, heard, tasted, felt or smelled to be appreciated properly. The evidence is not strong enough to conclude that symbolic considerations are the main determinants of these selections, but such messages about self at least appear to be an appropriate consideration in a variety of consumption choices.

Nonetheless, the ability of consumption objects to clearly communicate status has been challenged in recent years, because of the blatant decline of material scarcity and the rapid disappearance of status symbols in the face of abundance (Belk et al. 1982). Material life styles may serve more to mask than to transmit material inequalities. Whether or not consumption communicates status as clearly as was once the case, it is clear that there are still a number of inferences about people which are affected by the goods and services that they select. In the case of clothing for instance, it is noted that subjects behave differently toward others depending upon the clothes the others wear (Belk et al. 1982).

“Perhaps nowhere are the differences in behaviour between people with different self-concepts so evident in the case of women who perceive themselves primarily as homemakers and those who see themselves primarily as career women”

(Buskirk and Buskirk 1992, p. 88). The same product may be perceived as highly instrumental by some women but of low instrumentality by other women. A career woman would consider it highly instrumental because it allows her to pursue personal goals and activities. Or the same product may be perceived as highly instrumental by both types of women but for different reasons. Homemakers would consider a product highly instrumental because it allows them to perform household chores more appropriately and enact roles more successfully. Career women would consider a product highly instrumental because it allows them to adapt to multiple role obligations.

The degree to which one is committed to a social identity determines the power of that identity to influence behaviour. Identities that are central to the self have a greater probability of being invoked as a guide to appropriate behaviour. A product is deemed uninstrumental when it does not fit into the role which the individual plays in life. Hence a precooked type of food would not be considered instrumental by homemakers because of its incompatibility with their concept of themselves as diligent homemakers and good cooks. Nonetheless, career women may consider it highly instrumental because it helps them adapt to the demands of their job.

PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY AND ROLE PERFORMANCE

Among the sociological changes that are occurring, there is a tendency towards role interchangeability (Scanzoni 1977). Interaction between husbands and wives in coping with their roles leads not only to role taking thereby sustaining some conformity to other's expectations but also to role making which involves an active remaking and reshaping of roles (Williams 1988). Research findings on the distribution of husbands' and wives' commitments to work and family are conflictual. While some researchers have confirmed some change in role enactment and household role distribution (Clark et al. 1978; Barnett and Baruch 1984), others have confirmed that there are no such dramatic changes (Berardo et al. 1987; Maret and Finlay 1984). Statistics indicate that more and more women are playing the role of provider, but women still expend considerable energy in homemaking activities.

There is a structured competition between occupational and family roles for men, and that time and energy devoted to work is at the expense of family involvement (Clark et al 1978).

There was evidence that husbands' work involvement influenced women's evaluation of their marital role performance; however, looking closer to the various working populations, such a tendency is not always verified (Barnett and Baruch 1987). In particular, people in professional positions generally feel the pressures to offer their wives active support in the form of reduced household responsibilities (Berardo et al. 1987). The main reason why men involve in family work is that employed women have less time to do family work. So their husbands take up the slack and do more housework and child care.

Understanding of time use in the family role system requires research on the allocation of time to multiple sectors and the place of individuals' preference structures in this process. Bargaining theorists (Hood 1986) now put stress on the provider role definition. In this perspective, it was found that bread-winning responsibility was a more important determinant of domestic role sharing than was the women's employment status per se. According to Walker (1989) in spite of all the talk about egalitarian ideology, abstract beliefs about what women and men ought to do are not connected with the division of family work. As long as a woman's paid labor is construed as a privilege for her rather than a necessity for her family, her husband will not do more family work. High participation in household chores is unlikely to occur for men unless there is approval from significant others. Husbands' participation is found to be linked more to women's attitudes and needs than to structural family variables (Barnett and Baruch 1987).

Researchers in sociology have found that both emerging and enduring images of parenthood exist, much to the confusion of mothers and fathers (Buss and Schaninger 1983; Walker 1989). Images of fatherhood and motherhood reveal our shared ideals, standards, beliefs, and expectations, regarding women and men as parents. The emerging "new parenthood", is an image of mother and father sharing the full weight of raising their children and managing their households (Walker 1989).

On the whole, despite the decline in the amount of time spent by employed women in housework, women continue to bear primary responsibility for homemaking. In dual worker families the husband does not share housework to the same extent that their wives share market work (Kibria et al. 1990). Whether there has been a “liberalisation” of role definition or “democratisation” of role enactment depends upon the specific role which is considered (Albrecht et al. 1979). Some husbands will be involved in performing some tasks with their wives and others will not. The more women are involved into the provider role and the men into the housekeeper role, the more the role interchangeability hypothesis is confirmed (Scanzoni 1977). Anyhow, the more a partner is involved into performing a particular task, the more he/she will be sensitive to products likely to facilitate role performance and to maximise the quality of role enactment, the more its perceived instrumentality.

Whatever the task is and whoever the actor involved is, it is very likely that some men and women will be involved into homemaking responsibility to varying degrees. The more one is involved in performing a task, the more he/she will be sensitive to products that facilitate role performance and enhance the quality of role enactment. Role skill as a determinant of role performance is generally viewed as a physical or psychological ability to perform a task. This includes aptitude, experience and specific training. The more a product helps perform a task and the more it is seen as enhancing role skills, the more it is deemed practical, helpful, efficacious, the more its perceived instrumentality.

PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY AND ROLE OVERLOAD

Role overload occurs when the sheer volume of behaviour demanded by the positions in the position set exceeds available time and energy. Role overload is defined as the amount of stress experienced by a family member typically the wife, in trying to fulfill the set of demands of paid work and family involvement and eventually roles performed in social activities (Reilly 1982). A working wife is expected to experience more overload than a non-working wife, since the work would create additional demands on her time and energy supplies. Time and energy demands of all positions in the position set contribute to role overload. The working

woman might try to minimise her role overload by saving time and energy in the performance of household chores, including serving convenience foods and buying time saving appliances. But research findings do not always confirm this: either working does not necessarily lead to role overload, or convenience consumption as well as time-saving product acquisition is not used by working wives to reduce their role overload.

According to Reilly (1982), several explanations are plausible. The positive outcomes from occupying an additional position might well outweigh any additional role conflict and role overload that such occupancy creates. There are four basic positive outcomes: role privileges, status security, status enhancement, and personality involvement. Time and energy devoted to a particular position may reflect the individual's commitment to that position, as well as the availability of time and energy. The role overload expressed by working wives in their family role might be low because of their commitment to that role. Time and energy demands of all positions in the position set contribute to role overload. However, working might not cause role overload for a wife if the rest of the positions in her position set are not demanding.

According to Reilly (1982), any or all of these arguments might explain the lack of empirical evidence linking working-wife families to differential consumption of convenience products and ownership of time saving durables. If role overload, wife's employment, and convenience consumption were measured simultaneously, an indirect relationship between working and convenience consumption might be found. It could be that working causes role overload, which in turn causes increased use of convenience goods and/or likelihood of owning time-saving durables. Each of these effects may be weak enough that no direct effect is observable between work status and time or labour saving product consumption (Reilly 1982).

The eventual positive outcome from the identification of women with the homemaker role has found support in some sociological literature. According to Kibria et al. (1990), the notion of overload has both contributed to and reinforced the popular view of homemaking as a purely burdensome aspect of employed women's lives. Rather than being purely burdensome, homemaking like many other activities,

is more accurately conceptualised as being composed of both negative and positive dimensions. This is why the prevailing images of homework as burdensome may be overly simplistic; it involves its own set of both costs and rewards. Another challenge to role overload comes from research showing positive effects of multiple-role involvement. Involvement in several roles may not only generate stress but also several sources of gratification (Kibria et al. 1990).

According to women's self-reports, the homemaking role may be experienced as more rewarding than problematic. Some results tend to support the notion that homemaking is not only burdensome but also rewarding, especially for those tasks that are associated with autonomy, control, and bringing pleasure to others (Kibria et al. 1990). Indeed, the positive dimensions of the homemaking role may be partially apparent for employed women who do not face the problems associated with the traditional homemaker role, such as social isolation and low status. In other words, Kibria's theory raises the possibility that the homemaking role, when removed from its traditional context of isolation, may be a positive aspect of women's lives.

Role overload may be linked more to the socio-economic status of women than to employment status (Kibria et al. 1990). Women of lower socio-economic status have fewer material resources and may thus experience greater distress for the homemaking role. In contrast, women with greater financial resources may alleviate the pressures of homemaking by using hired help to perform homemaking tasks. Besides, the role overload phenomenon usually depends on the quality of experience in the homemaking role. Having children may be expected to increase the demands of home-making, thus resulting in a negative experience of the role; women of lower socio-economic status have fewer material resources and may experience greater distress for the homemaking role (Reilly 1982). However, women with greater financial resources may alleviate the pressures of homemaking by using hired help to perform homemaking tasks (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980).

According to Bielby and Bielby (1989), neither the "scarcity view" whereby the individual is located along a dimension of commitment to work and family, nor the "multiplicity view" whereby individuals are able to form strong commitments to work and family and are almost infinitely capable of sustaining numerous

obligations, is capable of explaining how men and women distribute commitments to work and family. Behaviour patterns are rather shaped by a sex-role based division of labour, and the values placed on those behaviour patterns are prescribed by sex-role norms. Rather, gender-based structural and cultural contexts shape the identity formation process. Among these, marriage still brings with it the firmly established tradition of the man as provider and achiever and the woman as housekeeper (Steil and Weltman 1991). Even if the woman engages in labour, she tends to assume most of the housekeeping chores thus eventually overloading herself.

SUMMARY

Perceived Product Instrumentality is a perceptual construct referring to the degree to which a consumer committed to role enactment holds a product to be dear, i.e., the degree to which the product has value to him/her. Such a value derives from the product's ability to help the consumer, apprehended as actor, perform his/her roles, enhance his image, and preserve his identity. Because of the differences in the quality of experience in the homemaking role and in other social roles (bread-winning role, father, mother, etc.), in the variability of meanings invested in products, and in the diversity of product symbols, products will have different instrumentality profiles among consumers.

NOTES

- 1- Richins (1994a) found that some elements of meaning are present in either type of meaning but not in both. For example, status meaning is present in public but not in private meaning of possessions. Moreover, private meaning appears to have more nuance than public meaning. Necessity meanings do not distinguish between meanings derived from practical form of utility or pleasure-based meanings of objects. Private meaning is idiosyncratic: enjoyment derives, for varying degrees among consumers, not only from recreational items, but also from necessities. The use of different techniques revealed the following. First, some elements of meaning were present in either but not in both: financial and appearance meanings were revealed in content but not in MDS; conversely, status value was present in public but not in private meanings. Second, private meanings revealed in the content analysis appear to have more nuance than the public meanings derived from MDS. For example, necessity meanings of MDS do not distinguish between meanings derived from practical form of utility or pleasure-based meanings. Third, the idiosyncratic nature of private meanings is revealed by the scattering of entries. For example, enjoyment is obtained not only from recreational possessions but also from necessities such as one's home and from status objects.
- 2- According to Massarik and Wechsler (1984), one's self concept provides a kind of psychological base of operations that inevitably affects relations with family, friends, business associates, and strangers. Some aspects of the self concept are at the surface of personality; these are the publicly held attitudes - the things we don't mind telling other people about ourselves and our views of the world. And there are some feelings about the self of which we are aware, but which we do not want to share with others - these are the privately held attitudes to the self. And buried still deeper are the subconscious and unconscious aspects - feelings about "who" we are and "what" we are that somehow we cannot face up to, even to ourselves. The theories of psychoanalysis deals at length with these dissociated parts of the self, which are subtly disturbing, often powerful sources of internal turmoil may affect and hinder a person's affective functioning (p.95)".
- 3- Taking the case of materialists, it was found by Richins (1994b) that materialists are characterized by their concern more with public than with private meanings of possessions. Their possessions are less likely to concern personal ties and more likely to concern financial worth (Richins 1994b). Consumption as a communication process refers to others' capability of reading elements of a person's identity by observing that individual's possessions.

Chapter 8

Household Purchasing and Decision Behaviour

Household Decision and Purchasing Behaviour

In general, household purchasing behaviour can be dealt with in terms of consumption priorities, consumption patterns, influence patterns, conflict resolution modes or influence strategies use, product ownership, and so on. In this research, household purchasing behaviour will be investigated in terms of product ownership and in terms of purchasing role configuration, i.e., in terms of the distribution of purchasing role, or relative influence of spouses. The redistribution of roles within the family and the ideology underlying them may have some impact on purchasing role configuration, consumption behaviour¹ and purchasing influence strategies use.

PURCHASING INFLUENCE STRATEGIES

Family relations are moving from traditional arrangements whereby the wife complements the husband to interchangeable arrangements which are introducing a whole series of specific decision making processes (Scanzoni 1977). This may signal a new configuration of power and of influence strategies use within families. As women shift the ways in which they carry out the process of decision making, they are replacing their traditional relative passivity with more assertive and individualistic negotiation (Scanzoni). While traditional women tend to negotiate with the husband on the basis of collective interests, modern women tend to negotiate more in terms of their own individualistic interests. Traditional women negotiate in a reactive fashion, but modern women are less reactive and involve in more give and take processes because they are more goal-oriented and are likely to maximize their own interests (Scanzoni 1977). These negotiation processes involve the use of influence strategies by family members in making decisions, particularly in making purchasing choices, and in resolving purchasing conflicts.

Quite recently, however, research, particularly in the consumer behaviour sphere, investigates power use regardless of gender. Spiro (1983) identified six strategies used by individual spouses, whether they were men or women, in making joint decisions for major durable purchases. *Expert influence* is reflected in the enumeration of specific information concerning the various alternatives. *Legitimate influence* deals with one spouse's attempts to draw upon the others' feelings of shared values concerning their role expectations. *Bargaining*

involves attempts by one spouse to turn the joint decision into an autonomous one in return for some favor granted to the other. *Reward/referent* involves an individual's ability to reward the other and behave in a way perceived as ideal by the other. *Emotional influence* involves nonverbal techniques such as getting angry, crying, keeping silent. *Impression management* involves attributing the influence attempt to external pressures beyond the influencer's control. According to Spiro, there is interest into investigating the spouse's use of an influence strategy mix, as opposed to influence strategies per se, in disagreement situation. Differences exist in the level of influence used and in the patterns of use of alternative strategies. Couples are found by Spiro to use different combinations of influence strategies during their attempts to persuade one another.

Yukie and Falbo (1991) linked influence strategies use to marital satisfaction. Satisfied couples show more social reinforcement behaviour patterns such as, agreement, humour, assent, positive problem solving behaviour such as compromise, and suggestion of problem solution and facilitative behaviour such as positive description of the partner. Dissatisfied couples are more likely to be negative in their emotional expression such as frown-face, behaviour exchange such as the reciprocation and escalation of aversive behaviour, and negative social behaviour such as disagreement and putting down the partner. Dissatisfied couples are distinguished from satisfied ones by a higher rate of coercive control techniques. This is based upon a persons' belief that the partner can say something unpleasant if he/she does not comply. These correspond to unilateral power strategies, which include laissez-faire, negative affect and withdrawal.

Qualls (1983, 1987) linked the use of influence strategies to conflict situations. According to him, in family decision making, conflict is resolved either by concession, negotiation, or bargaining. *Concession* is a form of conflict resolution in which one spouse gives in to the preference desires of the other spouse with very little resistance. It can be made without any promise for future consideration. *Negotiation* is characterized by mutual satisfaction of both husbands' and wives' individual preferences. It includes bargaining, problem solving, compromise, and sequential concessions. Regardless of which means is utilized, negotiation requires a give-and-take attitude (Qualls 1983). Bargaining is characterized by spousal

discussion in which some fair exchange between preferences is achieved such that both spouses' preferences are maximally satisfied to the extent possible (Quall 1987).

The social context view predicts no gender differences among males and females in similar circumstances and with access to the same resources. Situation factors, rather than gender per se, predict behaviour. Males and females have similar preference hierarchies, i.e. use neutral strategies most often, followed by reward, with coercive reward used least often. Coercion is evidenced by threats and aggression while reward behaviour usually promises or delivers a desired commodity. Results supported the predictions.² Differences between men and women in the use of influence strategies would rather be linked to status (White 1988).

Influence Strategies and Status

Men and women differ in social influence styles because men possess higher status than women. With this legitimate authority, men simply assure that they get their way, while women do not. Women use indirect and unilateral strategies largely because they assume from the outset that they will not be successful in influencing their male partner, or as a back-up when the direct approach fails. People with more power use strong tactics with greater frequency than those with less power. Position of weakness (female) increased the use of supplication (pleading, crying, acting helpless). This finding is consistent with sex stereotypes about women (Yukie and Falbo 1991).

Ansari (1989) contends that while some fail to find any significant sex differences, others indicate that indirect, manipulative strategies are seen as more typical of women and direct persuasive strategies as more typical of men. Typically, men use reward, coercion, legitimacy, information, and expertise whereas women are more likely to be influential. More specifically, if sex role is a status characteristic, then higher status persons (males) are more likely to use such direct tactics as reward, coercion and exchange, and lower status (females) are more likely to use indirect soft tactics like ingratiation. Because most of the previous research has found no fundamental differences in favour of men or women, balance or imbalance of resources between spouses is associated with the use of power strategies. Based

on the resource theory (Green et al 1983), it is found, in countries like the US; Austria and France, that the greater resources one has, the greater power he/she has in the relationship. Resources can include material attributes like money or non material attributes like energy and education (Koberg 1985).

Role Ideology and Influence Strategies Use

Some studies found that males and females have similar preferences for influence strategies use and that situational factors, rather than gender per se, predict influence behaviour (Koberg 1985; White 1988; Ansari 1989; Drehr et al 1989). Different situations call for different influence strategies. Individuals either men or women, will utilise different combinations of influence strategies depending on the purchasing situation under consideration. The flexibility in the utilisation of a whole array of strategies (Spiro 1983) means that coercion as well as reward are more likely to achieve modification in other's position than reliance on a single strategy (Scanlon and Polonko 1980).

The importance of the decision is not a determinant factor in the use of an influence strategy mix, but a traditional family ideology and avoidance of conflict are significant determinants of influence strategies use. Role Orientations, particularly role ideology considered as situational variables, are supposed to be determinant factors of influence strategies use (Qualls 1983). Based on the above role ideology conceptualisation and following Quall's assumptions (1983), sex role traditional (SRT) utilise concession modes while sex role moderns (SRM) employ negotiative means of conflict resolution. SRT utilise capitulation and SRM employ compromise as means of conflict resolution (Qualls).

PURCHASING ROLE CONFIGURATION

As attitudes and stereotypes change, the ways in which people interact during the decision making process may also change (Qualls 1987). Changes in family member perceptions have caused a shift in the reliance on sexual gender as a basis for dividing household labour and decision making responsibility (Qualls 1982). Sex-role norms within families are changing in a way that traditional generalisations about family decision making may be obsolete (Qualls 1982; Buss and Schaninger 1983). Because of economic constraints, women's employment represents a hedge against inflation. It seems that resources are helpful in achieving a more

equal sharing of responsibility, but access to job related resources alone is not sufficient to achieve equality. Thus, while access is a prerequisite to significant change, it is not by itself sufficient to achieve such change (Steil and Weltman 1991). When the bread-winning responsibility is not only assumed but also recognised as a necessity for the couple, women are invested with much power in the family setting and with household purchasing responsibility (Hood 1986).

Purchasing Role Configuration and Role Ideology

Modern sex-role norms are defined by a shift towards more egalitarian views of task sharing. Patterns of perceived influence are somewhat different for husbands and wives when these are compared on the basis of their sex-role orientations (Qualls 1982). Different sex-role norms lead to different task allocations and purchase responsibilities (Buss and Schaninger 1983). Husbands who are sex-role traditionalists consistently perceive their levels of influence to be higher than their wives do and sex-role modern husbands. In contrast, wives in both groups, sex role traditionalists (WSRT) and sex-role moderns (WSRM) exhibited patterns of influence perceptions which were rather similar to each other. One noticeable pattern in the difference found in family role structure on the basis of sex-role orientation is that joint influence perceived by spouses who are sex-role modern is higher than that perceived by spouses who are sex-role traditional (Qualls 1983).

Douglas and Wind (1978) grouped families according to their attitudes towards marital roles on the basis of the assumption that the family's role ideology will determine who is responsible for various decisions and tasks. It has been hypothesised that households subscribing to male dominance ideology will exhibit traditional responsibility patterns with the husband assuming responsibility for financial decisions and the wife for household activities. Those subscribing to egalitarian philosophy will be characterised by a greater degree of joint responsibility in the various decision areas. But, there was little indication of any systematic relationship between marital role attitudes and responsibility patterns.

The observed pattern of decision making and task allocation appears to be somewhat complex and difficult to categorise in terms of "dominant-authority" concept. In some cases, the dominant partner is clearly indicated but, the nature of the family authority structure is by no means clear. Hence, results of the

investigation of individual differences between households in the allocation of responsibility for various decision areas and tasks suggest that the distributions seldom reflect a dominant authority pattern. Even among families in which a dominant authority pattern seems to exist, it appears more clearly in relation to the traditional sex-specialized areas such as financial decisions or housekeeping, rather than new or “open areas”, such as shopping or choosing vacations (Green and Cunningham 1975).

Purchasing Responsibility and Resources

Warner et al. (1986) contends that a large proportion of the research on marital power is based on resource theory: the decision making power of each spouse is directly dependent upon the extent to which that spouse contributes valued resources to the marriage. A valued resource is typically defined as anything one partner may make available to the other, helping the latter satisfy his/her needs or attain his/her goals. The resource theory has sometimes been criticised for not incorporating the entire range of resources exchanged between spouses and the dynamics involved in these exchanges. Warner et al. (1986), has formulated the “theory of resources in cultural context”, which posits that the effect of resources on power is different under different cultural or normative conditions.

With respect to household power, resources are positively related to power in relatively egalitarian cultures but negatively related to power in modified patriarchal cultures. Investigations in societies where norms are changing from patriarchal to egalitarian (Green et al. 1983) showed that resources are negatively related to power, because in such societies, although man’s higher status operates as a valued resource, his education exposes him to modern egalitarian norms so that there is a greater possibility for the increased participation of women in decision making. In fully patriarchal societies that have not been influenced by egalitarian norms, marriage will almost uniformly be husband-dominated regardless of either the husbands’ or the wives’ resources. Thus, women cannot influence marital decisions because the norms prevent them from doing so regardless of their relative contributions of resources to the marriage. Marriage still brings with it the firmly established tradition of the man as provider and achiever (Steil and Weltman 1991) which invests man with power in decision making and in purchasing responsibility.

Warner et al. (1986) suggested the inclusion of family organizational patterns as cultural context variables in resource theory. Women's power is found to be greater in societies with nuclear family structure than in those typified by extended families. Hence, the authors concluded that the resource theory was developed in a society characterised by a nuclear family system. Marital power was viewed as an outcome of a negotiation process between husband and wife. Many societies however are characterised by a non-nuclear family structure, and thus more family roles may be involved in the negotiation process.

Green et al. (1983) provided support to Warners' ideas. According to them, the resource theory needs to be placed in cultural contexts rather than to be disclaimed on the basis of contrary findings. Comparative resources have major impact on family decision structures in modernised societies due to several factors such as the transition toward egalitarian marital ethics, a high degree of flexibility about the distribution of marital power, and the importance of education, occupation, and income in defining a person's status. When these factors are not present, the theory of resources is of less value in understanding family decision making behaviour.

An intercultural study (Green et al. 1983) involving five developed countries, which differed in degree of egalitarianism, revealed similarities and differences in terms of purchasing behaviour among the five countries. Similarities are reflected in the fact that groceries are reported as a wife dominated decision area, and automobiles and insurance are husband dominated decision areas in all five countries. Differences are reflected in the fact that husbands in less developed nations were reported to make significantly more decisions than the husbands in the developed nations and in the fact that there was significantly more joint decision making reported in the developed nations than in the less developed nations (Green et al. 1983).

Concerning the internal power structure of the household, Isvan (1991) suggested that the bargaining process described by neoclassical theory assumes a direct and open confrontation between household members where net outcome is closest to the interests of who pulls hardest. The dominance of such a theory has led to the classification of households along the power dimension, typically producing

the three categories husband-dominant, egalitarian, and wife-dominant households. But according to Isvan, domestic bargain is culture specific: in some contexts, it is acted out within a less confrontational mode. In settings where a conflict of interest rarely leads to confrontation, the powerless party tries to achieve her or his goal without directly challenging the authority of the more powerful household member (Ansari 1989). At times, the transition to a modern, i.e., westernised mode of interaction between the spouses - one that is generally characterised as egalitarian and emotionally nucleated - does not necessarily produce the predicted increase in the wife's efficacy; instead, it blurs previously clear-cut domains of autonomy, severs the wife's tie to "traditional", social, and kin networks, and creates confrontations in previously non-confrontational situations (Shukla and Kapoor 1990).³

Role Performance and Purchasing Role Configuration

Investigations on power or influence distribution within families are made by both sociologists and marketing researchers. Women are found to hold control over domestic life and to hold the family purse strings; men voluntarily relinquish domestic control to women to avoid association with femininity (Gilmore 1990). In dominating the domestic realm, women have de facto control of socialisation and of cultural indoctrination.⁴ Women run the family finances and some men surrender their day wage to their wives for that purpose (Gilmore 1990). Such a tendency is reinforced by a spatial gender-schema stereotyping: men as providers should not rule the household (even when unemployed); woman should be house-bound in order to be a careful housekeeper and a good mother (even when employed).

An investigation of role configuration in family purchasing revealed that influence within the household is product specific (Davis 1970). Davis found that there is considerable variability in husbands' and wives' roles for purchasing decisions. In assessing relative influence for two "major economic decisions", some specific decisions (such as where to buy) are wife dominant in one product category (furniture) but husband dominant in another (automobile). In verifying if there is a relation between the different roles in purchasing decisions, it was found that roles are significantly related to other roles within the same product category but are not related to other decisions across the two product categories considered.

It is my contention that the type of arrangement between husbands and wives will determine purchasing role configuration. Because roles are to be perceived as systems, purchasing role configuration cannot be properly investigated without reference to broader role distribution. Consequently, purchasing role distribution is part of a whole arrangement of social and family roles among spouses. Because of eventual role interchangeability, it is expected that both men and women can be involved into performing a variety of roles to varying degrees. The more a partner is involved into a particular role enactment, the more he (she) will be involved into the purchasing process. In particular, the need identification phase of the buying process will be greatly influenced by the degree of involvement of the partner in the specific role.

From the problem solving perspective of purchasing behaviour, products are purchased for the solutions they bring to the user. Products may help in the performance of certain roles. Hence precooked food, electric and microwave oven will be of interest to the person responsible for family lunching, the dishwasher will be of interest to the person involved into washing the dishes, and so on. Consequently, those who are involved into roles that demand time and effort will be very active in influencing the purchasing process related to the role performance of that particular role. From the perspective of buying as a problem-solving process, a product is deemed instrumental when its purchase helps the consumer solve his problems. The more problems a product solves, the stronger its appeal to the consumer.

The seriousness of the problem to be solved affects its attractiveness. Contemporary couples are facing problems daily. They buy food products and kitchen equipment in the hope of solving their problems. Those who have more time constraints and those who are more overloaded are more sensitive to such products. The more products are capable of solving their problems, the more they are capable of reducing their overload, the more the perceived product instrumentality, the more they will be involved in the purchasing process. Consequently, the more a person perceives a product as instrumental in relieving overload, the more he will be involved into the purchasing process, particularly in the need identification phase.

HOUSEHOLD PRODUCT OWNERSHIP

Household product ownership attracted many researchers. Some were interested into assessing the impact of women's participation in the workforce on products possessed; after controlling for some socio-demographics, such as income, and family life cycle, the relation was found to be insignificant (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983, Bellante and Foster; Rubin et al. 1990). Others tried to explain why such a logical relation cannot be verified. These were satisfied that going beyond the demographics is needed to properly evaluate the household's buyer behaviour (Buss and Schaninger 1983; Reilly 1982).

Woman' Employment Status and Product Ownership

According to Weinberg and Winer (1983), wife's employment was not significantly related to the purchase of each of the five time-saving durables considered in the study: dish washers, dryers, refrigerators, stoves, washers, either taken separately or as a group. Bellante and Foster (1984), by regressing wife's employment and other factors on mean dollar expenditure on such individual services as food away from home, child care outlays, domestic services, clothing care, and personal care, also found the relation insignificant.

Rubin et al (1990) analysed the impact of income and the wife's work status on household expenditure shares. Overall, by comparing 1973 to 1984 data, the expenditure share data indicate that expenditure patterns have a fairly high degree of consistency among various types of households, income levels and over time. On the one hand, it is notable that the wife's work status, measured at 3 levels, non-working, part-time, and full-time, is found to be significant for only a limited number of expenditure categories and only for the two lower income household categories. On the other hand, the importance of the wife's work status to households expenditures appears to have declined over time, even at lower income levels. According to the authors, this appears to indicate that expenditure patterns of households are converging regardless of the wife's work status.

Oropesa (1993) noted that previous research failed to demonstrate clearly the effect of employment status of women on ownership of time saving household technology. According to the author, the reasons why there is "no effect" or there is "an indirect effect" is that some of these studies did not take into account the

following considerations. First, taking the case of the microwave, the investigation of the relation dealt with earlier stages of the product adoption process and the subjects considered were presumably not innovators. In this case even if the women were employed, they might not be owners of time saving products, just because they might not be innovators. Second, the relation between employment and ownership changes over time. When prices are at their peak, income might intervene as a significant variable; in this case, the relation between ownership and employment is indirect. Later on, a direct relation between the variables may be appropriate. Third, employment status is a dynamic process: a woman who is now unemployed may have bought the product when she was employed. This is why the nature of employment status and duration and time of purchase should be defined. The study results confirmed the disappearance of employment effect on microwave ownership in recent years .

In general, studies comparing working to non-working wife households have found no relationship to household consumption behaviour when income or socio-economic variables are taken into account, particularly for expenditure data on durables ownership (Rubin et al. 1990; Stroberg and Weiberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983). This leads to the conclusion that the wife's work status is not a useful or practical predictor of consumption behaviour. Some researchers proposed more complex classification schemes of women's employment in order to reveal meaningful and practical differences (Schaninger et al. 1993). Others are satisfied that one should dig deeper into motivational and into attitudinal considerations linked not only with women's employment, but also, and more importantly, with women's role definition and identity (Buss and Schaninger 1983; Reilly 1982). In either case, the main point is that socio-demographics are not good enough for meaningfully investigating patterns of product ownership.

Values, Role Orientations and Product Ownership

According to Holbrook and Hirshman (1982), consumer researchers are often emotionally and intellectually unwilling to acknowledge that values may be operating in the lives of modern consumers. "We want to see consumers whose behaviours and attitudes are thoroughly objective and rational, whose decisions are arrived at through logical contemplation of information gathered in a careful and

consistent manner, and who are too sophisticated, educated, and modern to be subject to ancestral taboos or preferences; to adhere to such primitive practices, we believe, is not modern or rational, and not scientific" (p.136).

Pitts and Woodside (1983) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between several consumer behaviour variables such as choice criteria, beliefs, preferences, intentions, and values. Results revealed that statistically significant differences were found, particularly between value segment importance evaluation and product choice criteria. After determining segments with similar values through clustering, significant differences between groups were found in choice criteria importance. Values were found to be effective in discriminating preference groups.

In a study on consumer durables, Corfman et al. (1991) demonstrated the importance of values in utility formation and their subsequent impact on ownership. Respondents were asked whether they owned each of 27 products (ownership), how important to own each (utility). The authors developed a model that was statistically significant. Qualls (1983) conducted a study to identify the effect of spousal sex-role orientation (SRO) on perceived spousal influence, conflict resolution modes, preference agreement/disagreement and decision outcomes in a joint family purchase decision (housing). SRO is an all encompassing term that subsumes such terms as sex-role attitudes, values, opinions, behavioural standards, and cultural norms and constraints. The impact of SRO was found to be significantly related to influence distribution, conflict resolution, preference agreement, and decision outcome.

Schaninger et al. (1993) investigated the wives' shopping behaviour and looked for differences among the working and non-working women by using an elaborate classification scheme of women's involvement into the workforce. This scheme distinguished between career and just-a-job women and between unemployed and plan-to-work women. Significant differences were found across the different categories, both before and after adjusting for number of children and family income. Career wives were more likely than just-a-job wives to use both maid and day-care services, to consume beverages, convenience, junk food and take-away meals. For instance, career women consumed meals prepared away from home more frequently than just-a-job women.

Reilly (1982) contended that the wife's work behaviour has two links with convenience consumption, both of which are indirect. First, the wife's work involvement may cause mildly increased levels of role overload, due to the increased time and energy demands. The relationship between work and role overload is then expected to be linked positively to the use of convenience food types and ownership of time saving durables, two possible strategies for reducing role overload. The second indirect link concerns the wife's earnings. Working wives contribute income to the family. Total family income has been related to the ownership or purchase of durable items in several instances. Reilly's final model supports the proposition that the wife's work involvement relates indirectly to the family's consumption through work overload. Working wives were somewhat more likely to report overload. Wives who reported role overload were somewhat more likely than others to serve convenience food and to own time-saving durables.

Perceived Product Instrumentality and Household Purchasing Behaviour

In dealing with the involvement concept, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) underlined its relation to consumer behaviour. The rationale for the link of consumer involvement with behaviour is deemed appropriate for the perceived product instrumentality concept. Concerning the consequences of the involvement profiles, the theory predicts that involvement exerts a strong influence on consumers' decision process and information search. Because involvement is captured better when all its antecedents are taken into account, it is useful to investigate the influence of these facets on consumer behaviour. According to the authors, on practical grounds, involvement profiles can be used to segment the market. Rather than merely indicating high-low division of the market, the profiles allow identification of consumers high on some facets but low on others. Based on the involvement conceptualisation, rather than indicating high-low instrumentality, the profile will allow identification of consumers high on some facets but low on others of perceived product instrumentality.

Product-Product Relation

Some researchers contend that consumer populations have an underlying common order of acquisition for heterogeneous durables. The knowledge of the acquisition of goods is of interest because, by only knowing the last durable

acquired, one can predict a consumer's total stock of durables and the durables to be purchased next (Kasulus et al. 1979). Other researchers, while investigating the underlying common order of acquisition, are interested in meaningful breakdowns, such as home owners versus renters (Clarke and Soutar 1982). However, others criticised the technique on the grounds that it implies an analytical contradiction: one cannot on the one hand claim that a common order of acquisition exists and, on the other hand, claim that there are several different acquisition orders among which categories can be used as a basis for segmentation (Dickson et al. 1983). Others contend that future examination should include studies across different sets of durable goods, within different geographic samples and between other segmentation variables, such as social class, family life-cycle, and income groups (Kasulus et al. 1979).

Following Dickson et al. (1983) and Clarke and Soutar (1982), home-ownership should be taken into consideration as an important independent variable predicting durables ownership. I contend however that the order of durables is not a issue for this research. Perceived Product Instrumentality can eventually explain why certain families opt for such and such an order of TSES durables prioritisation; but in this project, it is posited as a process variables explaining why certain families own particular durables and others do not. The more the perceived instrumentality of a TSES product, the more the probability that the family be an owner of that particular TSES product.

NOTES

- 1- The relationship between the two dependent variables - purchasing role configuration and household product ownership may be of interest. For example autocratic patterns of purchasing roles may lead to consumption patterns that are reflective of one or the other partner preferences ; syncratic patterns will reflect product ownership revealing common interest for both partners; autonomic families will reflect some redundant consumptions (separate activities, entertainment, second car, etc.). But I will not be concerned with such a relationship in the present model.
- 2- Previous research may have overemphasised male's use of coercive power strategies because the context of alternative strategy choices was not examined (White 1988). Koberg (1985) contended that reward is traditionally thought to be rare for women, because men have more control over resources and assets. Besides women may not be as oriented as men because of their relatively small number in highly specialised fields and finally, in so far as dominant values for men include brute force and pragmatism whereas those for women are rather humanitarian, women are less likely to rely on coercive forms of power. The analysis showed that there are no significant sex differences in power behaviour of men and women. Men and women did not differ significantly in the selection of expert, reward and coercive power. Both sexes preferred two-way to one way communication. Such results contrast sharply with general sex-role stereotypes about power tactics. Furthermore, research should consider the topography of specific behaviour patterns labelled coercive. For instance, neutral strategies of which requests are an exemplar, may be either a sign of weakness (supplication, begging, pleading) or strength (autocracy , insisting, demanding) depending on the tone of voice. Such qualitative features of request could not be easily assessed however (White 1988).
- 3- The study was done in Turkey and the results are deemed relevant for countries having cultural similarities with Turkey. The theoretical framework is nonetheless useful for cross-cultural comparisons.
- 4- A case study on newly wed couples in Spanish peasant societies showed that couples have a "matrilocal and matrivicinal" pattern of behaviour: their homes are chosen near the wife's family (the bride needs her mother's support); their neighbourhoods are dominated by women's ties (they keep strong relations with kinswomen and childhood neighbours). As a consequence, women are invested with much power and the mother-in-law is found to maintain a high profile, often intruding into domestic arrangements and quarrels (Gilmore 1990).
- 5- A significant association was observed between power types and marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives: most of the responses in syncratic families and husband-dominant families reported that they were very happy with their marriages. Lowest levels of marital satisfaction were reflected in wife-dominant families.
- 6- The categorization also implies that power structure is related to marital satisfaction whereby syncratic structures reflect highest level of satisfaction whereas wife dominant the least satisfied. This is explained by Blood and Wolfe as follows: equality per se is not the crucial factor- for autonomic families are just as equal but much less enthusiastic than syncratic families. Equality combined with seperate decision making is a kind of not counting, not mattering to the other partner. Thus, lowest levels of satisfaction are found among wives in wife-dominant families. According to the authors, in the sense of having voice in decision making, the dominant wife obviously plays an even more central role in the eyes of the partner. The reason for their dominance is the husband's abstention from the marriage. Hence, the wife "who go it alone" in marriage feels dismayed rather than pleased.

Chapter 9

Integrating the Concepts into a Comprehensive Model of Purchasing Behaviour

Integrating the Concepts into a Comprehensive Model of Family Purchasing Behaviour

Research studies that examined the impact of demographics and role orientations upon market-oriented behaviour underlined the importance of such variables for a better understanding of household decision and purchasing behaviour. Although there were efforts to empirically test these relationships with pieces of the role orientations paradigm borrowed from sociology, this transfer of knowledge had not occurred without problems (Qualls 1987). One of the most important problems of this transfer was that either the role dimensions were not properly integrated into a model framework or that the difference between attitudes or ideology and behaviour proper was overlooked. In analyzing role enactment, the sociology literature insisted on looking at attitudes and behaviour at the same time because of possible discrepancies between the two (Araji 1977). Because of certain sociological findings about multiple role obligations of contemporary couples and coping strategies (Davis and Robinson 1988; Bielby and Bielby 1989; Hall 1987), which involve role redistribution and interchangeability (Scanzoni 1977) and eventual role-attitude incongruence (Araji 1977; Berardo 1987), the inclusion of both attitudes and behaviour in terms of role ideology and role performance in a model of family purchasing is deemed necessary. ¹

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The present research attempts to construct and empirically test a theoretical framework of household purchasing behaviour which will integrate role conceptualisations as central factors of family decision and purchasing behaviour. The model will use attitudes, behaviour patterns and perceptions as basic components. Because the sex role orientations concept may be laden with gender considerations, I propose the use of role orientations which consist in role ideology (RI), role performance (RP), and role overload (RO).

The main objective of the research is to identify the effect of role orientations to be apprehended in terms of role ideology (RI), role performance (RP), and role overload (RO) on household purchasing behaviour (HPB) to be identified in terms of purchasing role configuration (PRC) and household product ownership (HPO). By

incorporating RI, RP, and RO as moderators of the effect of demographics on household product ownership (HPO), purchasing responsibility configuration (PRC), and purchasing influence strategies use, a better understanding of the process can be achieved and predictive power of demographics and role orientations on Family Decision Making (FDM) can be ascertained.

THE PROPOSED MODEL

While the majority of studies have examined the impact of role orientations on family decision outcome, very few have attempted to explore their effects on the process of FDM (Qualls 1987). Meanwhile, some studies have examined the impact of role orientations on FDM, but have not attempted to incorporate actual behaviour in the family setting and include it as a determinant factor in the process of FDM.

The development of a theory is not just finding empirical relationships that may exist between concepts, it also includes determining the situations in which variations in the concepts of interest will bring about variations in other concepts (Qualls 1987). To my view, the way roles are being reallocated in the family and the ideologies underlying them are important variations to be investigated. It is necessary to go beyond attitudes and beliefs about family role distribution and look at actual behaviour (Araji 1977; White 1983; Hood 1986) in terms of role performance. If one is interested in knowing who does what in the buying process, and who buys what, it is imperative that one investigates who does what in the family setting and why.

To a great extent, purchasing responsibility and consumer choices are better understood when they are put in the family context of role orientations, and particularly of role ideology and role performance. Purchasing responsibility configuration, and product ownership and acquisition cannot be isolated from broader family role ideology, responsibility distribution, and role overload. Changes in the allocation of the provider role responsibility, for instance,² should be closely related to changes in the allocation of other household responsibilities and to purchasing behaviour and responsibility configuration. The link between the role dimensions and household purchasing behaviour provides a clearer understanding of the phenomenon if perceived product instrumentality (PPI) is posited as a moderator of the effect of socio-demographics on purchasing behaviour.

WHY ANOTHER MODEL OF FAMILY PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR ?

The models described in the literature have the merits of integrating attitudes, perceptions, and expectations about men's and women's roles in a system's framework and of assessing their predictive power on such spousal behaviour patterns as influence distribution, conflict resolution processes, etc. However they present the following limitations :

- a- They have not delved deep enough into the consumer-product dynamic relationship explored in the case of individual consumers (Richins 1994a) in such a way that role-based consumption experiences are properly explored and product values assessed. Consumers as role players value products because they use them as means of facilitating role performance, and as instruments for creating, maintaining, and preserving identity (Gentry et al. 1995; Richins 1994a; Solomon 1983). What is warranted is an investigation of how differences in the perception of such values lead to differences in time-saving consumption and decision behaviour.
- b- They have not addressed the issue of time-saving and effort sparing (TSES) as desirable qualities for role actors. TSES product ownership investigated in length in the working/nonworking women paradigm, can be explored by apprehending consumers as role-players, not just as workers. The focus on TSES products is quite relevant for a role-based theory of family purchasing and decision behaviour because of the importance of time management for role actors.
- c- Role orientations have been taken into account more as attitudinal than as behavioural variables. Even if role sharing was proposed in some models (Qualls 1982 ; Buss and Schaninger 1983), it was part of the spouses' views about their respective roles, rather than as role enactment proper. The idea of incorporating behaviour in household purchasing prediction was warranted by previous researchers (Oropesa 1993; Buss and Schaninger 1983). There is evidence of the existence of discrepancies between attitude and behaviour that warrant investigation of both simultaneously (Hood 1986; Araj 1977).

In summary, research on processes and consequences of multiple role obligations and of women's work involvement as related to time-saving consumption has paved

the way for the inclusion of role orientations as an integrative construct of family purchasing behaviour models. What is needed for more understanding of family purchasing is a deep investigation of the interaction between consumers as actors and products as sources of meanings and values, and as means by which role enactment is facilitated and role identity is reinforced. A clarification of both spouses' multiple roles involvement processes and arrangements can lead to a better understanding of household time-saving and effort-sparing (TSES) product ownership, purchasing power configuration and influence strategies use.

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF FAMILY PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

Based on comprehensive models of buyer behaviour (Engel et al. 1995), family decision making (Qualls 1982, 1983, 1987; Buss and Scahn timer 1983; Corfman and Lehman 1987; Burns and Granbois 1977, Burns and Foxman 1989; Menasco and Curry 1989), and family negotiative process models (Scanzoni and Polonko 1980), the following model describing family decision and purchasing behaviour in terms of context, process and outcome is proposed (see Figure 9-1).

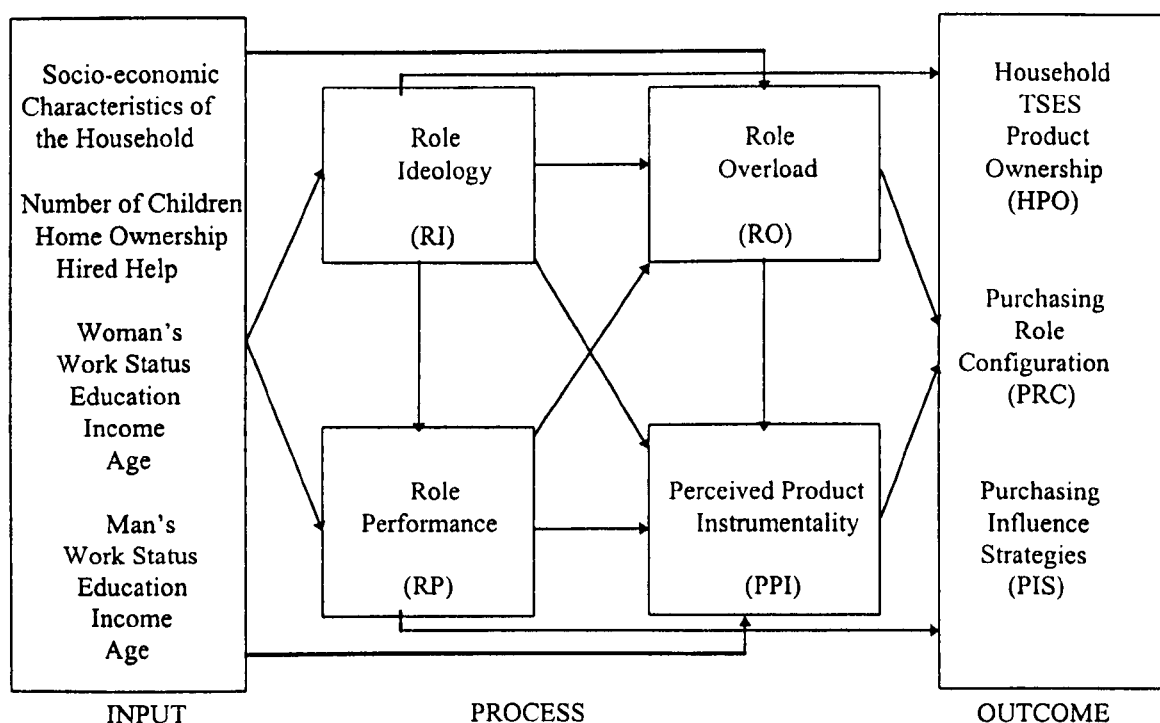


Figure 9-1

FAMILY PURCHASING AND DECISION BEHAVIOUR MODEL RELATIVE TO TIME-SAVING AND EFFORT-SPARING (TSES) PRODUCT ACQUISITION

NB. Socio-economic characteristics of the household as a unit (i.e., number of children, home-ownership and hired-help) are to be considered only for the case of TSES products ownership assessment and prediction. They may be irrelevant for the cases of the Purchasing Role Configuration and the Influence Strategies Use assessment and prediction.

Following Scanzoni's and Polonko's (1980) model of marital negotiation, family purchasing and decision behaviour can best be described in terms of a model assuming ongoing influence emerging from context, apprehended in terms of the household and the spouses' characteristics, continuing through processes of marital role ideology, performance and overload as well as through perceived product instrumentality, and proceeding to outcomes, assessed in terms of TSES product ownership, purchasing role configuration, and purchasing influence strategies use. It is the author's contention that by integrating input, process and outcome (Scanzoni and Polonko 1980 ; Engel et al. 1995), a better understanding of family decision and purchasing behaviour can be achieved and predictive value of important family decision making (FDM) variables be ascertained (Schaninger and Allen 1981; Reilly 1982 ; Schaninger et al. 1993).

Role ideology (RI), role performance (RP), role overload (RO) and perceived product instrumentality (PPI) are proposed as interactive process variables moderating the impact of the couple's socio-economic characteristics (SEC) on household product ownership (HPO) on the one hand, and on marital purchase role configuration (PRC) and purchasing influence strategies use (PIS), on the other. RI, RO, RP, and PPI represent in a way the black-box components that need to be delved into for a proper understanding of family purchasing behaviour. The impact of the process variables on output ones may be negligible when taken individually, but their interrelationships may be determinant. In other words, it is the interaction of RI and/or RP and/or RO with PPI which may enhance predictability of socio-demographics.

The rationale for the inclusion of role performance RP and PPI is in order. Concerning RP, studies that have examined the impact of role orientations on FDM (Qualls 1983, 1987 ; Buss and Schaninger 1983) did not incorporate actual spousal role distribution. Now, as a consequence of research findings about role interchangeability (Scanzoni 1977) the ways roles are reallocated in the family are important variations that shed light on family TSES purchasing and decision behaviour. TSES products may be used to facilitate role enactment, and decision making about them may be determined by spousal broader arrangements, power use and influence distribution.

PPI is also deemed as an important dimension. It reflects the degree to which TSES products are deemed helpful, meaningful, useful to consumers committed to performing particular roles, and hence instrumental for successful role enactment and role skill enhancement. PPI as an overarching construct which draws basically on findings about products as need satisfiers (Kotler 1984), about consumer involvement (Laurent and Kapferer's 1985), about the relationships of consumption choices with identity and self-concept (Solomon 1983 ; Sentis & Markus 1986 ; Belk et al. 1982), as well as on findings about the investment of products with meanings and values (Richins 1994a).

The proposed model hinges around the main idea that products are used to satisfy the individual's needs and to solve some of his/her problems when s/he involves in role enactment. Hence, involvement in particular roles and tasks will enhance the attractiveness of products that are capable of contributing to satisfying needs and to solving problems related to role performance. Some of these needs and problems may be the facilitation of role performance, the enhancement of role skills, and the reinforcement of role identity. The higher the attractiveness of the product to the role player, the higher its perceived instrumentality.

MODEL MAIN COMPONENTS

The components of the model above are presented in terms of input, process and output. Relationships that are deemed relevant and that provide a theoretical base for further empirical relationships investigations are provided in a separate section.

Input: The Couple's Socio-economic Characteristics

Most family purchasing researchers make conclusions controlling for socio-economic characteristics. Such variables as employment, education, income, age, home-ownership, and presence of children are found to be significant determinants in durables ownership and purchasing behaviour (Bellante et al. 1984; Stroberg and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983). On the one hand, the partners' education and occupation as well as the wife's employment determine to a certain extent the purchasing role structure in the family (Hempel 1974, Buss and Schaninger 1983). Income, education, and employment are found to be determinant factors in power behaviour within the family (Clark et al 1978; White 1983). On the other hand, the wife's education, employment, and income are found to be significant determinants

of influence strategies use in household purchasing decisions (Rosen and Granbois 1983). Recent investigations of household purchasing patterns reveal that employment is rather indirectly linked to ownership. The relationship is significant only when income is posited as a moderator variable (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983). In particular, when prices are high, income intervenes as a significant determinant, but when prices are low, a direct relation between employment and ownership is found (Oropesa 1993).

Process : Role Orientations

The process components of the model, labelled role orientations, are made of Role Ideology, Role Performance, Role Overload, and Perceived Product Instrumentality.

Role Ideology (RI). It refers to an attitude surrounded by role prescriptions and proscriptions which predispose the individual to act in some way rather than another (Araji 1977), to self evaluation and evaluation of others to one's adequacy as a male or female (Brogan and Kutnar 1976), or to abstract beliefs about what women and men ought to do (Walker 1989). Some men and women will adopt values associated with the new emerging roles, others will be in a state of ambivalence, and some others will adhere to traditional attitudes and values (Green and Cunningham 1975). Spouses are usually classified into conservatives, moderates and liberals, or situated on a continuum the extreme ends of which are sex-role traditionalists, SRT, and sex-role moderns, SRM (Green and Cunningham 1975; Qualls 1982, 1983, 1987; Rosan and Granbois 1983).

Role Performance (RP). This is the actual behaviour of an incumbent in a family position, other than the provider role enactment (which is considered as an input rather than as a process variable in the model). It is necessary to go beyond attitudes and investigate actual behaviour in household responsibilities distribution. Coping strategies and arrangements adopted by spouses as responses to environmental changes and as adjustment processes (Bielby and Bielby 1989; Williams 1988) may involve remaking, reshaping, and eventually interchangeability of roles (Scanzoni 1977; Hall 1987) that are dictated more by time constraints and availability than by attitudes per se. Patterns of family role distribution are usually categorised into husband-dominant, joint and wife-dominant. As for power

behaviour, a concept closely linked to role distribution, it is typically categorised into autocratic, syncretic and autonomic (Hempel 1974; Green and Cunningham 1975; Douglas and Wind 1978; Shukla and Kapoor 1990; Isvan 1991).

Role Overload (RO). The sociology literature tends to use role conflict and role overload interchangeably despite the difference between both concepts (Chusmir and Koberg 1986). According to the above authors, role conflict is experienced when others' expectations for behaviour are inconsistent with the individual's own expectations. Role overload, is defined as the amount of stress experienced by a family member in trying to fulfill the set of demands of paid work and family involvement and eventually roles performed in social activities. Role overload, a situation typically experienced by the wife, occurs when the sheer volume of behaviour patterns demanded by the positions in the position set exceeds available time and energy (Reilly 1982). Regardless of employment status, spouses are typically situated on a continuum the extreme ends of which are overloaded and under-loaded (Reilly 1982).

Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI). It is a perceptual construct referring to the fact that a consumer committed to role enactment invests the product with value. Such a value derives from the product's ability to help him/her solve problems, perform roles, reinforce identity, enhance a role skill, and convey desired images.⁴ Because of the differences in the quality of experience in the homemaking as well as in the bread-winning roles, and in the idiosyncrasy of meanings invested in products and the values derived from them (Richins 1994a), products will have different instrumentality profiles among consumers.

When a product is perceived as practical and efficacious (utilitarian meaning), it is said to be capable of satisfying a rational need (Laurent and Kapferer 1985; Richins 1994a). When the product is ego-gratifying and is compatible with the self concept (identity meaning), or is seen as enhancing an image or highering a position (status meaning), or is new and appeals to curiosity for new experiences (enjoyment meaning), it is said to be capable of satisfying an emotional or a symbolic need (Sentis and Markus 1983; Buskirk and Buskirk 1992; Richins 1994a). The more a product is seen as satisfying this range of rational, emotional and symbolic needs, the higher its perceived instrumentality.

Output: Household Product Ownership, Purchasing Role Configuration, Purchasing Influence Strategies

Many behavioural phenomena can be looked at as the outcome of the input and the process variables. The present research will focus on TSES ownership, purchasing role configuration, and influence strategies use.

Household Product Ownership and Prioritisation (HPO). According to some researchers, consumers are found to have an underlying common order of acquisition for heterogeneous durables (Dickson et al. 1983; Kasulus et al. 1979). For other researchers, the order of acquisition is revealed only when meaningful breakdowns are made, such as home owners versus renters (Clarke and Soutar 1982). However, recent researchers criticise the notion of order of acquisition on the grounds that it implies an analytical contradiction: one cannot on the one hand claim that a common order of acquisition exists for the whole sample and on the other hand, claim that there are several different acquisition orders for subsamples (Dickson et al. 1983). Some other researchers contend that future examinations should include studies across different sets of durable goods, within different subsamples and between other segmentation variables, such as social class, family life-cycle, income and life style groups (Kasulus et al. 1979). In the model above, Role Ideology, Role Performance, Role Overload and Perceived Product Instrumentality are posited as variables that may enhance the predictability of socio-demographics and account for differentiation in TSES product ownership.

Purchasing Role Configuration (PRC). This component reflects the degree to which husbands and wives influence or dominate household consumption decisions or exercise decision making authority throughout the purchasing process (Qualls 1987). The distribution of such authority is called pattern of perceived influence. Several classification schemes are proposed in the literature. The most widely used ones are husband-dominant, joint and wife-dominant as well as autocratic, syncretic and autonomic families (Hempel 1974; Green and Cunningham 1975; Douglas and Wind 1978).

Drawing on the exchange theory and on the contention that the family is an interdependent system of role relationships (Araji 1977; Hood 1986), the proposed model assumes that power configuration is due to interpersonal interactive processes.

One of the main assumptions of the model is that one cannot talk about purchasing role configuration without talking about role distribution in general, because purchasing role configuration is reflective of spousal arrangements, family role, responsibility, and power distribution. In the model above, Role Ideology, Role Performance, Role Overload and Perceived Product Instrumentality are posited as variables that may enhance the predictive power of socio-demographics and account for differentiation in TSES product purchasing roles configurations.

Purchasing Influence Strategies (PIS). Family relations moved from traditional arrangements whereby the wife complements the husband to interchangeable arrangements which may signal a new configuration of power and influence strategies use (Scanzoni 1977). Males and females are found to have similar preferences for influence strategies use (Koberg 1985; White 1988; Ansari 1989; Drehr et al. 1989). Hence, different situations rather than gender per se call for different influence strategies. Research on family purchasing negotiations and decision making reveals that individuals utilize a whole array of influence and power strategies depending on the situation under consideration and on the other spouse's use of such strategies (Spiro 1983). Concession, negotiation, and bargaining are found to be operant in family goal-oriented behaviour (Isvan 1991) and in purchasing conflict resolution (Qualls 1983, 1987). Combination of coercive as well as reward influence strategies is more likely to achieve modification in the partners' position than reliance on a single strategy ⁵ (Scanzoni and Polonko 1980). In this model, RI, RP, RO, and PPI are posited as variables that may enhance the predictability of socio-demographics and account for differentiation in influence strategies used in TSES products purchasing.

The main propositions that will guide model testing and that will break down into a series of hypotheses are in order:

Proposition One: RI, RP, RO, and PPI, posited as process variables moderating the effect of socio-demographics, will reduce unexplained variability in TSES product ownership, purchasing role configuration, and influence strategies use relative to TSES product purchasing.

Proposition Two: RI, RO, RP and PPI are interrelated in such a way that their interactions contribute to reducing unexplained variability in TSES product ownership, purchasing role configuration, and influence strategies use relative to TSES product purchasing.

Proposition Three: At the individual level, greater perceived product instrumentality of TSES products will result in higher likelihood of ownership of these products by the family.

Proposition Four: At the individual level, greater perceived product instrumentality of TSES products will result in likelihood of use of assertive negotiation strategies by the individual in case of spousal conflict about TSES purchasing.

Proposition Five: At the individual level, greater perceived product instrumentality of a particular TSES product will result in active participation of the individual in the purchasing process of that particular product.

MODEL MAIN COMPONENTS INTERACTIONS

As stated in the model, household product ownership (HPO), purchasing influence strategies (PIS), and purchasing role configuration (PRC) will be affected via a network of input (income, age, education, etc.), and process (Role Ideology, Role Performance, Role Overload, and Perceived Product Instrumentality) variables relationships. Some of these relationships are in order. I do not intend to pinpoint every possible relationship between the model components presented above. My objective here is just to emphasise the relationships that are referred to in the literature and that will constitute the basic tenants for the proposition of interaction terms in the comprehensive model testing phase.

Socio-Demographics/ Role Ideology/ Role Performance. Many resources are associated with housekeeping tasks. Women who contribute with resources to the marriage tend to spend less time in housekeeping (Maret and Finlay 1984). Recently, resources are found to be moderated by norms: both men's and women's attitudes and needs towards women's roles in the home and in the workforce directly influence the distribution of labour (Hardesty and Bokemeier 1989). These attitudes and needs stem not only from environmental and cultural norms some of which may underlie male dominance, but also from the growing recognition of women's provider role as a major component of family life.

The bread-winning role is a more important determinant of role sharing than employment status per se (Hood 1986). As long as women's labour is construed as a privilege for her rather than a necessity for her family, her husband will not do more family work (Hardesty and Bokemeier 1989). The more egalitarian these attitudes, the more the role sharing. Working and non-working women should not be treated as homogeneous segments. Among both, traditionals and moderns are identified, with traditionals agreeing more with assigning women to traditional roles and egalitarians being less inclined to enjoy housekeeping tasks (Reynolds et al. 1977). Egalitarian views are most likely to be found among higher social statuses (Buss and Schaninger 1983).

Socio-Demographics/ Role Overload/ Role Performance. The role competition theory whereby there is a structured competition between an individual's

occupational roles are not verified for the case of men. Controlling for income, education, wives' time and role expectations, husbands' work time does not significantly reduce their participation in the housekeeper, the therapeutic and the recreational roles (Hall 1987). Attitudes are also influenced by multiple role obligations; the more demands on the spouses' time, that is the more role behaviour patterns they involve in, the less traditional views they will hold (McBroom 1987). Rather than being associated with multiple role obligations, role overload depends on the homemaking role quality which is rather associated with demographics. Number of children is expected to increase it, material resources to alleviate it (Kibria et al. 1990).

Role Overload/ Role Ideology/ Product Ownership. The relationship between product ownership and role overload has been investigated with the expectation that a working wife should experience more overload than a non-working wife and as a consequence, is supposed to own overload relieving products. But data on household purchasing consistently fail to indicate any differences in convenience consumption patterns among employed wives' families (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983). Either working does not necessarily lead to role overload, or convenience consumption is not used to reduce overload. Again, support for the first of these two assumptions comes from multiple role involvement gratification (Reilly 1982). The role overload experience depends also on women's role attitudes. "Career-oriented" wives hold more egalitarian views than "just-a-job" ones and feel stronger work and time pressures, and are consequently found to use more convenience food (Shaninger et al. 1993). Because of the interest in overload-relieving products, they will perceive the products as necessary for alleviating stress.

Socio-Demographics/ Role Ideology/Purchasing Influence Strategies. On the basis of the resource theory, it has been found, in countries like the US; Austria and France, that the greater resources one has, the greater power s/he has in the relationship. Resources can include material (money) or non-material (culture) attributes. Hence recent research tends to introduce nonmaterial moderator factors such as role attitude or role ideology.⁷ As a situation variable, ideology is found to be a significant factor of influence strategies use in conflict situations. Sex role traditionalists (SRT) utilize concession modes and sex role moderns (SRM) employ

negotiative means of conflict resolution (Qualls 1983, 1987). SRT utilise capitulation modes and SRM employ compromise as a means of conflict resolution (Qualls 1983). Some sociologists contend that influence strategies use is rooted into profound sociological changes. Women are replacing their traditionally relative passivity with more assertive and individualistic negotiation processes (Scanzoni 1977). While traditional women tend to negotiate with the husband on the basis of collective interests-what is best for the family group, modern women tend to negotiate more in terms of their own individualistic interests. Traditional women negotiate in a reactive fashion, but modern women are less reactive and involve in more give and take processes (Scanzoni 1977).

Socio-Demographics/ Role Ideology/ Purchasing Role Configuration. A whole array of demographic variables having some impact upon household role distribution and purchasing responsibility is considered. In particular, wives' employment is found to be significantly related to power structure in the families: husbands in dual-career families have significantly less power across various decisions. Employed wives' families are more often wife-dominated and non-employed wives' families are more often husband-dominated (Green et al. 1983). In line with these views, different sex-role norms are found to lead to different task allocations and purchase responsibilities (Buss and Schaninger 1983). Husbands who are sex-role traditionalists consistently perceive their levels of influence to be higher than their wives' and sex-role modern husbands. In contrast, wives in both groups, sex role traditionalists and sex-role moderns, exhibit patterns of influence perceptions which are rather similar to each other.

One noticeable pattern in the link of family role structure with sex-role orientation is that the joint influence perceived by spouses who are sex-role modern is higher than that perceived by spouses who are sex-role traditional (Qualls 1983). It has been hypothesized that households subscribing to male dominance ideology will exhibit traditional responsibility patterns with the husband assuming responsibility for financial decisions and the wife for household activities. Those subscribing to egalitarian philosophy are characterized by a greater degree of joint responsibility in the various decision areas.

However, there is little indication of any systematic relationship between marital role attitudes and responsibility patterns. The observed pattern of decision making and task allocation appears to be somewhat complex and difficult to categorise in terms of dominant-authority concept. In some cases, the dominant partner is clearly indicated but, the nature of the family authority structure is by no means clear (Green et al. 1983). Hence, results of the investigation of individual differences between households in the allocation of responsibility for various decision areas and tasks suggest that the distributions seldom reflect a dominant authority pattern. Even among families in which a dominant authority pattern seems to exist, it appears more clearly in relation to the traditional sex-specialized areas such as financial decisions or housekeeping, rather than new or open areas, such as shopping or choosing vacations (Douglas and Wind 1978).

Role Ideology/ Role Overload/ Perceived Product Instrumentality. Both the rational (utilitarian) value and the symbolic (identity) value are key to determining PPI. The more a product is invested with these values, the higher its perceived instrumentality. For instance, a time and effort saving product will be selected only if it is deemed congruent with the self concept. Consequently, those who identify more with the homemaker role will select products that reinforce such an identity. As long as it is deemed helpful, efficacious and as long as it is perceived as congruent with the self-concept, it is deemed instrumental. But if it is not deemed practical or jeopardising the self-concept, it is not perceived as instrumental. So a product can be deemed uninstrumental even if it is objectively helpful and efficient in performing tasks.

Hence the same product having an objective utilitarian value may be perceived differently by two individuals having different self concepts. The product will be perceived as having a high degree of instrumentality by the individual who invests it with high identity value and as having a low degree of instrumentality by the individual who invests it with a low identity value. For instance, a pressure-cooker would be perceived differently by two women having objectively the same demographic background - such as employment status. It will not be perceived as instrumental by a home-oriented woman because of its incompatibility with the concept of herself as a diligent homemaker and good cook; but it will be considered

as highly instrumental by a career or profession-oriented women because it helps her reinforce the concept of herself as a professional and because of the salience of her worker sub-identity in comparison with her homemaker sub-identity.

Role Performance/ Role Overload/Perceived Product Instrumentality.

Research findings on household role distribution is conflictual and cannot reveal any clear patterns. On the one hand, responsibility distribution is found to be role specific. Even if husbands in dual worker families are found to share housework with their wives, it is not done to the extent that their wives share market work (Kibria et al. 1990). The more one is involved in performing a task, the more he/she will be sensitive to products that facilitate role performance and enhance the quality of role enactment. The more a product helps perform a task, i.e., is seen as enhancing role skills, the more it is deemed practical, helpful, efficacious in reducing overload, the more its perceived instrumentality. A working woman usually experiences more role overload than her non-working counterpart. However, eventual positive outcomes from occupying an additional position, the actor's commitment to the role, time and energy demands in her position set may explain why the positive relation is not evident (Reilly 1982).

I contend that the relation between demographics and consumption choices is not only moderated by role overload, but also by perceived product instrumentality. The identification of the homemaking role can be demanding and gratifying at the same time (Kibria et al. 1990). Consequently, a woman who has children, who is eventually overloaded, and who has limited material resources may still perceive certain types of time and effort saving products - such as a pressure-cooker or a dishwasher as having a low degree of instrumentality because of her strong attachment to the homemaker identity and the eventual incompatibility with her housewife role. Perceived product instrumentality is high only when the product is deemed helpful, efficient in performing a role, and also congruent with the self concept. The more the practicality of the product, the more its congruence with the self concept and with role orientations, the higher its perceived instrumentality.

Role Performance / Role Overload/ Purchasing Role Configuration. From the problem solving perspective of purchasing behaviour, products are purchased for the solutions they bring to the user. Products may help in the performance of certain

roles. Consequently, those who are involved in roles that are time and effort demanding will be very active in influencing the purchasing process related to the role performance of that particular role. Hence a pressure cooker, an electric or a microwave oven will be of interest to the person responsible for family lunching, the dishwasher to the person involved into washing the dishes, the electrical coffee-maker to the person involved in preparing breakfast, and so on. The more problems a product solves, the stronger its appeal to the consumer. The seriousness of the problem to be solved affects its attractiveness. For instance, contemporary women face problems daily. They buy pieces of equipment in the hope of solving their problems. Those who have more time constraints and are overloaded are more sensitive to such products. The more products are perceived as capable of solving problems and of reducing overload, the more individuals will be involved in the purchasing process, particularly in the need identification phase.

Role Performance/ Perceived Product Instrumentality/ Purchasing Role Configuration. An investigation of role configuration in family purchasing reveals that influence within the household is product specific (Davis 1970). Some specific decisions are wife dominant in one product category but husband dominant in another. So to an extent, household influence is also role-specific. In verifying if there is a relation between the different roles in purchasing decisions, it is found that roles are significantly related to other roles within the same product category but are not related to other decisions across different product categories (Davis 1970).

I contend that the types of role arrangements between husbands and wives will determine purchasing role configuration. Because roles are to be perceived as systems (Araji 1977; Hood 1986), purchasing role configuration cannot be properly investigated without reference to broader role distribution. Consequently purchasing role distribution is part of broader arrangements of role sharing among spouses. Because of eventual role interchangeability, it is expected that both men and women can be involved in performing a variety of roles to varying degrees. The more a partner is involved in a particular role, the more s/he will perceive the product that helps perform that role as instrumental, the more he/she will be involved in the purchasing process. In particular, the need identification phase of the process will be greatly influenced by the degree of involvement of the partner in the specific role.

NOTES

- 1- The idea of integrating both attitudes and behaviour in the same model is new to marketing, but not to sociology. White (1983) adopted the methodology of investigating attitudes and behaviour in identifying structural determinants of spousal interaction. He proposed two measures of sex-role traditionalism, one behavioural, and the other attitudinal.
- 2- Hood (1986) found that couples in America are much slower to relinquish the husband-as-economic-provider-role as an abstract ideal than they are to give it up as a standard for their own families and that wives are readier to agree that they are actually co-providers than they are to accept the notion that they have the duty to. The women's contribution is important and perhaps necessary. However, only a minority will agree that the duty to provide should be shared equally. Provider roles are determined not only by employment status and income generation (behaviour), but also by each spouse's expectations of the other as provider (attitudes) as well as each spouse's role attachment and role relinquishment. Bread-winning responsibility (which is basically tapped through attitudinal data) was a more important determinant of domestic role sharing than was the women's employment status (behavioural), (Hood, 1986). Walker (1989) noted that in spite of all the talk about egalitarian ideology, what women and men "ought" to do are not connected with the division of family work.
- 3- The notion of overload has both contributed to and reinforced the popular view of homemaking as a purely burdensome aspect of employed women's lives. This is based on two implicit assumptions: homemaking is of less importance than paid work to employed women and homemaking is a purely negative aspect of employed women's lives. But the primacy of paid employment over family work is thought to have an implicit class bias because it is based on a "dual-career" family model which reflects the reality of a minority of women's lives. Recent studies have shown that, rather than being purely burdensome, homemaking like many other activities, is composed of both negative and positive dimensions (Kibria et al. 1990).
- 4- The different categories of meaning and the different classes of buying motives are also reminiscent of other important conceptualisations in the consumer behaviour literature which are quite relevant for the PPI construct. From the consumer involvement perspective (Laurent and Kapferer 1985), most of the phenomena alluded to as sources of meaning (Richins 1994a) or as symbolic intangible attributes (Hirshman and Holbrook 1982) are referred to as sources of consumer involvement. According to Laurent and Kapferer, knowing only that the individual is or is not involved gives rather a static description of consumers, but knowing the sources of involvement gives a dynamic picture of consumers. It follows from the involvement conceptualisation that products may have different "meaning configurations" or "motive mixes" or still, "instrumentality profiles". Consequently, and on the basis of the above conceptualisations of Laurent and Kapferer (1985), no single facet of instrumentality alone catches the richness of the relationship between a consumer and a product. From the perspective of buying as problem solving, a product is appreciated because it solves the consumer's problems. The more problems a product solves, the stronger its appeal to the consumer. The seriousness of the problem to be solved affects the attractiveness of the product, hence its perceived instrumentality. Contemporary couples are facing problems daily. They buy pieces of equipment in the hope of solving their problems. Those who have more time constraints are more sensitive to such products. The more products are capable of solving problems, the more their perceived product instrumentality. From the self-concept theory perspective, the individual is striving to buy goods which are believed to express a desired image or to convey an impression. It should be pointed out that products, while appealing to some rational motive may be at odds with an emotional motive.
- 5- In joint decisions for major durable purchases, an influence strategies mix is used more often. Expert influence is reflected in the enumeration of specific information concerning the various alternatives. Legitimate influence deals with one spouse's attempts to draw upon the others' feelings of shared values concerning their role expectations. Bargaining involves attempts by one spouse to turn the joint decision into an autonomous one in return for some favor granted to the other. Reward/referent involves an individual's ability to reward the other and behave in a way perceived as ideal by the other. Emotional influence involves nonverbal techniques such as getting

angry, crying, keeping silent. Impression management involves attributing the influence attempt to external pressures beyond the influencer's control. According to Spiro (1983), there is an interest into investigating the spouse's use of an influence strategy mix, as opposed to influence strategies per se, in disagreement situation. Differences exist in the level of influence used and in the patterns of use of alternative strategies. Individuals are found to use different combinations of influence strategies during their attempts to persuade one another. Other strategies are also used. Concession is a form of conflict resolution in which one spouse gives in to the preference desires of the other spouse with very little resistance. It can be made without any promise for future consideration. Negotiation is characterized by mutual satisfaction of both husbands' and wives' individual preferences. It includes bargaining, problem solving, compromise, and sequential concessions. Regardless of which means is utilized, negotiation requires a give-and-take attitude (Qualls 1983). Bargaining is characterized by spousal discussion in which some fair exchange between preferences is achieved such that both spouses' preferences are maximally satisfied to the extent possible (Qualls 1987).

- 6- At times, the transition to a modern, i. e., westernized mode of interaction between the spouses, one that is generally characterized as egalitarian and emotionally nucleated, does not necessarily produce the predicted increase in the wife's efficacy. Instead, it blurs previously clear-cut domains of autonomy, severs the wife's tie to "traditional", social, and kin networks, and creates confrontations in previously non-confrontational situations. In the absence of new bases of power to replace loss of autonomy, the net effect is, more often than not, an overall decrease in the wife's ability to prevail in the domestic bargain. Hence degree of autonomy should replace power as the major predictor of the outcome of the domestic bargain. By studying domestic politics, results show that, rather than using power in a direct confrontation in order to achieve their goals, women prefer to use their power to carve out and delineate a domain of autonomy within which they can effectively pursue their goals. This finding, very much in keeping with the "duofocal" family norm, suggests that analysis of household be built on in-depth understanding of the specific cultural context in question. This leads researchers to prefer the relative influence concept to the power concept in evaluating household purchasing configurations.
- 7- The "theory of resources in cultural context" posits that the effect of resources on power is different under different cultural or normative conditions. With respect to household power, resources are positively related to power in relatively egalitarian cultures but negatively related to power in modified patriarchal cultures. Thus, women cannot influence marital decisions because the norms prevent them from doing so regardless of their relative contributions of resources to the marriage. Marriage still brings with it the firmly established tradition of the man as provider and achiever (Steil and Weltman 1991). Women's power is found to be greater in societies with nuclear family structures than in those typified by extended families. Women's power varies according to customs of residence and descent, and is higher in societies with matrilineal than with patrilineal customs (Warner et al. 1986). Hence, the authors concluded that the resource theory was developed in a society characterized by a nuclear family system. Many societies however are characterized by a non-nuclear family structure, and thus more family roles may be involved in the negotiation process. A typology of ideal type societies is presented in the form of different stages of social development. Patriarchy is characterized by strong patriarchal family norms, with a high level of paternal authority. Modified patriarchy is characterized by patriarchal family norms that have been modified by egalitarian norms at the upper strata. Transitional egalitarianism is characterized by egalitarian family norms replacing patriarchal norms and in which there is normative flexibility about marital power. What differentiates them from societies in the first two stages is that power roles are achieved, not prescribed through the attainment of goals that the society deems important such resources as education, occupation, income. Egalitarianism is characterized by egalitarian family norms and a high level of husband-wife sharing of power. This typology which mainly derives from measures of the allocation of decision making authority between spouses appears to be readily acceptable to purchasing decisions (Green et al. 1983).

PART III

METHODOLOGY AND PRELIMINARY ANALYSES

Chapter 10

Research Methodology, Measurements, and Scales

Research Methodology, Measurements, and Scales

In order to test the above model, a data bank was constituted based on a three-part questionnaire which was written in English then translated into Arabic. Part one deals with household information and contains sections on identification and socioeconomic characteristics of the household, an assessment of an array of durables ownership as well as of relative influence of spouses throughout the purchasing process. The other two parts, one for the husband and one for the wife, were administered separately via personal interviews and contained socioeconomic, attitudinal, and behavioural measures (see Main Appendix B).

BROAD OUTLINE

A broad outline of the methodology is mentioned before details about measures. All scales are standard and are adapted to the project needs. The only nonstandard scale is perceived product instrumentality (PPI). Details about PPI scale validation, development, and measurement are given in the next chapter. The model components have the following formats:

Socioeconomic Characteristics (SEC)

SEC of the couple is tapped by standard classifications schemes: age, education, employment status of each, as well as number, sex and ages of children. These scales will serve as a basis for deriving such composite measures as Social Position, Family Life-Cycle, Family Working Combination, Time Availability and so on.

Role Ideology (RI)

RI is tapped by standard Role Orientations scale which was general enough to include role prescriptions and orientations, attitudes towards the provider and the housekeeping roles and towards women's work involvement (Brogan and Kutnar 1976; White 1983).

Role Performance (RP)

RP is tapped by questions evaluating husbands' and wives' actual involvement in performing and sharing selected roles such as housekeeping, washing clothes, cooking, etc. (Clark et al. 1978; Barnett and Baruch 1987; Berardo et al. 1987).

Role Overload (RO)

RO is tapped using the Role Overload Scale (ROS) devised by Reilly (1982) and validated by Burns and Foxman (1989): containing 13 items in Likert-scale.

Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI)

PPI is tapped by a Likert-item five-point scale whereby respondents will be invited to react to a set of statements. This scale is basically based on qualitative research drawing on consumer involvement (Laurent and Kapferer 1985) and on product meanings and values (Richins 1994a).

Household Product Ownership (HPO)

HPO is evaluated through an assessment of the couples' ownership of a set of durables (Corfman and Lehmann, 1987; Corfman et al. 1991; Oropesa 1993). A whole array of products and time-saving devices will be utilized in order to identify consumption patterns.

Purchasing Role Configuration (PRC)

PRC is investigated by asking husbands and wives together or either of them to evaluate their relative contribution throughout the purchasing process identified by consumer behaviour researchers (Engel et al. 1995 ; Wilkes 1975; Hempel 1974). Wilkes (1975) demonstrated the similarity of husband-wife perceptions about their relative influence in the decision activity.

Purchasing Influence Strategies (PIS)

PIS, or purchasing power behaviours, can be assessed through having respondents react individually to a set of influence behaviours given a list of marital purchasing situations. These will basically be adapted from the consumer behaviour literature (Spiro 1983) and from the sociology literature on power use in marital settings (White 1988; Yukie and Falbo 1991).

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

The research instrument consists of a questionnaire originally written in English, then translated into Arabic (See Main Appendix C). A cover letter from the project director and a description of the study are attached to the questionnaire. The questionnaire has three parts: a joint section and two individual separate sections, one for each spouse. The joint section contains

household demographics, ownership of major and minor durables, and information about hired help and distribution of household labor and of purchasing responsibility (Schaninger et al. 1993).

Interviewing husband and wife jointly is only at times warranted. Some researchers indicate that role behaviours cannot be adequately reported by either husband or wife alone (Davis 1970). It is therefore advisable that couples be provided with the opportunity to discuss their responses, which is particularly important for questions that need recollection of events. Joint interviewing is thought to introduce biases, since it is possible for one spouse to dominate and force a view on the other.

On the whole, many experienced interviewers have reported that the couples were able to agree on the role structure questions with little difficulty (Wilkes 1975; Rosen and Granbois 1983). In this project, joint interviewing is only administered for the household section, and is not a necessity. The procedure of interviewing only one spouse is more practical and has been accepted as reliable anyway (Wilkes). Details about measurement procedures will be given below in terms of input, process, and output variables as they appear in the model.

Input variables : Socio-Economic Characteristics (SEC)

Socioeconomic characteristics that are deemed important for this project are age, income, education, employment status, as well as number, sex, and ages of children.

Income. Some researchers such as Walker (1989) have used income categories ; others have used categories with midpoints representing each category (Davis and Robinson, 1988). Maret and Finlay (1984) have categorized wages into low, moderate and high. Still others have collected information on income in terms of value such as last year's earning for each spouse (Clark et al. 1978). In this project, income is classified into nine categories ranging from « none » (particularly applicable to non-working wives without resources) to « 2001 Dinars or more ». Total family income may be the sum of both spouses' or the position of a scale ranging from 1 to 9. These index numbers have revealed high correlations with the midpoints of intervals in previous research

(Stroberg and Weinberg 1980). Both spouses are asked about their relative income, because by asking questions on total family income, there could be a tendency towards underestimation. Family income will eventually be generated by combining men's and women's incomes. Then, the family income categories are recoded to the midpoint. Then, the relative personal income of wives is calculated as the ratio of wife's to husbands' income.

Education. It is usually tapped in terms of years of formal schooling (Clark et al 1978; White 1983), but some researchers prefer the use of categories of educational attainment. In this project, education will be divided into eight categories and will eventually be recoded to the midpoint of the number of years corresponding to each category.¹

Age. Age for both spouses is divided up into 8 categories and then recoded to the midpoint of the number of years corresponding to each category.

Children. Respondents are asked to list their children by sex and age. This response is then recoded into three variables : the number and the age of children that the couple have.² Following the approach adopted by Nock (1979), data about children and their ages may serve to construct family life cycle as a variable with seven values the stages of which are presented in Appendix 10-A.

Employment Status. In some studies, only women's employment status has been measured. In other studies both husbands' and wives' statuses have been considered. Women's employment itself is either dichotomized, trichotomised or tapped by more complex schemes. Hardesty and Bokemeier (1989) classified women's employment into unemployed, employed part-time, and employed full time. Maret and Finlay (1984) classified women's labor force attachment into low, moderate and high categories. Schaninger and Allen (1981) proposed a three-way classification scheme: non working wife (NWW), low-occupational status working wife (LSW), and high occupational-status working wife (HSW). In this project, women are asked whether they were working and were being paid for a job either inside or outside the home (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980).

Work-Week Length. Some researchers proposed to include work week length in addition to status (Burns & Foxman 1989) which helped derive measures of time availability. Other researchers measured work hours by asking

« how many hours per week do you usually spend at your job or jobs ». Response categories were : « 1-14 » « 15-39 », « 40 », « 41-48 » , « 49-59 », and « 60 or more » (Clark et al. 1978). In this project, work-week length is assessed to evaluate time availability which can represent an important explanatory variable of role overload (Burns and Foxman 1989) and of involvement in household role performance (Clark et al. 1978).

Process Variables

Role Ideology (RI). Early developers of normative scales emphasized a type of equality-inequality continuum between men and women, but such scales now tend to emphasize roles of both sexes in terms of a “traditional” versus a “modern” tendency (Rosen and Granbois 1983). Qualls (1982; 1983) measured Sex Role Orientations by the Osmond-Martin Sex-Role Attitude Scale (O.M.S.R.A.S) which involves familial role, extra-familial role, stereotypical male-female role and social change. Based on the OMSRAS each household was classified as sex-role modern (SRM), sex role traditional (SRT), or sex-role opposite (SRO). Hardesty and Bokemeier (1989) used the Sex Role Ideology Scale (SRIS), a five item Likert-type scale ranging from 5 to 25 coded so that high score indicates traditional views of domestic sex roles.

White (1983) used a summated scale composed of seven items measuring norms about men’s and women’s roles. Because of its simplicity, this is utilized to measure RI in the project and is conceptualized as Role Ideology. It is operationalized through the use of the same seven items constructed into an additive Likert scale. The items are provided in Appendix 10-B. The scale is found to be unidimensional and has proved to be reliable (White 1983). The scale is deemed practical and relevant not only because it is short and manageable, but also because it contains the main areas linked with opinions of both husbands and wives about women’s work (items 1, 3, 5), about the housekeeper and the provider roles prescriptions and proscriptions (items 2, 4, 5, 7), and about family and work identities (items 1, 2, 4, 6). The scale has been previously validated and is deemed adequate in accounting for differences among spouses in role norms and beliefs.

Five response categories are provided: “strongly agree”, “rather agree”, “neither agree nor disagree”, “rather disagree” and “strongly disagree”. These items are recoded with 1 representing the most traditional and 5 the least traditional response, creating a possible range of 7 to 35. However, some researchers do not agree with summated ratings and contend that scores on each item should not be treated equally among respondents and simply summated to yield a total score (Barry et al. 1985). Instead, they propose to assign criteria weights differently to respondents by judges of different demographic profiles whose scores are then averaged and rounded to obtain composite respondents’ ratings (Ventakesh 1980). In any cases, the scale in this study is dichotomized and is used to classify respondents into “Role Traditionals” and “Role Moderns” on the basis of the average summated or weighted scores. In the case of trichotomization, the « Role Moderates » category is included as an intermediate position.

Role Performance (RP). On the basis of a self-administered questionnaire, using basically a 5 point scale (husband entirely, husband more than wife, husband and wife equally, wife more than husband, and wife entirely), Clark et al. (1978) measured role sharing for the housekeeping and recreation roles as follows: in your family, who does the (corresponding) role? Araj (1977) utilized seven roles: the provider, the housekeeper, the child care, the girls and boys socialization, the recreation and kinship roles. Berardo et al. (1987) investigated household role performance by assessing husbands’ and wives’ weekly hours of housework. Respondents were asked: « about how much time do you spend on housework in an average week ». Roles involved are cooking cleaning, and other tasks around the house.

Albrecht et al. (1979) used the provider, the housekeeper, the kinship, and the child-care roles as indicators of household responsibility distribution. The response categories were husband entirely, husband more than wife, husband and wife equally, wife more than husband, and does not matter. White (1983) used an indicator asking which spouse usually does routine tasks that have to be done- cleaning the house, cleaning up after meals, cooking dinner, etc. It is scored from 1 to 5, the highest value assigned when the wife does all of this work and the

lowest when she does none. Maret and Finlay (1984) assessed levels of responsibility on a three-point scale (where 1=someone else; 2=shared responsibility and 3=sole responsibility) for six domestic tasks: grocery shopping, child care, cooking, washing dishes, cleaning the house and washing clothes. On the basis of these items, an overall index of home responsibility was calculated with values ranging from 12 (no responsibility) to 36 (sole responsibility).

Barnett and Baruch (1987) assessed household responsibility for 11 child care and 9 home tasks as follows: for each child care task, an estimate percentage of the time it is done by the father alone, by the parents together, and by the mother alone is given. As for the performance of house chores, parents jointly report hours each spent for a typical week on the household tasks. Five of these were commonly seen as “feminine” (meal preparation, cleaning the house, laundry, grocery shopping, and meal cleanup and four were commonly seen as “masculine” (general repair, yard work, car repairs, and paying bills). The absolute amount of time per week each parent spent in each chore was calculated. Scores were combined for the 5 feminine tasks and for the 4 masculine tasks.

Nyquist et al. (1970) devised the Household Activities Questionnaire (HAQ) which contained 27 items listing traditional female tasks, traditional male tasks, and decision-making responsibilities within the home. Both husband and wife were asked to rate independently how the responsibility for getting tasks done was divided between the spouses in their household. « Responsibility for a task included either actually completing the task oneself or supervising its completion ». Respondents indicated on a five-point scale how responsibility for a particular task was divided. A score of 1 signifies that the responsibility is almost completely the husband's, a score of 3 signifies that the husband and the wife shared equally, and a score of 5 signifies that the responsibility is almost completely the wife's. A factor analysis was conducted on the items scale to generate household responsibility dimensions. For each respondent, scale scores were computed by summing the responses of the items on the factor (Nyquist et al. 1970).

On the basis of preliminary analysis, eight items were dropped from the original pool of 27 items. A factor analysis was conducted separately for

husbands and wives on the remaining 19 items of the HAQ. (The HAQ is provided in Appendix 10-E). Four factors were extracted and were similar for both sexes. The four factors were House, Maintenance, Child and Decision. For each respondent, scale scores were computed by summing the responses of the items on the factor. Cronbach's Alpha ranged from .55 to .80.

Some researchers used the chart time method to record time use of all family members over the age of six. The instrument was a 24-hour time chart subdivided into 10-minute segments and organized in the following categories : food preparation; dish-washing; shopping; housecleaning; maintenance of home, yard, car, and pets; care of clothing; clothing construction; physical care of family members; nonphysical care of family members; school work; paid work; unpaid work in a family and volunteer service; organization participation, social and recreational activities; personal care of self including sleep; eating; and other. Because two or more activities often occurred simultaneously in the same time, respondents are asked to indicate which activity received primary attention. Analyses were restricted to primary activities (Nickols and Fox 1983).

In this project, only roles that are deemed relevant to time saving and effort sparing durables purchasing are considered. Respondents are asked who does particular tasks. Most of the tasks are adapted from the HAQ and from previously cited sources (Hardesty and Bokemeier 1989; Maret and Finlay 1984; Green and Cunningham 1975). Tasks reported in this project are the following : cleaning the house, washing clothes, cooking the main meals, washing the dishes , preparing breakfast, and shopping for groceries. The addition of the alternative « responsibility for a task includes either actually completing the task oneself or supervising its completion» was meant to account for eventual involvement of hired help and extended family members in domestic activities. Adding another category labeled someone else may be worthwhile, but as such an involvement is meant to help the main actors (the husband and the wife) and usually concerned with non-strategic household decisions, the category « someone else » is not added to the response categories provided in the questionnaire.

Role Overload (RO). Chusmir and Koberg (1986) devised and validated the Sex Role Conflict Scale (SRCS). It is a 17-item scale applicable to either men or women. Schaninger et al. (1993) used a scale for measuring work and time pressures by a 7-item scale. It is deemed relevant only for working women. The Role Overload scale is posited as a moderator between number of children, work status, age, and convenience consumption (Reilly 1982) and between more or less the same socio-economic characteristics and women's use of advertising (Burns and Foxman 1989). The latter study provided validation for the former study and for the Role Overload scale. On this basis, it is used in the project. Items included are provided in Appendix 10-C.

The only minor adaptation brought to the RO scale is its administration to both husbands and wives and the replacement of the word women by husbands for the case of male respondents. In fact Reilly (1982) administered his scale only to female respondents. It is my contention that the scale can adequately apply to both men and women. As reported by Reilly (1982) and by Burns and Foxman (1989), sum scores of the items are used to measure the construct, in case unidimensionality is ascertained. Response categories range from "strongly agree" (coded 1) to strongly disagree (coded 5), creating a possible range of 13 (most overloaded) to 65 (least overloaded). The scale is then dichotomized to categorise respondents into most overloaded versus least overloaded. An alternative way is summing the items rated on a 5-point scale then dividing by the number of completed questions to form an average measure (Denton and Zeytinoglu 1993). This can be a safeguard solution for handling non-responses within the scale.

The integration of both attitude and behaviour has been applied in sociological research. White (1983) used two measures of sex-traditionalism, one behavioural and the other attitudinal. The behavioural measure is a single item indicator asking which spouse usually does routine tasks that have to be done. The attitudinal measure is a summated scale composed of seven items measuring norms about men's and women's roles.

Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI). This is the only nonstandard variable. It is derived from focus-group interviews and of pilot survey in the form of Likert-type scales. Then, both husbands and wives are asked to rate

independently their agreement about the items on a 5-point scale ranging from “completely agree” (coded 1) to “completely disagree” (coded 5), for the case of two durable goods. These durables serve as stimuli for PPI measurement with the expectation that the least important would be the durable with the lowest PPI score and vice versa. In fact, it would be ideal to measure PPI on each durable, irrespective of whether the respondent owns or does not own the product in question; but because of time constraints and practicality considerations, just a few durables are considered for PPI measurement.

Following the scale purification procedure adopted by Niquist et al. (1970), an exploratory factor analysis is conducted on the original 33-items scale to assess unidimensionality. The final 15-items scale is provided in Appendix 10-D. This is drawn from a larger 33-item scale via exploratory research. Sources of these items are twofold, a literature review and in-depth interviews of a sample of housewives. A survey was conducted to simplify the measures and obtain scales that would be satisfactory psychometrically and short enough to be of practical use (Laurent and Kapferer 1985). According to pilot survey research, the PPI scale implied unidimensionality. Yet, further reliability and validity analyses would be conducted to ensure unidimensionality (Nyquist et al. 1970).

Despite the fact that it is not product specific, the PPI scale can only be administered in relationship with particular products. Ideally, the scale can be performed for each product presented as stimulus for attitude and preference assessment. Because the scale is a bit long, only 3 products are used as stimuli for PPI measurement, one major (dishwasher), and one minor (pressure-cooker) durable, and another in-between (multifunction processor).

Output Variables

Household Product Ownership, Preferences, and Prioritization (HPO). Because the researchers in consumer behaviour so far have indicated that extended rather than limited decision behaviour was associated with relatively expensive purchased products, most research stimuli were major household goods (Wilkes 1975). In particular, stimuli that were deemed relevant to household role distribution and marital arrangements were time saving and effort sparing products (TSES). As a matter of fact, previous researchers used products that

were linked with the core issue they dealt with (see Appendix 10-F for details about previous research stimuli). As for the present study, following the procedure adopted by Corfman et al. (1991), it assesses ownership of a long list of durables among which time saving and effort sparing devices are of utmost importance.

This survey does not permit the analysis of gift giving from within or outside the household, and does not separate recent purchasers who were previously non-owners from recent purchasers who were previously owners in search for a replacement or upgrade (Oropesa 1993). Stroberg and Weinberg (1980) used an array of durables including what they labelled low penetration items (microwave oven), medium penetration items (dishwasher, freezer, and dryer) and near-saturation items (washer, stove, and refrigerator). All other things being equal, I tried to include as many products of these three types as possible in the project.

Preferences. In addition to durables ownership, preferences were also measured. In the literature, preferences are usually assessed by use of one of the three following procedures : the endpoint anchoring technique, the constant-sum scale, and the product importance assessment scale.³ (See details about these techniques in note 3).

In order to evaluate preferences of time-saving durables in comparison with their time-consuming counterparts, the following procedure is adopted. For each household role, a pair of products are presented to the consumer in a way that his/her preference for either of both is assessed. Hence for some selected activities, pairs of products are chosen in such a way that attitudes towards time-saving and effort-sparing (TSES) products can be ascertained. The scale is in the following format : « for the following activities (cooking, meat processing, roasting, preparing the morning coffee, washing clothes, dish-washing) can you please tell which of the two alternatives presented below you prefer, irrespective of whether you own the product in question or not ». For example, for cooking, I prefer, (1) the pressure cooker to the normal pot, (2) the normal pot to the pressure cooker, (3) indifferent. Most of these products are chosen because of their significance for contemporary couples' everyday life and role performance,

everyday life and role performance, as demonstrated in the focus groups discussions that were previously performed for perceived product instrumentality construct validation. Technically, this data format may be amenable to the law of comparative judgment.

Purchasing Role Configuration (PRC). Wilkes (1975) demonstrated the similarity of husband-wife perceptions about their relative influence in the decision activity. He used the following phases in the study: problem recognition, search for information, final decision and purchase. Respondents were found to be able to identify their influence in these stages, with minimum apparent difficulty. Thus he concluded that marketers should investigate the entire decision process since relative influence could vary from one decision phase to the next. Hempel (1974) provided support to Wilke's model and measured relative influence of each spouse throughout the different stages of the house buying process. After trichotomisation of the influence variable, an overall index of perceived dominance was computed by adding scores for the five house decisions. Family role structure was classified into husband dominant, wife dominant, syncratic and autonomic (12-15 = husband dominant or shares all 5 decisions; 5-9 = wife dominant or shares all 5 decisions; 10-11 = syncratic: at least 3 are joint and dominance is balanced; 10-11 = autonomic: not more than 2 decisions are joint but dominance is balanced). Shukla and Kapoor (1990) asked respondents to indicate for 16 general household decisions who actually made the given decision on a 5 point scale ranging from wife always through husband and wife equally to husbands always. Possible scores of purchasing responsibility could thus range from 16 to 80. Two scores for each respondent were computed: Relative Authority Index (RA) and Degree of Shared Authority Index (DS). RA was the sum of weights across the 16 decision. DS was simply the frequency of joint husbands and wife decisions. On the basis of RA and DS, families were classified into one of the four authority types mentioned (WD, when RA=16-39; HD when RA=57-80; Autonomic: RA=40-56, and DS=1-8; Syncratic: RA= 40-56, and DS= 9-16). Perception of personal influence was sometimes measured differently by a 100-point constant-sum-scale ranging from husband dominant (HD) through joint decision (JD), to wife dominant (WD).

Since the Blood and Wolfe categorisation utilised by Davis and Hempel (1974) in marketing and by Shukla and Kapoor (1990) in marital power behaviour proved plausible and had face validity as well as logical consistency, it is adopted in the study. In this project, PRC is measured via the following decision process: (A) who was responsible for initial problem recognition ? (B) Who was responsible for acquiring information about purchase alternatives, (C) Who made the final decision as to which alternative should be purchased, (D) Who made the actual purchase of the product ? (Wilkes 1975). Responses are obtained for one of the following categories: (1) Husband alone, (2) Husband more than wife, (3) Husband and wife equally, (4) Wife more than Husband, (5) Wife alone. Higher scores indicate higher power for husbands.

This project differs from several other studies. Whereas existing research investigates marital roles across several decisions for a single product, this project analyzes influence distribution across and within product purchase decisions because of the use of the same question for each of the same measure of influence for all decisions (Davis 1971) in the case of two durables. However, contrary to Davis, there is no response to the same question from both husband and wife to allow comparison of perceived influence.

The research problem requires histories of buying by attempting to reconstruct the events surrounding the most recent purchases of durables made by the household (Oropesa 1993). The selection of durable purchases is warranted by the fact that they are important family decisions. They are labelled « major economic decisions » (Davis 1970). Besides, two durables are used to assess PRC. It is meaningful to speak of marital roles in reference to at least two decisions so that significant patterns can be revealed. On the basis of the Blood and Wolfe categorisation, the family role configuration is assessed for two durables and is classified into one of the four following decision patterns (Hempel 1974):

TABLE 10-1
Purchasing Decision Pattern

Family Role Structure Dominance	Relevant Decision Pattern	Range of
Husband Dominant	Husband dominates or shares all eight decisions	8 to 16
Wife Dominant	Wife dominates or shares all eight decisions	32 to 40
Syncratic	At least five of the eight decisions are joint and dominance is balanced	17 to 31
Autonomic	Not more than four of the eight decisions are joint but dominance is balanced	17 to 31

Source : Hempel (1974).

Following Shukla and Kapoor (1990), two scores are computed for each respondent: Relative Authority Index (RAI) and Shared Authority Index (SAI). RAI is the sum of weights across the 8 decisions. SAI is simply the frequency of joint husbands and wife decisions. On the basis of RAI and SAI, families are classified into one of the four authority types according to the following scheme:

Table 10-2
Purchasing Role Configuration Scheme

Husband Dominant,	when RAI = 8 to 16 ;
Wife Dominant,	when RAI = 32 to 40 ;
Syncratic,	when RAI = 17 to 31 and SAI = 5 to 8.
Autonomic,	when RAI = 17 to 31 and SAI = 1 to 4.

The first two arrangements reflect *autocratic* power structures because one of the partners in the marital dyad makes unilateral decisions on most of the familial decisions and thus has significantly greater authority than the other. The last two arrangements reflect *egalitarian* power structures because power is distributed somewhat equally, although differently, between the spouses. In the *autonomic* structure, power is equal but divided, with each spouse making independent decisions in his/her areas of interest. In the *syncratic* structure, on the other hand, power is not only equal but also shared, with the two spouses consulting each other on most of the familial issues and making joint decisions. The Blood and Wolfe categorization has been largely supported in the sociology and in the marketing literature.⁴

Purchasing Influence Strategies (PIS). The use of purchasing influence strategies is measured by asking respondents to indicate the extent to which they have used each of the 27 tactics when attempting to influence their superiors. On the basis of factor analysis, influence dimensions are generated. These include ingratiation, rationality, exchange, upward appeal, coalitions, assertiveness and blocking (Drehl et al. 1989). The latter calculated scores for seven influence dimensions by averaging responses across items. The dimensions of influence included ingratiation, rationality, exchange, upward appeal, coalitions, assertiveness, and blocking. Respondents rated the extent to which they had used each tactic by using the following coding categories : 1= to no extent, 2= to a little extent, 3= to a moderate extent, 4= to a considerable extent, and 5= to a great extent. Respondents' scores were computed for the seven dimensions by averaging responses across items.

Other researchers tapped the respondent's influence strategies by asking subjects to describe on a 9-point scale the likelihood of engaging in the behaviours indicated by the scale items. These were 49 single statement items (1= certainly would not do this; 9= certainly would do this; Ansari 1989). These items were factor analyzed in order to generate the following dimensions: assertion and negative sanction, reward and exchange, reasons, expertise and reasons, ingratiation. In order to obtain mean factor scores, item responses were summed up for each subject dividing by the number of items on the factor. Yukie and Falbo (1991) used a 13-item instrument assessing the spouses' preferences for alternative power strategies. It included 13 possible behaviours for enactment. These were (1) Asking, (2) Bargaining, (3) Laissez-faire, (4) Negative Affect, (5) Persistence, (6) Persuasion, (7) Positive Affect, (8) Reasoning, (9) Stating Importance, (10) Hinting, (11) Talking, (12) Telling, and (13) Withdrawal. Subjects rated their likelihood of using each strategy on a 5 point scale in the following *hypothetical situations*: vacation, financing, household chores, parents and so on. For each power strategy, a subject's score was derived by summing up across the five situations to represent the overall tendencies of individuals to use a given influence strategy.

Spiro (1983) used a series of Likert-type statement scales for each of five influence strategies. These were expert influence, bargaining, reward/referent, emotional, and impression management. The statements measured the extent to which each person claimed to have used the various types of influence in resolving disagreement. A second series of the same scales measured the extent to which one spouse perceived the other to be using each of the different types of influence. Composite scores were computed as the average of the responses to the statements. Because of time and survey management constraints, this variable is not assessed in the present project. It may be administered among respondents who accept to be part of a panel for eventual questionnaire re-administration in the future.

SAMPLING

Sampling Frame

The study is directed strictly to Tunisian households. In official census, a household is defined as "a group of persons with or without parental ties, living under the same roof and taking generally their meals together".⁵ Because the interest of the present research is in family purchasing behaviour proper and in the interactions between husbands and wives, only households with married couples are selected. Hence, singles, widowed, divorced and separated people are not included in the sample.

Sampling Method

The appropriate method is quota sampling. It is based on the notion that certain individual characteristics must be adequately represented if the sample is to be projectile. It is essentially a compromise between choosing a stratified and a convenience sample.⁶ For instance, one wants the opinions of at least 30 people between 24 and 39 years of age. Data is collected from the first 30 people who fall into this category. There are situations in which interviewers are held with those who have agreed to participate. But there are also situations in which the respondents are selected randomly within the categories. In this perspective, quota sampling is both random and convenient: those who accept are chosen, those who don't are replaced by other cases.⁷

Sample Size

Statistics have formula for evaluating sample size. One can say for instance that one's knowledge of what would happen on repeated studies enables him to say that with a given sample, there is, say, a 90 percent probability that one's figures are within 5 percentage points of those that would be shown by a census of the total population using the same measures (Kidder and Judd 1986, p. 148). But formulas strictly apply to probability sampling (Lehmann 1985, p. 283). Most surveys have used multiple items, while the formulas assume there is a single item. Statistical issues aside, 100 is a sine-quanon and 1000 is a magic cut off point among many researchers. The sample is composed of 500 men and 500 women hoping to come out with a total of 1000 observations for process sub-model testing. For comprehensive model testing, data is aggregated at the household level.

Sampling Plan

The critical requirement in quota sampling is not that the various population strata be sampled in their correct proportion, but rather that there be enough cases for each stratum. In general, the most widespread bases for stratification are: sex, age, education, socio-economic status, and so on. Usually in practice, the quotas are set for the interviewers with regard to the more manifest trait; then information is gathered in the course of the interviews on the less manifest ones (Lehmann 1985).

Because previous research revealed no significant direct relationships between employment status and ownership of household appliances (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983; Bellante and Foster 1984), employment did not constitute a major stratifier. Residential area is a manifest variable that has been used to approximate socioeconomic status. It is deemed reliable because of its high correlation with such important determinants of purchasing behaviour as income, social class, educational level, employment status and so on. On the other hand, given the importance of age in molding role orientations and behaviour in the family setting, it is also accounted for as a sampling stratifier. Hence, socioeconomic status and age would represent important stratifiers as they are deemed necessary for model testing. In the

meantime, employment statuses and income levels, are adequately represented in the sample. As for sex, it is already accounted for since both husbands and wives are selected.

Because this research is concerned with families, the entire sample constitutes 50% males and 50% females. As for employment status, both working and non-working populations are represented in the sample. The crucial variables considered in the sampling process are socioeconomic status and age. The first is approximated by the residence standard, the second is controlled in the process of questionnaire administration. For every bunch of questionnaires, interviewers are asked to divide the cases as evenly as possible among the different residential standings and the different age categories.

Hence, the sample is approximately distributed according to the following plan:

Table 10-3 : SAMPLING PLAN

Age Group	Socioeconomic Status					Total
	lower-lower	lower-middle	middle-middle	higher-middle	higher-higher	
1 (<=29)	25	25	25	25	25	125
2 (30-34)	25	25	25	25	25	125
3 (35-39)	25	25	25	25	25	125
4 (40-44)	25	25	25	25	25	125
5 (45-49)	25	25	25	25	25	125
6 (50-54)	25	25	25	25	25	125
7 (55-59)	25	25	25	25	25	125
8 (>=60)	25	25	25	25	25	125
Total	200	200	200	200	240	1000

I prefer such an approach to random sampling for the following reasons:

- a- There is always a risk of not adequately representing the different age and status categories ;
- b- There is a possibility of encountering households where there are widows and widowers who would be disturbed by the questions;
- c- For time and cost management, interviewers are asked to select homes where they either know the respondents slightly or are recommended by somebody who knows them. « A sample does not have to be typical of the general population or even part of the population under study... A sample can be very different demographically and still be representative of some type of behaviour ». (Lehmann 1985, p.281)

Geographical Breakdown

The survey is administered in the five major cities with 500 000 inhabitants and more. This indicator is used because the breakdown of the Tunisian households by region is not available. The number of households is selected on the basis of the number of the total population. The cities with more than 500 000 inhabitants account for about 3½ million people, listed below in decreasing order.

Table 10-4
Proposed Geographic Sample Breakdown

REGION	POPULATION	%	SUBSAMPLE SIZE
TUNIS	887.8	27	135
SFAX	733.7	22	110
NABEUL	578.6	18	90
ARIANA	569.3	17	85
KAIROUAN	532.7	16	80
GABES		10	50
SOUSSE		10	50
TOTAL	3302.1	100	500 (households)

An additional 100 households are selected from Sousse (50) and Gabès (50). These are important cities with populations slightly under the 500 000 cutoff point. Hence the total includes 500 households. Dwellings are selected in the main residential areas of the cities where the students-interviewers live. The initial intention is to identify these areas in collaboration with experts from the collaborating establishment. But, for practical considerations, the students-interviewers are asked to choose cases on the basis of their acquaintances and recommendations from these acquaintances. Respondents are verbally requested to answer the questionnaire. To the extent possible, the first section is administered to both husband and wife; when this is not possible, it is administered to either of the two spouses. The wife section is administered to the wife only when she is at home alone. When the husband is also at home, he is interviewed by a male student as the wife is interviewed by a female student. This approach has the advantage of saving time. When the husband is absent and an appointment needs to be made, it is the male student who comes back for the interview. Sometimes this procedure is not respected. If the questionnaire is to be collected one or two days later, there is a high risk of losing cases. It is therefore necessary to have both male and female students administer the whole questionnaire in couples.⁸

NOTES

1. Education achievement and occupational level are measured as follows. On the educational achievement scale, 1=graduate or professional education ; 2=college education ; 3=partial college ; 4=high school graduation ; 5=partial high school ; 6=junior high school ; 7=less than seven years of schooling. Occupational groupings are 1=higher executive ; 2=business ; 3=administrative personnel ; 4=clerical and sales ; 5=skilled manual ; 6=machine operator and semi-skilled ; and 7=unskilled or unemployed.
2. Hardesty and Bokemeier (1989) dichotomized the variable and contended that children over six can assume responsibility for some housework tasks.
3. In the method of the endpoint anchoring technique, respondents are asked to tell the researcher the best, then the worst, then to rank order the remaining choices of durable goods. Ties are permitted. The rank order is done on the basis of the respondents' perception of the degree to which the durables are important thus producing a priority list for each spouse. Then, rank-order correlations are calculated between the two lists of preference rankings and are used as a measure of the degree of adjustment which has taken place within a family (Cox III 1975). In fact, rank order of preferences can be compared to actual ownership to assess whether actual purchase is closer to men's or to women's preferences. This can be used as a proxy for measuring power in purchasing behaviour proper, i.e. on the basis of a deduction as to which spouse has got more say, i.e. more power in purchasing decisions. This can be eventually compared to Purchasing Role Configuration (PRC) of the family. An alternative to the above mentioned preference rank-order is the constant sum scale whereby each subject rates the stimuli alone by dividing 100 points between the items to reflect his/her personal relative preference (Corfman and Lehmann 1987). These can be used as the preference intensity measures in the model. Here again, Corfman and Lehmann used it for stimuli evaluation in the same product category. As we are interested in measuring preferences for heterogeneous products, the technique is also deemed inadequate for the present study. Another alternative to the above mentioned measures is the product importance assessment scale, which consists of asking respondents to assess, on a Likert type scale, the degree to which each of the products is deemed important to them personally (Corfman et al. 1991). On the basis of the respondents' answer to this question, one can then select the products that reflect the most and the least important for other measurements. Richins (1994b) utilized a qualitative approach which was geared towards deriving product meanings, proceeding by the following statement : « many people have a few possessions that they care a lot about or that are specially important to them. In the spaces below, please list your most important possessions and explain why each is important to you ». Respondents are provided space to describe up to four important possessions and associated reasons. Here the objective is coming out with a preference hierarchy for heterogeneous products which is not really the thrust of the study. This objective can be attained in any case on the basis of the product ownership list assessment. In the present project, none of the first two alternative methods above is chosen because they are both adapted to assessing brand preferences in one particular category. Besides, the second method involves calculation efforts from the part of the respondent. The third is relatively time consuming, but when it is limited to a very short list of items, it can be useful. Hence following the procedure adopted by Corfman and Lehmann (1991), to derive utility measures for heterogeneous durables, respondents are asked how important it was for them to own each durable, not of the long list mentioned in product ownership assessment, but of the three durables that are used as stimuli for Perceived Product Instrumentality : the pressure-cooker, the dishwasher and the multi-function processor. This importance is assessed under the assumption that they « had nothing at all and were starting from scratch to acquire possessions ». The condition that subjects should respond as if they owned nothing controlled for the effects of substitutes and complements in their utility and prevented their conditional responses.
4. Isvan (1991) provided evidence of its relevance to the Islamic cultural context of Turkey and argues that « domestic relationship norms in contemporary Turkey cannot be placed anywhere on a continuum from authoritarian to egalitarian, a continuum based on the relative power of the spouses. Rather, the Turkish family is duo-focal. Male and female domains are clearly delineated, and each spouse is fairly autonomous in her or his own domain». In such contexts, conjugal relations are a serious challenge to

modernization theory. The transition to a « modern » mode of interaction between the spouses, one that is generally characterized as egalitarian, compassionate and emotionally nucleated, does not necessarily produce the predicted increase in the wife's efficacy. Instead, it frequently blurs previously clear-cut domains of autonomy, severs the wife's ties to traditional social and kin networks, and creates confrontations in previously non-confrontational situations. Power and autonomy can be two distinct variables predictive of the wife's efficacy within the domestic bargain, such that each variable gains relevance within a specific set of domestic relations (p. 1061). I am thus aware of the cultural difference. The Blood and Wolfe Categorization (BWC) can be simplified to the authoritarian-egalitarian continuum, but not vice versa. Thus, in the present project, I intend to use the BWC without focus on these subtleties.

5. In the 1994 Tunisian government census, the number of households amounted to 1,704. 185 of which about 10% are headed by women.
6. In stratified sampling, the target population can be divided into segments with different characteristics. In this case, the information about segments (strata) can be used to design the sampling plan. Specifically, separate sampling plans can be drawn for each of the stratum. This guarantees that each stratum be adequately represented, something which random sampling does not. In this sampling method, a distinction is made between proportionate and disproportionate sampling. A proportionate sample is designed to give each individual in the target population an equal chance of being included. Disproportionate samples are « undemocratic » since some strata are deemed more important than others. In the first case (proportionate), the sample size of each stratum (n_i) is given by the proportion of the population that falls into that stratum (N_i/N) where $n_i = (N_i/N) * n$. In the second case (disproportionate), the sample size of each stratum depends on strategy (certain segments are considered as key to strategy). It also depends on statistical characteristics, the optimal sample size depends not only on the size of the stratum, but also on the variance within the stratum. Intuitively a stratum with a large standard deviation will warrant more cases than a stratum with a much smaller standard deviation.
7. "There are circumstances in which probability sampling is unnecessary. One such circumstance arises from the fact that one does not necessarily carry out studies of samples for the only purpose of being able to generalize to the populations that are being sampled"..." This does not mean that one is not concerned with the possibility of error, but one places one's reliance on the internal consistency of the data and their coherence with other things that one knows. This is especially the case for experimenters who trade off external validity for increased internal validity " (Kidder and Judd 1986, p. 164). « There are two reasons why the representativeness of the sample is not an issue. First, the direction of relationships used to suggest a hypothesis is assumed to exist until disproved, in both biased and unbiased populations ; and, second, theoretical (not statistical) sampling guides the choosing and handling of the data » (Glaser and Strauss 1969, p. 189).
8. I initially had the intention of hiring professional interviewers in the collaborating establishments for questionnaire administration. But, I found out that the establishments themselves use students who are more experienced and familiar with the area where they are accustomed to work. I realized in the first that the faculty always had better access to students who need active training in questionnaire administration. Thus choosing students who live near or in the sampling areas can reduce the cost involved. Most of the time more than one trip is necessary for the interviews to be completed by either one student or a pair of students. I find it worthwhile to conduct the first couple of interview myself to monitor the details of the questionnaire as well as for the rich experience.

APPENDIX 10-A FAMILY LIFE-CYCLE

Stage

- 1 Married couples without Children - 45 years old or less
 - 2 Childbearing Families - oldest child 2 to 6
 - 3 Families with Preschoolers -
 - 4 Families with School Children - oldest child 7 to 13
 - 5 Families with Teenagers oldest 14 or older living at home
 - 6 Families in Middle Years - youngest child left home until retirement - « Empty Nest »
 - 7 Aging families - retirement.
-

Source: Nock (1979).

APPENDIX 10-B ROLE IDEOLOGY SCALE

-
- 1- A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.
 - 2- A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife.
 - 3- It should not bother the husband if the wife's job sometimes requires her to be outside the home overnight.
 - 4- If his wife works full time, a husband should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing.
 - 5- If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job.
 - 6- A working mother can establish just as good a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.
 - 7- Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and children.
-

Source: White (1983)

APPENDIX 10-C ROLE OVERLOAD SCALE

-
- 1- I have to do things which I don't really have the time and energy for.
 - 2- There are too many demands on my time.
 - 4- I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me.
 - 5- I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.
 - 6- There are times when I cannot meet every one's expectations.
 - 7- Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day.
 - 8- Many times I have to cancel commitments.
 - 9- I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.
 - 10- I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the other wives (husbands) I know.
 - 11- I find myself having to prepare priority lists (lists which tell me which things I should do first) to get done all the things I have to do. Otherwise I forget because I have so much to do.
 - 12- I feel I have to do things hastily and may be less carefully in order to get everything done.
 - 13- I just can't find the energy in me to do all the things expected of me.
-

Source : (Reilly 1982).

APPENDIX 10-D
PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY SCALE

-
- 1/ It helps me serve my children properly
 - 2/ It helps me serve my spouse properly
 - 3/ It helps me devote more time for myself
 - 4/ It helps me devote more time for my family
 - 5/ It helps me get organized
 - 6/ It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously
 - 7/ It helps me work more efficiently at home
 - 8/ It helps me work more efficiently outside the home
 - 9/ It makes me feel I am a good parent
 - 10/ It makes me feel I am a good spouse
 - 11/ It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations
 - 12/ It has practical usefulness
 - 13/ It allows me to spare time for other activities (reading, sport, etc...)
 - 14/ It helps me keep my house clean and tidy
 - 15/ It helps me satisfy my family's needs
-

Source: see chapter on PPI scale generation and validation.

APPENDIX 10-E
Household Activities Questionnaire (HAQ)

House Scale

- Cooking (routine cooking for family)
- Cleans up after meals
- Housecleaning
- Laundry
- Foodmarketing
- School-age child care (when not in school)
- Cares for sick child at home (gives medicine, gets up at night, stays home from work)

Maintenance Scale

- Interior house maintenance (painting, repairing etc.)
- Exterior house maintenance (painting, cleaning screens, repairing)
- Car maintenance (does it or gets done)
- Lawn care (mowing, raking leaves)

Child Scale

- Teaches children (values, rules, proper behaviour, etc.)
- Disciplines children
- Sets rules and limitations for children

Decision Scale

- Makes major financial decisions (purchase of car, appliance, house)
 - Makes investment decisions (savings, insurance, stock, etc.)
 - Decides whether husband should accept new job or position when the new job does require moving
-

Source : Nyquist et al. (1970)

APPENDIX 10-F

PRODUCTS UTILIZED IN SELECTED PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON FAMILY PURCHASING AND DECISION BEHAVIOUR

Author (s)	Products utilized	Explicit or implicit rationale
Davis involve (1970)	- furniture, automobile	- represent important family decisions and substantial financial outlay, extended period of ownership, social importance, joint use, etc.
Hempel (1974)	- house	- represents a "major economic decision".
Pitts & Woodside (1982) rather	- automobiles - deoderants - week-end recreation- Provide contrast with tangible product category;	- provide a wide range of characteristics - more likely to be a function of individual than familial preferences;
Qualls making (1982) studies.	- vacations; automobiles - housing; insurance; - children's education - savings;	- represent potential for joint decision and are similar to products used in earlier
Qualls investigating (1983)	- housing	- involve joint decision making while individual preferences;
Spiro (1983)	- furniture; durables	- involve joint decision making while investigating disagreement and accomodation processes;
Green et. al. decisions; (1983) differentiation.	- automobile, insurance - furniture, vacations - grocery, appliances	- represent a wide range of purchasing and a potential for cultural
Schaninger & Allen employment (1981)	- grocery products; - beverages; soft drinks - make-up, etc...	- presumably related to women's status.
Park investigating (1981)	- home	- involves joint decision making while diversity of preferences in terms of product criteria levels.
Reilly status; (1982)	- convenience foods; - durables,	- presumably related to wife's working
Rosen & Granbois making (1983)	- financial activities (checking, saving, billing)	- important aspects of household decision where study results are rather conflictual.
Shaninger et al. (1993)	- use of services; - food and beverages	- provide a wide range of products to capture consumption differences among households due to differences in women's profiles;
Alpert (1972)	- automobiles, movies	- general familiarity and interest; somewhat "expressive" products whose consumption may involve diverse motivations;

Continued (Appendix 10-F)

Sparks & Tucker (1971)	- headache remedies - mouthwash, cologne - hairspray, shampoo, - alcoholic beverages - complexion aids, vitamins - cigarettes, coffee - chewing-gum, aftershave;	- typical products for college students (these represented the researcher's sample)
Bryant (1988)	- durable goods & services - one-use goods & services;	- presumably related to wife's working status;
Weinberg and Winer (1983)	- time-saving durables (dishwasher, dryer, fridge) - other durables (TV, furniture & hobby & recreation items)	- presumably related to wife's working status;
Meyers-Levy (1988)	- jeans	- may qualify as a neutral product to unveil gender differences;
Green & Cunningham (1975)	-grocery, furniture -insurance, appliances	as had been utilized in one or more previous studies they may present a potential for comparisons.
Bellante and Foster (1984)	- food away from home -child care outlays -domestic services -clothing, personal care.	- presumably related to wife's working status
Oropesa (1993)	-ownership of microwave	-an important product for working women in terms of saving time.
Burns & Foxman (1989)	-use of advertising	- a consequence of married women which has ramifications for advertisers but which does not appear in the marketing literature.
Cox III (1975)	- automobiles	- represents a broad range of considerations in terms of traditional husband-wife conceptualization (for instance, adjustment)
Burns & Granbois (1977)	- automobiles	- represents a broad range of considerations in terms of traditional husband-wife conceptualisation (for instance, conflict, agreement)
Corffmann and Lehmann (1987)	- durables, services	- intimately linked to budget and values . (for instance maid service)
Menasco & Curry (1989)	- family investment decisions (generic)	- products that possessed specialized attributes and that induce high involvement for the couple.
Villani (1975)	- television programs	- different programs whose viewing is supposed to induce diverse motivations and life-styles.
Henry (1976)	- automobiles	- a product for which specific value orientations can be reasonably expected to affect choice significantly.
Qualls (1987)	- housing decision	- involves joint decision while investigating individual preferences and conflict resolution.

APPENDIX 10-G: VARIABLES DEFINITIONS AND OPERATIONALISATIONS

Variable	Definition	Operationalisation	Typical Statement
<u>The Household Section</u> <i>Household Product Ownership (HPO)</i> <i>Socioeconomic Characteristics (SEC)</i>	(see the three lists in questionnaire about TSES and non TSES durables) employment status, education, income, age of H & W	Yes/No INS categorizations	«Do you own such durables...» «Which of the following best describes your status, income»
<i>number of children dwelling (type, ownership) hired help use</i>	The extent to which the family uses hired help for home-chore activities.	Yes/No, and Frequency	«How often does your family use hired help? »
<i>Role Performance (RP)</i>	distribution of six household tasks other than the provider role (washing, cooking, dishes, breakfast, shopping, cleaning).	5-point scale from husband alone to wife alone	«Who does the following home-chore activities? »
<u>The Husband & the Wife Sections (identical)</u> <i>Role Ideology (RI)</i>	Abstract beliefs about what women and men ought to do (Araji 1977)	7-item Likert -type scale (White 1983)	« A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children » « There are two many demands on my time »
<i>Role Overload (RO)</i>	Stresses experienced by a family member (here husband & wife) in trying to fulfill the set of demands of multiple role obligations	13-item Likert-type scale (Reilly 1982)	
<i>Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI)</i>	The perception of the importance of a durable by the consumer - apprehended as actor - that translates the degree to which the durable helps perform a role, solve a problem, enhance an image, and reinforce a self-concept.	15-item Likert type scale applied to 3 durables (washer, pressure-cooker multifunction-processor)	« It helps me reduce stress from my multiple obligations » « It makes me feel I am a good parent ».
<i>Product Importance (PI)</i>	The degree to which a consumer perceives the product as an important acquisition supposing he is beginning « from scratch ».	5 point Likert-type Scale very important/unimportant	« Rate the importance of each of the following durables... »
<i>Product Preferences (PP)</i>	The degree to which the respondent prefers a TSES durable to its no TSES counterpart for performing seven homechores.	Comparative judgment	« For cooking, I prefer » A Pressure cooker to normal pot B Normal pot to pressure cooker C Indifferent.
<i>Purchasing Role Configuration (PRC)</i>	Degree to which husbands and wives dominate household decisions regarding the two durables purchased last throughout the four phases of the decision process.	Same 5 point-scale as RP from husband only to wife only. Measured but not tested	« Who was responsible for initial problem recognition, ». Acquiring information, etc.... »
<i>Purchasing Influence Strategies (PIS)</i>	Extent to which on spouse uses coercion and/or reward strategies in attempting to influence the other spouse in a conflict situations	5 point Likert-type agreement scale.	Will not be tested for the time being.

Chapter 11

Perceived Product Instrumentality: Theoretical Relevance and Scale Development

Perceived Product Instrumentality: Theoretical Relevance and Scale Development

Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI) is a perceptual and attitudinal construct that is proposed as a central process component of a comprehensive model of family purchasing behaviour. I contend that PPI may interact with role orientations to moderate the effect of socio-demographics on households' ownership of Time Saving and Effort Sparing Products (TSES). PPI refers to the degree to which an individual committed to role enactment holds a product to be dear, i.e. the degree to which he invests the product with meaning (Richins 1994a). Taking the specific case of TSES durables, PPI conveys the main idea that products are owned or used to facilitate the quality of role performance, to help the incumbent reduce overload, to reinforce his/her identity, and to enhance the image that s/he wishes to convey (Sentis and Markus 1983; Solomon 1983; Richins 1994a). Hence, products are perceived as instrumental because they satisfy a need (rational or emotional), have meaning (private or public), solve problems (practical or symbolic), and are congruent with the self-concept or reinforce an identity (identity value). The more a product is deemed capable of satisfying this range of motives, the more accurately it solves problems, the more it is invested with meaning, the more its compatibility with the self-concept, the more congruence with a salient identity, and the more its perceived instrumentality.

It is my contention that PPI will account, to a certain extent, for differences among consumers who have more or less similar objective characteristics but who have different consumption priorities. As a moderator variable, PPI will contribute, for instance, to discriminate between TSES product owners and non-owners. These may have more or less the same employment status or income or educational level but different instrumentality profiles when it comes to evaluating a particular TSES product. For instance, a working woman may experience role overload and still does not buy a particular TSES product for the reason that she does not perceive it as instrumental in meeting her role commitments. The product may objectively represent a helpful device for her as an overloaded worker but she may perceive it as incompatible with her self image as a diligent mother and a caring housewife.

ASSESSING THE THEORETICAL RELEVANCE OF PPI

Methodology

In order to assess the theoretical relevance of the PPI construct and generate a scale for its measurement, focus-group interviews are utilized. They are led by a professional woman from a consulting firm. I attend some of the sessions as an observer but never intervene in the debate lest I bias the discussion. After each session, participants are given a little symbolic present. The sessions are tape-recorded with the participants' permission. Before the sessions are held, the following note about objective, instrument and anchors for the study is communicated to the group leader.

Objective. Test the theoretical relevance of PPI and generate substantive propositions that will constitute the scale. I am interested in the actors-TSES durables interaction, but do not want the discussion to be directed only to such possessions from the outset lest participants focus totally on role overload and on durables as means utilised to reduce it. Instructions are given so as to encourage the discussion leader to explore all possible motivations behind TSES possession and use.

Instrument. Ask participants to think about, list, and name one or several possessions deemed important to them whether they presently own them or not. The debate should concentrate on durable goods. Why are these so important, so valuable? How did they happen to acquire them? In what circumstances? (Richins 1994a; 1994b).

Anchors. To what extent and under what circumstances are TSES durables perceived as means of solving problems? These problems should hinge around the two fundamental dimensions of practicality and symbolism. Practicality is reflected in the fact that products are deemed helpful, useful, efficacious, time-saving, effort sparing, and so on, because they help individuals cope with the multitude of roles they involve in and meet role demands emanating from significant others as well as from the actor himself (Thornton and Nardi 1975). Symbolism is reflected in the fact that products are deemed compatible with the image the individual wishes to convey of her/himself. The discussion leader is instructed to let the participants talk about any other meaning they give to products: enjoyment, pleasure, pride, interpersonal relations, competence, achievement, and so on.

Subjects

The collaborating consulting firm took care of recruiting the participants on the basis of the researcher's recommendations. Women are over-represented because of the intuitive, albeit stereotypical assumption, that they are more concerned with durables administration. Subjects contacted are informed that they are solicited to participate in a discussion about durables for research purposes. The groups were chosen as follows; session1: higher-middle class (8 women, different ages, employment statuses and educational levels); session2: working lower class (9 women, different ages and educational levels); session3: nonworking lower class (9 women, different ages and educational levels); session4: middle class men (8 men, different ages and educational levels).

Analysis

Richins's (1994a) conceptualisation of the meanings of possessions is believed to be a useful tool for the analysis of the dynamic interaction between products and individuals apprehended as role players, as reflected in the focus-group discussions contents. According to Richins, products are possessed for the values they are invested with. These are the utilitarian, interpersonal, enjoyment, and identity values. They are proposed here as facets of instrumentality.

The Utilitarian Value. Utilitarian value refers to the functions and the usefulness of possessions for the individual to lead an efficient life (Richins 1994a). In particular, role performance is thought to be facilitated by the presence or hindered by the absence of products (Solomon 1983). In relation to women's role, the utilitarian value of TSES durables is found to hinge around the following factors : time saving and effort sparing, economy, health, and cleanliness.

Time saving and effort sparing. The focus group interviews revealed that most durables are deemed necessary, important, practical because of their ability to help actors perform their roles more adequately. Most of the time, reference is made to the capacity of durables to provide more time to the housewife, to help her get organized and serve the family more appropriately. Some durables which are meant for certain uses are creatively used as means of saving time and sparing effort. (For instance tomatoes are smashed with the meat processor, chips are fried with the pressure-cooker, an so on). By saving time, durables help women devote spared time

to other household chores: do more cleaning, feed the little children, help the grown-ups do their school home-works, and so on. Most of the time, reference is made to the rational components of buyer behaviour. The freezer reduces the frequency of shopping trips, the refrigerator reduces the frequency of food preparation, the processor helps in the preparation of a drink to whoever needs it in a twinkling of an eye, and the washing machine facilitates the performance of several tasks at a time, like preparing food while washing clothes. "Before I bought my washing machine, I happened to ask my husband not to come for lunch; now I can feed the family and do the washing at the same time" said one participant. 'I find the washing machine so helpful and so friendly that I usually cherish it by singing to it as if it were a kid', said another woman.

Economy. Some women assert that certain durables have economical value. The refrigerator allows them to spare left-over foods, the freezer allows them to buy less frequently and in large quantities thus saving them money and to use out-seasoned vegetables and fruits which they would buy very cheap while abundant. The pressure cooker is deemed economical. "A meal that normally needs an hour cooking needs no more than fifteen minutes". Even the washing machine is economical. Some housewives contend that "they need no more hired help for such a task." Some participants argue nonetheless that many durables are energy consuming. They complain about the electricity bill due to the TV, the refrigerator, the iron, and other home appliances.

Health and cleanliness. Most of the time, participants insist on health and cleanliness. Some durables (e.g. vacuum-cleaner) are owned mainly as complements of other goods (e.g. carpets). "Because of all the carpets I have at home, it is necessary to vacuum clean the house every day. Not only do I need to keep my house clean, but also save the children from the health risk of breathing in dust", said one woman. The chip-fryer is also valued for similar reasons. It is not only time-saving in preparing chips compared to other devices, but it is also very clean. "Before I bought the chip-fryer, frying potatoes is a pain in the neck for me; the cooker and the kitchen floor become all wet with oil. Now that I have it, it saves me precious time and spares me unnecessary efforts of cleaning the cooker and the floor after frying

potatoes". The cleanliness, time saving, and effort sparing values are usually intermingled in the valuation of many durables and appliances.

The Interpersonal Value. The interpersonal value refers to the capacity of an object to reinforce relationships (Richins 1994a). This research reveals that TSES durables are mostly appreciated for their practicality and their efficiency in helping women save time for the sake of adequately serving other people, and particularly, the children and the husband. Products are means by which family ties are reinforced. Rarely do women appreciate saving time and effort for the sake of pursuing their own personal goals such as sports, leisure and social activities. Most of the uses they can think of are perceived as parts of their roles as mothers and as homemakers.

The pressure cooker, the processor, the oven, and the coffee maker are significant possessions in this respect. "I cannot imagine my life without a pressure-cooker... When I go home after work, all I have to do is put in it whatever I have: vegetables, meat or whatever - turn it on, and wait for half an hour until dinner is ready" says one participant. "Before I go to work in the morning, I want to make sure that everybody is properly served. The coffee maker and the processor make it possible for mothers to prepare coffee and juice speedily "lest the children go to school without being adequately fed". The oven is also appreciated and deemed important because it gives them opportunities to satisfy a variety of needs and desires of family members and to decently serve eventual visitors. Many durables are appreciated for the time and effort they can spare. Time is mainly valued for the sake of being reinvested in family relationships and effort is typically spared for the sake of better household management. All participants place high value on warmth and interpersonal ties, and many durables are appreciated for their ability to reinforce them.

The Enjoyment and the Pleasure Value. Enjoyment value refers to the capacity of a product to provide pleasure or to allow some enjoyable activity (Richins 1994a). Some of the ideas evoked by the participants reveal that, in most cases, product ownership is accompanied by psychological experiences and energies which emphasize enjoyment and pleasure (Holbrook and Hirshman 1982). Most of these hinge around the sense of readiness and completeness on the one hand, and the sense of aesthetics and beauty on the other.

The sense of readiness and completeness. In this study, most women's pleasure derives from the fact that product ownership gives them the feeling of *readiness* of whatever they feel like doing and the feeling of *completeness* whereby they have everything they need within reach. The sense of readiness is manifested in the fact that having a whole set of durables gives them the feeling that they can serve the children, the husband and eventual visitors whenever needed. The freezer and the refrigerator contain enough food, the oven and the processor are ready for use. They derive pleasure from the availability of such durables and from the resulting opportunity of exercising their imagination and skill of baking a cake, roasting meat, or frying fish for whomever needs it. They like preparing palatable meals for their families and for eventual visitors. They also like to be appreciated and complemented for that.

The sense of completeness manifests itself in many ways. The women in this study want to own whatever is deemed or thought to be necessary for eventual needs, just in case occasions for use present themselves. Some participants buy devices not as much out of necessity, as out of an urge of making sure that a complete set of possessions is ready for eventual need. "I like having whatever durables are available in the market. "Some products - like the egg-cooker - are not really useful for me now. I only used my egg-cooker once ever since I bought it. I sometimes have the feeling that I probably should not have bought it. But I don't think I could have resisted buying it. I like having all that may be of eventual usefulness". "I feel I am very happy when I possess all the durables now at my disposal", said another woman. "When I have at home the products I need, I feel I am living my life properly", adds another participant.

The sense of readiness and completeness imbue these women with a predisposition for acquisitiveness, possessiveness, and craving for the ownership of as many durables as possible. In many cases, durables are assembled to achieve material well being (Richins 1994b) and to attain self-confidence. Some buy devices out of curiosity and of a desire to try new things. Ownership is of paramount importance while use is a secondary issue. They like calling things « mine ». They

appreciate durables because they allow them a certain control over domestic life for which they feel most responsible.

The Sense of Beauty and Aesthetics. Another source of enjoyment for the women in this study is that certain products represent items of decoration and symbols laden with meaning (Holbrook and Hirshman 1982). Not only do they want others to think of them as good mothers and diligent homemakers, but they also want to look attractive and to carry an image of tidiness and charm. Some participants note that certain objects possess beauty that is personally appealing to them (Solomon 1983; Mc Cracken 1986). This aesthetic aspect is valid for almost all kitchen utensils. Talking about the processor, one participant says: "it is a pretty device, I love having it in front of me all the time". For several participants, audience reaction to their possession's appearance is an important dimension of meaning. This is reflected in the women's attitude towards maintaining a tidy and clean house and by filling it with appliances, some of which are treated as items of decoration. They seem to carry happily the duty of keeping their homes clean and tidy. Thus, pleasure is derived from their possessions as well as their responsibilities.

The kitchen represents for these women a very significant "possession". "I probably don't care much about how my bedroom looks like, but I do care about how my kitchen looks like". It is an open area and they see to it that it looks nice all the time. When their home is messy, they see to it that nobody would come in. "My husband happens to come from work while I am busy with housework, I feel very bothered with this unclean appearance". So, the kitchen is more than just a set of items. The word is laden with meaning: "it is the first place the children and the husband would visit when they would come back home looking for something to eat or to drink". The aesthetics values are particularly salient with products other than home appliances such as carpets, dinner services, and so on. Many of these products are basically owned for impression management, rather than for practical usefulness (These are invoked by men who complain that their wives are obsessed by the aesthetics value to the extent that they deprive the family from using these products and by limiting the use of them to occasions, like when receiving guests).

The Identity Value. Identity value reinforces the achievement of an image and expresses personal beliefs (Richins 1994a). As a role player, the consumer relies

upon the social information inherent in products to maximize the quality of role performance and to shape self-image (Solomon 1983). The focus-group interviews substantiate the idea that the consuming behaviour of the individual is directed toward enhancing and protecting the self-concept (Buskirk and Buskirk 1992).

The Concept of Self-Enhancement. The discussions confirm that many durables are used by the social actor as a means of defining identity. The discussion about the importance of owning TSES products confirms the assumption that these women balance work and family in a way that gives priority to identification with family roles (Bielby and Bielby 1989; Walker 1989). All things that reinforce such an identity are deemed important and valuable. "I cannot go to work before making sure that the children will find something to eat for lunch. When they come back home while I am at work, every thing is in the refrigerator, and all they need to do is put whatever is available in the oven and help themselves" says one participant. Most of them seem incapable of having an identity of their own apart from their families. They assume the homemaker role to such an extent that role demands and personal needs become one. "I cannot imagine a mother, either working or not working, without a washing machine at home. Cleanliness is the responsibility of women, some participants acquiesce. 'I did not really need the washing machine in the very beginning of my married life; but as soon as I had my first child, it became a necessity for me.'

The Concept of Self-Protection. For some women, the homemaker sub-identity seems to be so salient that they express reluctance to using products perceived as incongruent with their homemaking role. In certain cases, even if they own the product, they may be reluctant to use it because it is incompatible with their self image as it does not fit into the role they play in life. Talking about kitchen equipment, one fifty-year-old housewife remarks anecdotally that it is making life too easy for women. "All that is left to do now is just turn a machine on and have whatever food is needed". It seems that too much of such a technology is incompatible with her self image as a diligent mother, good cook, and careful home-keeper. This may explain the skepticism of certain participants about the recognition of the utility of certain durable goods. Apparently, they unconsciously deplore the

fact that certain durables have robbed some key components of their salient homemaker's identity.

The pressure-cooker, the processor, and the washer represent significant cases to consider. For instance, some women are skeptical about using the pressure-cooker, despite the fact that they own it." I do have time constraints and do have a pressure-cooker, says a working woman, and yet I don't use it. It seems to me that the food does not taste as good as when prepared without it". Another participant adds "I own a pressure-cooker and I only use it when I have unexpected guests... It seems to me that food cooked on a slow fire tastes much better." When the discussion focuses on food processing, one participant says: " I prefer to smash the meat manually; the processor is not as good; the meat does not conserve its real quality" said another woman. Talking about the automatic washing machine, one participant says: "when I use this kind of washing machine, I don't feel at ease. I have the impression that some clothes are not properly cleaned. In particular, white clothes do not conserve their genuine brightness. But when I use the small machine, I feel comfortable because I can always stop it and intervene to clean remaining spots with my hands. I am quite sure that the machine cannot do every thing for me". It seems that the machine is regarded only as an additional help rather than a replacement for the housekeeping role. The machine is capable of mere mechanical washing function, but cannot assure cleanliness which is the woman's responsibility and skill.

The attitude of the subjects towards TSES durables use and acquisition is not a matter of working or not working, but a matter of self-concept. The focus group discussions echo Buskirk and Buskirk's (1992) contention that some products, while appealing to some rational motive, may be at odds with an emotional motive. According to these authors, products may solve problems in terms of time and effort; but they may create another problem as they may also imply abandoning the pleasure of exercising imagination and performing skills. They may even hinder the desire to create and to serve and jeopardize the sense of duty and love to others.

Many of these women feel that, to some extent, with the advent of certain household technologies, they are being robbed of some of the core components of the homemaker's role identity. When one subject identifies the dishwasher as a durable good for future purchasing, another subject says anecdotally: "If the house is filled

with such equipment, what will wives be good for? Why would my husband consider the idea of marrying with me?". To a very large extent, homemaking is their "raison d'être". Their lives hinge around the home and TSES durables should reinforce their homemaker's identity rather than jeopardize it.

Most of the interviewed women derive pleasure and enjoyment from their ability to perform their role as housewives and mothers and in their ability to reinforce interpersonal relations, particularly, family ties. Durables enhance such a state of mind and are means by which roles are defined, performance is facilitated, status is maintained, image is elevated and family life is sustained. The perception process of product instrumentality thus blends objects with symbols, practicality with identity. We may generalize that women seem to be in quest of an image of charm by extracting symbols from objects, beauty from practicality. For any particular possession, several if not all of the meaning dimensions may influence its value. For example, the food processor may be valued because it is relied upon to prepare meals promptly and efficiently (utilitarian value), it helps the housewife serve guests and satisfy the needs and desires of family members (interpersonal value); it is of such design that it can represent a decoration item and a means of association with aesthetics and beauty (pleasure value); it projects the possessor's desired image as a diligent homemaker and reinforces the image of herself as a caring mother and a good wife (identity).

Men's Concept of Women's Role

Men's discussion confirms the ideas evoked by women about possession meanings and values and reflects an ambivalent attitude towards women's role in contemporary society. At times, a stereotyped conception of women's role is revealed: their main responsibilities are closely linked with household domestic activities. At other times, women are perceived as occupying a central position in family life and are described as being caught into multiple role demands and obligations that deserve recognition and help.

A Stereotyped Conception of Women's Role. According to certain participants, new technology is so helpful that the "so called modern" women tend to fall into idleness. To an extent, durables are perceived as "spoilers" of women in contemporary society. When the dishwasher and the microwave are cited by some

participants as eventual purchases to consider in the future, the following typical reaction arises: if all such devices enter homes, then what will the wives be useful for? For some husbands, such products are not only ostentatious, but they are perceived as bad. According to some participants, many women like the idea of not doing lots of things at home, regardless of whether they work outside the home or not. They argue that some women seize the opportunity of such a technology to get rid of their fundamental activities of food preparation. These women like buying ready meals from take away restaurants. "I wonder what is a woman's role in society if she behaves this way". "Modernity is imposing itself on men and women, whether they like it or not", says one participant. "Science seizes the opportunity of modern life styles to fill homes with technology and modern women seem to be receptive to such a trend. They want to lead a pleasant life. They want to cook food with the pressure cooker and watch TV at the same time, with the remote control in their hands". A participant says: "I am afraid women themselves will become robots as their role would be limited to turning buttons on and off. "What will they be doing if their homes are filled with such devices? They will get bored won't they?" comments another participant. Some other comments reveal the skepticism of some men about certain durables not from the point of view of their relation with women, but from the products' intrinsic benefits. Talking about the pressure cooker, some complain that the food does not taste as good as when cooked on a slow fire. Another participant adds: "who now cares about how food tastes like? We are living in a hurry, in a world where time is a precious resource". He seems to be nostalgic of his parents' life when time and patience were abundant resources.

The Centrality of Women's Role. Some participants recognize that women's role is central to family life and acquiesce that women deserve help from technology and from family members. Many husbands attribute their present standing to their wives' wisdom in managing the household and to their sacrifice by assuming demanding roles. Many participants express gratitude towards their wives because of their "superwomen" role performance, something their mothers and grandmothers never had to face. They believe that there are so many demands on their spouses' new roles of employee, wife, and mother that they don't mind investing large amounts of money in such acquisitions. Others don't mind coming to the aid of their

overloaded wives by stepping into such activities as cleaning the house, doing the table for lunch or clearing it after meals.

Many household activities are no longer the only province of the wife, thus heralding departures from traditional role expectations and household role distribution. Most men's involvement, however, is limited to auxiliary work. They don't like assuming whole responsibilities for any particular task. Moreover, they don't like helping their wives as if it were their duty. All they want to do is volunteer out of free will as if it were a favor rather than out of obligations and orders imposed upon them by their wives. Most durables are deemed valuable by men because they are means by which their wives' pressures, not theirs, are alleviated. This negative attitude towards men's involvement in home-chores is confirmed in women's discussions. (When men's involvement was evoked, it was limited to very infrequent tasks. Women themselves seem to discourage certain forms of their husbands' involvement in home-chores. "Having the husband vacuum-clean the house is like having him use the broom. I don't like to see my husband do such a thing". Such an image seems to revoke the traditional notion of manly behaviour).

CONCLUSION

Based on the above focus-group interviews and on previous literature, the statements Appendix 11-A are proposed for eventual PPI measurement. All the 33 items are purportedly representing the underlying construct of PPI. The instrument is constructed on the basis of the following principles: it should be non-gender specific, acultural, and general enough to apply to any TSES product. With these principles in mind, and in an attempt to reflect as many values invoked by the literature (Richins 1994a) and by the discussions as possible, the following areas are believed to be reflective of the PPI facets; utilitarian: time-saving, effort sparing, economy, practicality (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 22, 29); enjoyment/ pleasure (items 12, 19, 23, 24); status/impression management (items 20, 25, 26); family and other orientation: ability to serve the children, the spouse, the guests (items 5, 6, 7, 9, 14, 17, 18); extra-family orientation: ability to work and involve in outside activities (items 11, 21, 28, 32).

Focus-group interviews confirm the theoretical relevance of the PPI construct. It encompasses or at least it relates to previous consumer behaviour theories. On the

one hand, possessions are owned and valued for their capacity to help consumers solve rational, utilitarian, and practical problems. They are mostly appreciated for their capacity to help women get organized and save time and effort. On the other hand, products are invested with symbolic meanings that transcend their physical attributes. These meanings hinge around the relational, the symbolic and the identity values. The identification with the homemaker role is so strong that possessions are but means of reinforcing it, reducing overload and sustaining family ties. For the majority of participants, most possession values converge towards enhancing the homemaker, the wife and the mother identities as well as reinforcing role skills.

The PPI construct translates properly the idea that certain products and possessions are deemed important because they help actors perform their roles more skillfully. At times reference is made to the capacity of TSES durables to help them cope with multiple role obligations and, in particular, with work involvement. But most of the time, durables are appreciated because they reinforce women's identity as homemakers and they help them perform their roles as mothers and wives. There are no cases in the study where women cite the importance of durables as means of getting rid of some of their main responsibilities as homemakers. They like the idea of performing tasks more skillfully with the help of technology. Never do they intend to get rid of their tasks. On the contrary, they want to enrich and extend their homemaking skills. They like durables as long as they enhance their self-image as diligent homemakers and good housewives. However, some of them are reluctant to some specific services rendered by durables on the grounds that they are not as reliable as theirs. A few women seem to reclaim some of the fundamental meanings of their identity as homemakers and diligent mothers and wives.

Men's discussions reveal an ambivalent attitude towards certain durables and an incongruent perception of their usefulness for contemporary family life. At times, men appreciate durables for the help they bring to their wives in order to alleviate their daily pressures. At other times, they are skeptical about the services rendered by new technology. Some appliances are not only considered as giving bad quality services, but they are perceived as spoilers of contemporary women. Despite the apparent interchangeability in men's and women's roles distribution and enactment, durables administration remains typically the wives' business, not the husbands'.

To a very large extent, the PPI conceptualization is an expansion and an adaptation of Richin's (1994a) theory of product meanings to role-based family consumption experiences. Focus-group interviews reveal that durables are appreciated for their utilitarian, interpersonal, pleasure and identity values. The diversity of attitudes in the evaluation of TSES durables among the participants regardless of their socioeconomic backgrounds proves the relevance of the PPI construct and its eventual capacity to account for variations among couples apprehended as role actors in understanding family purchasing behaviour and in explaining and predicting TSES product ownership.

PPI SCALE DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

The PPI scale is developed on the basis of this principle: it should be non-gender specific, acultural, and general enough to apply to any durable. The list is then narrowed down to a 15-item scale that is proposed as an instrument for PPI measurement.

Subjects

A pilot survey is administered to a convenience sample of 46 married men (16) and women (30) of a modern Tunisian urban middle class background, including older and younger, higher and lower class men and women. Respondents are contacted at home, or at their workplace. Women are over-represented because they seem to be more concerned with durables administration.

Procedures

Respondents, whose participation is solicited for research purposes, are asked to fill in 4 identical lists of 33 items tapping their attitudes towards the pressure-cooker, the oven, the washer, and the freezer, irrespective of whether they own these or not. In most cases, interviewers assist the respondents in filling in the first set and instruct them to proceed similarly with the remaining sets. Most respondents answered all the questions, but a few skipped some lists or items within lists. This led responses to range from 36 to 46 cases.

Data Analysis

The objective is to explore the overall patterns of relationships among the items and reduce their number without lowering their predictive value. An

exploratory principal axis factoring is run on each set with a four-factor solution meant to account for eventual multidimensionality of PPI. Many of the original items have high loadings with a first and some with a second, a third or a fourth factor, but without meaningful consistency across the sets. Reliability analysis gives alphas of .85 for the pressure-cooker and the freezer, of .83 for the oven, and of .76 for the washer sets (see Table 11-1). Scale reduction, guided by the percentage of variance explained by the first factor, eigen values, and alphas, yields the results provided in Table 11-1 for the different try-out scale sizes of 33, 28, 15, 13, and 9-items.

TABLE 11-1
FACTOR STATISTICS ACROSS THE FOUR DATA SETS OF PRESSURE-COOKER, OVEN,
WASHER, AND FREEZER IN A STEPWISE SCALE REDUCTION PROCESS
 (1= eigen value, 2= percent of variance explained by first factor, 3= Alpha coefficient)

Set	33-item scale			28-item scale		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1 (pressure-cooker)	11.36	34.4	.85	10.86	38.8	.88
2 (oven)	9.09	27.5	.83	9.16	32.7	.88
3 (washer)	11.66	35.3	.76	10.99	39.2	.84
4 (freezer)	9.33	28.3	.84	8.18	29.2	.87

Set	15-item scale			13-item scale			9-item scale		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1	8.17	54.5	.90	6.90	53.1	.92	4.52	50.3	.88
2	7.04	47.0	.89	6.60	50.8	.92	5.19	57.7	.91
3	8.50	56.7	.89	7.48	57.5	.93	5.13	57.1	.91
4	6.47	43.1	.86	5.29	40.7	.88	5.92	51.8	.87

The decision for reduction is to retain items that have correlations with the first factor around and over the absolute value of .5 across the four data sets. Items with such correlations across only three sets and that are deemed relevant are also retained. Items that load highly with the first factor in none of the four sets are eliminated. The final decision is to retain 15 items (see underlined items in Appendix 11-A).

DISCUSSION

The process of the PPI scale reduction gives evidence of better results with a limited scale. This is deemed a better instrument because the percentage of the variance accounted for by the first factor is relatively high compared to all the other reduced and non-reduced scales. Besides, it has higher eigen values than the reduced 9-items and 13-items scales and higher reliability alphas than the larger 28-items and 33-items scales (see Table 11-1 above).

A four-factor solution run on the reduced scale shows that all first factors have relatively high eigen values hinging around 6 and 12 and all second, third, and

fourth factors have rather low eigen values, hinging around one in the first three sets and two in the last set (see Table 11-2).

TABLE 11-2
A FOUR-FACTOR SOLUTION FOR THE 15-ITEM SCALE ACROSS THE FOUR DATA SETS
OF PRESSURE-COOKER, OVEN, WASHER, AND FREEZER
(1= eigen value, 2= percent of variance, 3= cumulative percent)

Factor	Pressure-Cooker			Oven			Washer			Freezer		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1	8.17	54.5	54.5	7.04	47.0	47.0	8.50	56.7	56.7	6.46	43.1	43.1
2	1.23	8.2	62.7	1.53	10.2	57.2	1.46	9.6	66.4	2.04	13.6	56.8
3	.99	6.6	69.4	.86	5.8	62.9	1.06	7.1	73.5	1.65	11.0	67.8
4	.82	5.5	74.8	.75	5.0	67.9	.78	5.2	78.8	.78	7.5	75.3

These results indicate that PPI is unifactorial : on average, eigen values drop from eight to one, second factors account for no more than an additional 10% for the first three sets and a little bit more for the last set (13.6%). Hence, the one-factor solution accounting, on average, for more than 50% of variance, is deemed appropriate. The corrected item-to-total correlations for the 15-item scale across the four data sets are provided in Table 11-3. Having all 15 items correlate highly with the first factor throughout the four data sets is unlikely (item 15 in third set).

TABLE 11-3
CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATIONS FOR THE 15-ITEM PPI SCALE ACROSS THE
FOUR DATA SETS OF PRESSURE-COOKER, OVEN, WASHER, AND FREEZER

Item	Pressure-Cooker	Oven	Washer	Freezer
Item1	.7360	.6238	.7471	.3414
Item2	.8300	.5544	.6968	.4066
Item3	.7279	.7107	.7548	.6722
Item4	.5877	.7895	.7617	.7482
Item5	.7669	.7642	.7620	.5679
Item6	.6677	.6293	.7247	.6623
Item7	.6831	.7478	.6616	.6984
Item8	.6667	.7806	.5204	.6305
Item9	.7118	.7774	.7455	.6630
Item10	.6631	.5991	.7514	.3193
Item11	.7364	.5527	.7416	.6532
Item12 *	-.6052	-.3864	-.7336	-.5461
Item13	.6836	.5994	.7438	.7650
Item14	.5320	.5536	.7605	.3908
Item15	.7730	.3611	.1996	.5548

Note : item12 is the only item left with negative wording in the reduced set.

A look at the crossed-out items warrants some comments. The fact that durables save time and effort is an evidence (items 1 and 2). Respondents agree to such an extent that no variability is reflected and, consequently, no significant contribution to explaining differences in durables appreciation is expected. What

matters, it seems, is the way time and effort gained from durables ownership is used. Items relating to the pleasure or enjoyment (items 19, 23 and 24) as well as to the impression management (items 20, 25 and 26) values seem to be irrelevant. Significant are the utilitarian and identity values. These are so intermingled that they make one construct, thus confirming the author's contention that consumers derive symbols from objects, identity from practicality. This does not mean that the relational value is irrelevant, but it is geared towards the spouse and the children thus reinforcing family roles and home orientation (items 6, 7, 9, 10, 14 and 15) rather than other-orientation. Items reflecting role obligations are not associated with achievement and status value (Richins 1994a) or with what others would think of them (item 25, 26, 27). The recognition they look for, it seems, comes more from self-imposed standards than from expectations emanating from outside observers (Thornton and Nardi 1975). This is again in line with the idea that actors are not that concerned with impression management.

CONCLUSION

This research confirmed the unidimensionality of PPI and permitted its reduction to a manageable size. Its disadvantage is the sample size, but reliance on a small sample is warranted given the exploratory nature of the study. The objective is to come out with a reasonably valid and simple instrument for use in further extensive research (Steenkamp and Trijp 1991). To a large extent, the scale can be taken as acultural. However, empirical validation in contexts different from the one in which the survey was conducted, say Europe or America, is warranted and should draw upon the 33-items list. This may reveal more or less the same scale structure with different items magnitude or different scale profiles where other items will be more salient and will better account for variations among European or American respondents than the 15-items scale.

APPENDIX 11-A

ORIGINAL 33 ITEMS- SCALE GENERATED FROM FOCUS-GROUP INTERVIEWS AND
PREVIOUS LITERATURE *

1/ It saves time	<u>17/ It makes me feel I am a good parent</u>
2/ It saves money	<u>18/ It makes me feel I am a good spouse</u>
3/ It is very helpful (it spares effort)	19/ I didn't (I won't) buy it for pleasure's sake
4/ It is healthy	20/ I didn't (I won't) buy it because others have it
<u>5/ It helps me serve my children properly</u>	<u>21/ It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations</u>
<u>6/ It helps me serve my spouse properly</u>	<u>22/ It doesn't have practical usefulness</u>
7/ It helps me serve my guests properly	23/ It helps me bring pleasure to others
<u>8/ It helps me devote more time for myself</u>	24/ It doesn't provide enjoyment for me
<u>9/ It helps me devote more time for my family</u>	25/ It makes other people think well of me
<u>10/ It helps me get organized</u>	26/ It gives me social status
<u>11/ It helps me carry out other tasks simultaneously</u>	27/ I does not represent an achievement for me
12/ It does not represent a nice decoration item.	<u>28/ It allows me to spare time for other activities (reading, sport)</u>
13/ I cannot do without it	<u>29/ It helps me keep my house clean and tidy</u>
14/ My family doesn't need it very badly	<u>30/ It helps me satisfy my family's needs</u>
<u>15/ It helps me work more efficiently at home</u>	31/ It helps my spouse be efficient in household activities
<u>16/ It helps me work more efficiently outside the home</u>	32/ It helps my spouse be efficient outside the home
33/ It gives a better quality service compared to the means that preceded it and that fulfilled more or less the same function.	

* Note. The underlined propositions are the ones which constitute the 15-item PPI scale reduced via factor analysis.

Chapter 12

Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary Analyses

In this chapter, the data in terms of input, process and output variables are examined in detail before assessing their measurements properties and testing them as an integrative system's framework.

INPUT VARIABLES

Family Structure. The overwhelming majority of the sample families are nuclear. 83.1% of the households have no member from the extended family. Only one family out of eight have relatives living with them (see Appendix 12-1a) in which case it is predominantly the mother or father from the man's or the woman's side. These constitute 47 out of 60 cases. The rest are either siblings (11 out of 60), or nephew/cousin (2 out of 60; see Appendix 12-1b). The number of children per family reveals a bell-shaped normal curve with a median of 3. More than 2/3 of the families have 2, 3, or four children. The question about home ownership reveals that more than 3 out of four families live in a house or in an apartment (see Appendix 12-1c). 5 families out of 4 own their homes. The rest either rent their homes or live in a dwelling that is offered by the family or by the employer (Appendix 12-1d).

Help. One third of the families resort to hired help (see Appendix 12-2a). In most cases, hired help is used on a weekly basis - 63 out of 160 cases. The rest of the families use hired help every day - 35 out of 160 families, every fortnight - 20 out of 160 families, or every month - 37 out of 160 families. Still, the majority of the couples tend to rely on themselves for housework (Appendix 12-2b). In 51% of the cases, the woman is the key informant in data collected on the household. Nonetheless, many couples filled in the questionnaire about the household as a whole unit (30 % of the families). In the other cases, it is the man who is the key informant about the household- 15.8% (Appendix 12-2c).

Region. The distribution of the sample by region reveals that most of the respondents live in big cities. Tunis and Sfax are equally represented with 23.8% of the respondents for each. Then, Northwestern Tunisia- Béja and Jendouba - 22%. The rest of the sample comes from Northern Tunisia, Cap Bon - 8.5%) and from Central Tunisia, Kairouan - 8.5% (Appendix 12-2d).

Working Status. The distribution of the sample by region and women's working status is given in the Appendix 12-3a. The categorization of men and women by employment status given in Appendix 12-3b reveals that 56.4% of the households have non-working women. Most men occupy rather a higher position on the employment scale. 62% of them come from middle class key executive, or higher managerial positions and white-collar jobs. About one third are situated at the lower level of the employment scale. These are either blue-collar workers or salesmen. As for women, only 192 out of 480 work full time. Most of them hold middle-higher positions- approximately 82%, as can be seen in the distribution given in Appendix 12-3c.

Income. The same trends about employment are confirmed by the income categorization for men's but not women's cases. On the one hand, more than 50% of men have monthly incomes that range from 500 to 1000 Dinars. However, most working women are situated at the lower level of the scale; 63.2% of them have monthly incomes of less than 500 Dinars. This may be reflective of discriminative remuneration policies against women (see Appendix 12-3d).

Age and Education. The classification of men and women by age reveal that all categories are represented for both cases, with more men on the larger side of the continuum. There are 106 men and only 30 women in the 55 years and more category (See Appendix 12-3e). The categorization of men and women by educational level reveals that, on average, there are more educated husbands than wives. A look at the ends of the continuum reveal that the no education category contains 60 women and 19 men, while the category of those who completed four university years and more contains 42 women and 128 men (see Appendix 12-3f). This means that there are three times as many women as men in the lowest side of the education continuum and three times as many men as women in the highest side of the same scale.

PROCESS VARIABLES

Role Ideology

A comparison of men's and women's responses on the RI scale reveals that, on the whole, there are no systematic significant differences between both populations. Means and standard deviations on each of the RI 7-items scale are given in the table below (see Appendix 12-A1). The significant differences between them

is reflected in the scores for items related to attitudes towards women's labour participation, their processes and consequences. Contrary to women, men tend to disagree about their wives' job liberty (item#3) and about their being involved in home-chore activities even when their wives are working (item#4), but tend to agree about their having an advantage over women in the case of scarcities of job opportunities (item#5).

A comparison of working and non-working women's responses (see Appendix 12-A2) reveals significant differences between both populations. The most significant differences are reflected in the perception of the quality of women's relationships with their children (item #6) and about giving advantage to men over women in remuneration (item#2) and in the case of scarcities of job opportunities (item#5). The differences between working and non-working women are not altogether surprising because working women think that their work involvement has got a rather positive outcome and does not affect negatively the quality of their relationship with their children. The only cases reflecting working and non-working women's agreement is about men's involvement in home-chore activities in case their wives' are involved in labour (item#4) and about a rather traditional perception of men's and women's responsibilities (item #7).

Factor analysis performed on men's and women's RI scales reveals that the scale is not unifactorial. It is rather two-dimensional. A two factor solution may not be easily amenable to factor labeling (see details in chapter 13 on scales reliability assessment). After varimax rotation, the two dimensions that are apparently amenable to factor labeling are 1) « ATWLP: attitude towards woman's labour participation », and 2) « POMWR : perception of man's and woman's responsibility ». The first factor is made of items # 3, 4 and 6, and the second is made of items #1, 2, 5, and 7 (see details in chapter 13).

A paired comparison « t test » run on men's and women's ATWLP and on POMWR reveals the following results. There is a significant difference between men's and women's ATWLP summated scores ($t = -9.94$, $df = 467$, $p < .001$). The mean ATWLP score is 6.94 for women and 8.31 for men. The reader is reminded that the larger the score, the more traditional the attitude, because this particular set

of items is worded towards egalitarianism on a 5-point scale where the first position reflects total agreement.

There is a significant difference between men's and women's POMWR summated scores as well ($t = 3.61$, $df = 466$, $p < .001$). The mean POMWR score is 7.94 for women and 7.36 for men. The reader is reminded that the smaller the score, the more traditional the attitude, because, contrary to the ATWLP set of items, this particular set of items is worded towards traditionalism on a 5-point scale where the first position reflects total agreement.

An independent samples' « t test » run on ATWLP scores of working and non-working women reveals a significant difference between both populations as well ($t = 4.76$, $df = 455$, $p < .001$). The mean is 7.5 for non-working and 6.2 for working thus implying that non-working women tend to be more traditional in their attitudes towards women's labour participation than their working counterparts. The reader is reminded that the larger the score, the more traditional the attitude, because this particular set of items is worded towards egalitarianism on a 5-point scale where the first position reflects total agreement.

An independent samples' « t test » run on POMWR scores of working and non-working women reveals a significant difference between both populations ($t = -4.99$, $df = 455$, $p < .001$). The mean is 7.27 for non-working and 8.7 for working thus implying that non-working women tend to be more traditional in their perception of men's and women's roles than their working counterparts. The smaller the score, the more traditional the attitude, because, contrary to the ATWLP set of items, the POMWR set is worded towards traditionalism on a 5-point scale where the first position reflects total agreement.

The same comparisons are done for women having different educational levels irrespective of their working status. The eight-category education variable is trichotomized in such a way that the first three categories represent the low level, the last three represent the high level, and the two mid categories represent the medium level. This category is made of those who have gone through some or all secondary school formal education. Regarding the ATWLP scores, there is a significant difference between low and medium ($t = 2.44$, $df = 380$, $p = .015$), low and high ($t = 4.08$, $df = 240$, $p < .001$), and medium and high educational levels ($t = 2.38$, $df = 320$,

$p = .018$). Regarding the POMWR scores, there is a significant difference between low and medium ($t = -4.99$, $df = 380$, $p < .001$), low and high ($t = -6.18$, $df = 239$, $p < .001$), and medium and high educational levels as well ($t = -2.71$, $df = 321$, $p = .007$).

Comparisons of independent samples using « t tests » of men's and women's ATWLP and POMWR of different income levels reveal more or less the same difference patterns. The nine-category income variable is trichotomized as follows : midpoint incomes for men and women are entered and added thus creating a pooled family income variable . Then mean family income plus or minus one standard deviation of the mean constitute the medium family income level. Regarding women's scores on ATWLP (see Appendix 12-A4), there is a slightly significant difference between low and medium ($t = 1.86$, $df = 400$, $p = .064$), low and high ($t = 2.89$, $df = 256$, $p = .004$), but not between medium and high levels of pooled family income ($t = 1.55$, $df = 268$, $p = .123$). Regarding men's scores on ATWLP (see Appendix 12-A5), there is a significant difference between low and medium levels ($t = 2.87$, $df = 400$, $p = .004$), low and high levels ($t = 1.97$, $df = 256$, $p = .05$), but not between medium and high levels of pooled family income ($t = -.04$, $df = 268$, $p = .96$).

Regarding women's scores on PORMW (see Appendix 12-A4), there is a significant difference between low and medium levels ($t = -4.09$, $df = 257$, $p < .001$), low and high levels ($t = -4.38$, $df = 257$, $p = .001$), but not between medium and high levels of pooled family income ($t = -1.24$, $df = 267$, $p = .215$). Regarding men's scores on POMWR (see Appendix 12-A5), there is a significant difference between low and medium levels ($t = -4.91$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), low and high levels ($t = -4.75$, $df = 254$, $p < .001$), but not between medium and high levels of pooled family income ($t = -1.00$, $df = 270$, $p = .316$). This means that there are similar patterns of differences between men and women across the three educational levels.

The same comparisons are performed using the individual's income level instead of the whole family's. The results are similar to the preceding comparisons to some extents. There is a significant difference between low and medium levels for men's as well as for women's scores on both ATWLP and PORMW. Comparisons of low and high levels reveal significant differences for men's scores on POMWR but

not for men's scores on ATWLP; neither for women's scores on ATWLP. This may imply that role ideology is class specific, rather than gender specific. Men and women of the same income categories have more or less similar role ideologies. This is true for comparisons between low and medium levels and low and high levels comparisons, but the difference is not significant between medium and high income earners. Medium and high levels comparisons are significant for men's PORMW but not significant for men's, nor for women's scores on ATWLP (see Appendix 12-A8 and Appendix 12-A9).

An independent samples' t test run on working and non-working women's RI scores reveals the following. For both the first and the second factor of the RI scale, there is a significant difference between working and non-working women. Regarding the perception of men's and women's role, the mean score is 7.27 for non-working and 8.7 for working women. The mean difference is -1.43, $t = -4.99$, $df = 454$, and $p < .001$. Regarding the attitude towards women's labour participation, the mean score is 7.5 for non-working and 6.2 for working women. The mean difference is 1.3, $t = -4.99$, $df = 455$, and $p < .001$.

The t-tests for Paired Samples reveal significant differences between men and women in Role Ideology. Regarding the perception of men's and women's roles, the score is 7.94 for women and 7.36 for men, $t = 3.61$, $df = 466$, $p < .001$). As for the perception of men's and women's roles, it has a mean score of 6.94 for women and 8.31 for men ($t = -9.22$, $df = 467$, $p < .001$).

For both men and women, and for both Role Ideology dimensions, the higher the educational level, the less traditional the perception of men's and women's roles as well as the attitude towards women's labour participation (see Tables 10-A4 and 10-A5). Besides, for both men and women, and for both Role Ideology dimensions, the higher the age, the more traditional the perception of men's and women's roles as well as the attitude towards women's labour participation (see Tables 10-A6 and 10-A7).

For both men and women, and for both Role Ideology dimensions, the higher the income level, the less traditional the perception of men's and women's roles as well as the attitude towards women's labour participation (see Tables 10-A7 and 10-A8). However men's attitude towards women labour participation tends to gear to

traditionalism (see Table A-8). This may be explained by the fact that men who have the means to play adequately the breadwinner responsibility prefer that their wives stay home and do not involve in labour participation.

Role Overload

Means and standard deviations on each of the RO 13-items scale reveal that, on the whole, there are many differences between men's and women's ratings on the RO scale (see Appendix 12-B1 below). Nine items out of 13 reflect the difference in RO perceptions between both populations.

An independent samples t test run on working and non-working women's RO summated scores reveals that non-working women have higher RO scores (mean=34.55) which implies that they perceive less overload than their working (mean=30.59) counterparts (mean difference=3.96; $t = 3.31$, $p < .001$). This may be due to the fact that working women have far more obligations than non-working ones. The reader is reminded that the higher the score, the lower the overload (see Appendix 12-B2).

The cross-tabulation of role overload by main socio-demographics reveals the patterns presented in (see Appendix 12- B3). Woman's working status has an impact on the change in the proportion of women perceiving role overload. It increases by 14.3% percentage points which represent a 28% differential.

Education has a different impact for men and women. For women, it has no impact on the proportion of women perceiving overload. The proportion hinges around an average of 57%. However, the higher man's education, the lower overload perceived by man. The proportion drops from 61.2% to 52.7% then to 44.6% The differential is as about the same as one moves from low to medium (14%) or from medium to high (15%).

Regarding income, the proportion of women perceiving overload is higher as one moves from low to medium, but not from medium to high levels of women income categories. The proportion increases from 54.0% to 64.3% to level at 63.6%. The use of pooled family income instead of the women's reveals exactly the same pattern. The higher the income, the higher the proportion of women perceiving overload as one moves from low to medium, but not from medium to high levels.

This may imply that high-income families resort to the use of TSES products as means of relieving overload.

Regarding age, there is a higher proportion of middle aged women perceiving role overload than there are younger or older women. There are 59.3% in comparison of an average of 57.3%. For man, the relation is rather straightforward; as one moves from the low to medium age category, the proportion increases by 2.2% then by 4.1%, which represent a differential change of 4% and 7% respectively.

A simple regression of the number of children against the summated role overload score for women reveals a significant relationship ($F = 12,54917$, $p = .0004$) and a significant impact of greater numbers of children on the perceived role overload. ($Beta = -.163830$; $t = -3,542$; $p = .0004$), implying that the higher the number of children, the lower the RO scale, i. e, the higher the perceived overload. The reader is reminded that the propositions for the RO scale are worded in such a way that the lower the score, the higher the overload. The same regression performed against men's RO score reveals the same trend but with an insignificant relationship between number of children and men's overload ($F = 2,39494$; $p = 0.1224$; $Beta = -0.072599$; $t = -1,548$; $p = 0.1224$).

Role Performance

The trichotomization of the Role Performance variable into husband dominant (1 and 2), wife dominant (4 and 5), and shared (=3) reveals the following patterns (see Appendix 12-D1) :

- a- Most roles are performed by wives thus reflecting a predominantly traditional role enactment of home-chore activities. Washing clothes, cooking meals, washing dishes, preparing breakfast, and cleaning the house are all women's quasi-exclusive responsibilities. The only activity where men are relatively involved is shopping. Even in this case, the activity is more wife-dominant than shared. The total sample proportions are 26.4% for husband dominant, 30.6% for shared and 40.1% for wife dominant categories.
- b- A comparison of working and non-working women families reveals the following : there is a tendency towards increasing men's involvement in home-chore activities in families with working women. While this involvement is negligible for the washing clothes, for the cooking, and the cleaning activities, it is rather significant for

preparing breakfast and for washing dishes after meals. In these cases, wife dominance drops from 88.1% to 69.8%; and from 98.9% to 86.8% respectively.

- c- The reduction of wife dominance in these activities is more translated by role sharing than by men's involvement. While men's dominance is somewhat enhanced in the case of preparing breakfast, moving from 5.6% to 13.0% which represents a 43% change, role sharing is more pronounced. It moves from 6.3% to 17.2% for preparing breakfast, from 1.5% to 6% for cleaning, from 0.7% to 11.6% for washing the dishes, and from 1.1% to 6.8% for cooking meals. This means that men who are involved in home-chore activities step in to help their wives rather than to assume the responsibility of these activities.
- d- The shopping activity represents an interesting role performance pattern. Both wife and husband dominance are reduced, with the latter having a more important differential change, thus enhancing sharing. Wife dominance drops from 41.4% to 38.2% which represents less than a 8% change while husband dominance drops from 29.1% to 22.5% which represents more than a 22% change. As for sharing it gains almost 10 percentage points moving from 29.5% to 39.3% which represents a 33% change. This means that families with employed women tend to make of shopping a joint responsibility.

The distribution of role performance by income level gives proportions of wife dominance that range from 80% to 97%. The reader is reminded that family income level is calculated as follows (see Appendix12- D2). Midpoint husband's and wives' incomes are added; then the mean plus and minus one standard deviation is taken as the medium level. Among the three income levels, role performance remains predominantly wife dominant for all roles except for shopping. For washing dishes, wife dominance is reduced and role sharing is enhanced. There are almost no husbands taking full responsibility of such tasks. Wife dominance decreases by 7 percentage points from low to medium and by 6 percentage points from medium to high. The differential is quite the same for the first and for the second cases. Regarding breakfast preparation, male dominance is enhanced. It moves from 3.6% to 12.4% then to 14.3%. The differential is greater among the medium than among the high family income level. Wife dominance is significantly reduced from low to medium level. It drops from 90.4% to 72.2% but increases again to 76.2% for high income levels. The opposite

trend appears in role sharing. There is more sharing among the medium level than among the low or the high family income levels. This proportion increases from 6.1% to 15.3% to drop back to 9.5%. The shopping role reveals a unique pattern. While wife dominance remains somewhat constant across the three income levels, husband dominance decreases and sharing increases. Sharing moves from 26% to 36.8%, then to 44.4%. This means that the higher the income, the higher the sharing.

The distribution of role performance by women's income level reveals the following trends (see Appendix 12-D3). Regarding dish-washing, there is less wife dominance among the medium than among the low or the high income levels families. This proportion drops from 97.3% to 84.4%, and then goes back to 90.9%. This may imply that women who find the means to buy a dishwasher no longer need their husband's help in performing such a task. The same phenomena appear for preparing breakfast and, to a certain extent, for shopping. In the first case, wife dominance drops from 86.2% to 65.9% and increases back to 82%, a larger proportion than the total sample one. As for sharing, it grows from 6.9% to 20.2% to drop back to 9.1%. In the second case, while husband dominance decreases from 28.2% to 21.7% then drops back to 9.1%, role sharing increases from 29.7% to 42.6% then drops back to 36.4%. This may lead us to question the resource theory whereby the more resources women bring, the more they press for sharing in performing selected home-chore activities. This is true for medium level income, but not for high level income earners. This may be due to the fact that women who earn a high income have the means to own TSES products and to hire paid help for home-chores role performance.

When the comparisons are made on the basis of men's income levels, the same U shaped curve appears again for preparing breakfast (see Appendix 12-D4). Wife dominance drops from 90.9% to 77% then slightly increases to 78.3% while sharing increases from 6.8% to 12.3% among medium income families, it drops back to 8.4% among the high income levels. Regarding shopping, husband dominance drops systematically from 36.4% to 25.9% then to 15.7%, thus enhancing sharing, rather than wife dominance. Sharing grows from 23.9% to 34.2% then to 41%. Men's resources enhance sharing among the medium level but not among the high income earners. To a certain extent, sharing is enhanced for the case of outdoor activities (shopping), but not

for the case of indoor activities. Men who earn high incomes have presumably the means to own TSES products and to hire paid help.

The above analysis may lead us to the conclusion that medium income level families are the ones who witness more role sharing than their low and high income counterparts. Instead of decreasing some of their responsibilities, women witness an increase in their involvement. This means that the resource theory, whereby women with more resources will press for more sharing in home-chore activities, is verified for medium level income families but not for high income level families.

The distribution of role performance by women's education level (see Appendix 12-D5) reveals the following patterns. On the whole, women's involvement in home-chore activities decreases as her educational level grows which implies more role sharing. As one moves from lower, to medium then to higher educational levels, wife dominance decreases from 98.7% to 94.4% while sharing increases from .7% to 11% then to 14%. The shopping activity reveals an interesting pattern. Wife dominance drops from 44.1% to 38.1% then goes back to 38.7%. Sharing grows steadily; it moves from 22.4% to 37.7% to 41.9%. Husband dominance however decreases steadily; it drops from 33.6% to 24% then to 19.4%. This means that the more women are educated, the more they hold control over shopping.

When men's educational level is considered, the same patterns emerge (see Appendix 12 D-5). Regarding dish-washing, wives' dominance decreases from 98.8% to 94% then to 89.9% . This change is translated by an increase in husband dominance which increases from 2.4% to 7.7% to 14.3% as well as in role sharing which grows from 4.8% to 10.8% to 13.1%. Either women's or men's educational levels can give more or less the same indications about role performance. This may be due to the fact that both men's and women's variables are highly correlated ($r = .59$, $p < .001$).

The distribution of role performance by men's age reveals the patterns presented in Appendix 12- D7. Regarding dish-washing, wife dominance increases and role sharing decreases as one moves from one age category to the higher. Wife dominance increases from 88.4% to 92.2% then to 96.2% and sharing decreases from 10.1% to 6.8% then to 2.7%. This means that as couples grow older, sharing is given up and wife dominance in home-chores is enhanced. This is consistent with the role specialization theory (Cox III 1975).

The shopping activity reveals the same pattern as above. As men's age grows, wife dominance is enhanced but sharing decreases. Wife dominance decreases from 22.9% to 43.0% then to 43.2% while sharing drops from 47.1% to 35.7% then to 25.9%. However, male dominance reveals a U shaped curve as one moves from younger to older ages. It drops from 30.0% to 21.3% then grows back to 30.8%. This means that husbands tend to take full responsibility of shopping either at a younger or at an older age.

Regarding the activities of washing, cooking and cleaning, they remain predominantly wife dominant with a tendency towards some role sharing among younger families. Despite their smallness, the figures show that the young, more than the old, are somewhat geared towards some forms of role sharing, but not of role interchangeability. Sharing amounts to an average of 10% of the cases among younger people. When calculations are based on women's instead of men's age categories, the same trends appear (see table 10- D8). This congruence between the findings may be due to the fact that men's and women's ages are highly correlated ($r=.84$, $p<.001$).

A factor analysis of the six RP scales reveals two dimensions : one made of the five home-chore activities and the other of shopping. Appendices 12-D9 through 12-D21 give the distribution of these two variables on the basis of men's and women's sociodemographics. The trends discussed above about role distribution are confirmed.

Perceived Product Instrumentality

Men versus Women. Means and standard deviations on each of the PPI 15-items scale reveals that there are many propositions which reflect significant differences between men's and women's PPI ratings as they are related to the three products considered. A look at the details of the scales reveals that many items underlie differences between men and women in the perception of product instrumentality.

A paired comparison « t test » applied to the three PPI 15-items scales of women and men respectively reveals highly significant differences between both populations. In the case of the pressure cooker (see Appendix 12-C1), women tend to perceive more instrumentality than men do in every single proposition of the PPI

scale. t values for the 15 items range from -4.45 to -12.01 and all two-tailed significance levels of $p < .001$. This means that men have higher scores thus implying lower instrumentality. The reader is reminded that responses are given on a 5-point scale where the first position reflects total agreement about propositions underlying instrumentality.

In the case of the washer (see Appendix 12-C2), women tend to perceive more instrumentality than men do for most propositions of the PPI. t values for 13 items range from -3.16 to -10.22 and all two-tailed significance levels approximate $p < .002$. The t value for the fourteenth item, the last in the list, is -1.84 and is only significant at $p = .1$. In the case of the multifunction processor (see Appendix 12-C3), women tend to perceive more instrumentality than men do for every single proposition of the PPI scale. t values for the 15 items range from -5.24 to -12.51 and all two-tailed significance levels give $p < .001$.

A paired comparison « t test » applied to the three PPI aggregated scales of women and men respectively reveals highly significant differences between both populations. The same conclusions are obtained either when summated or factorial scores are utilized. In the former case, t values are -11.41 for the pressure-cooker, -8.45 for the washer, and -10.91 for the multifunction processor and all three p values are $< .001$. This again may reflect women's active role in durables administration, their involvement in home-chore activities and the extent to which they perceive such durables as means of solving problems, gaining time, relieving pressure and reducing overload.

Working Versus Non-working Women. In the following section, I question whether there are any differences between non-working and working women in instrumentality perception. These represent 269 (58.4%) and 192 (41.6%) of a total 461 cases respectively. The implicit assumption here is that working women may perceive higher instrumentality in TSES products than do their non-working counterparts, because the products involved may help them solve problems, save time, reduce overload and relieve pressure from their multiple role obligations.

Means and standard deviations for each of the 15 items of the three PPI scales corresponding to the three durables are calculated. There are no significant differences between working and non-working women in assessing PPI for the

pressure cooker (see Appendix 12-C4). The only highly significant difference between both categories is reflected in the item relating to the capacity of the pressure cooker to help role actors work outside the home (item#8; $t = -3.96, p < .001$). The other item that approaches significance is related to the capacity of the durable to help role actors spare time for other activities (item#11; $t = -1.93$; $p = 0.027$). A look at the aggregated scores reveals that, on the whole, non-working women's summated ratings are higher than working women's, thus reflecting their lower perceived instrumentality for the pressure cooker.

The comparison of working and non-working ratings on the washer PPI reveals no significant differences between both populations (see Appendix 12-C5). The only difference test that approximates significance is item #8 assessing the capacity of the durable to help the actor work outside the home ($t = 1.52$, $p = .09$).

The comparison of working and non-working ratings on the multifunction processor PPI reveals some significant differences between both populations (see Appendix 12-C6). These are particularly reflected in propositions # 6, 8, 12, and 13. They underlie the capacity of the durable to help role actors do other things simultaneously ($t = -2.73$; $p = .004$), to work outside the home more efficiently ($t = -3.66$, $p < .001$), to have practical usefulness ($t = -2.33$, $p = .013$), and to be time saving for other activities ($t = 2.46$, $p = .007$).

Independent samples « t tests » run on summated PPI scores of working and non-working women reveal that, on the whole, there are no significant differences between both populations in perceived instrumentality for the pressure cooker ($t = 1.15$; $p = .12$), and the washer ($t = -0.13$, $p = .38$). There is a significant difference however between both populations concerning the multifunction processor PPI. Working women tend to perceive in it higher instrumentality than do non-working ones ($t = -1.97$, $p = .025$). The conclusions are somewhat confirmed when factorial scores are utilized. The tests for the pressure cooker and the washer are not at all significant (both absolute t tests < 1), and the one for the washer approximates significance. ($t = 1.78$; $p = .037$). This means that women's attitudes towards the pressure cooker and the washer is independent of their working status. Statistically speaking, the null hypotheses should not be rejected and the conclusion would be reached that there is no evidence of a difference between working and non-working

reached that there is no evidence of a difference between working and non-working women in the perception of the pressure cooker and the washer instrumentality. The attitude towards the multifunction processor depends on whether the woman works or does not work. It is worth noting here that, following Laurent and Kapferer's theory of involvement (1985) , one can talk about different instrumentality profiles for working and non-working populations.

OUTPUT VARIABLES

TSES versus Non-TSES Durables Preferences

The distribution of men's and women's preferences for TSES products in opposition to their non TSES counterparts is presented in Appendix 12-E1 below. For various household activities, respondents are asked whether they prefer the TSES durable to its non TSES counterpart or vice versa or whether they are indifferent. The last cases are discarded from the analysis in such a way that only those who prefer and do not prefer TSES products are considered. The proportions of the Indifferent categories are relatively unimportant as they average about 14% .

The data in question reveal similarities and differences between men and women. On the one hand, both men and women prefer TSES products to their non TSES counterparts for the cases of meat grinding, cloth-washing and housecleaning. In the case of the three activities, the proportion of women who prefer TSES products to their non TSES counterparts is more important than that of men This may be indicative of more active involvement of women in home-chore activities in comparison with men. They are presumably more concerned about rendering those activities less laborious. The TSES preference proportions for women and men are 89% versus 73.1%; 76.7% versus 63.9%; 61.1% versus 53.4% for the three activities respectively. On the other hand, both men and women prefer non TSES products to their TSES counterparts for the cases of roasting beef and dish-washing. The Non TSES preference proportions for women and men are 62.1% versus 61.6%, and 52.4% versus 53.2%.

Regarding cooking meals and preparing morning coffee, men's and women's responses reveal different preference patterns. In these cases, while women prefer the TSES product to its non TSES counterpart (56.6% prefer TSES and 35.6% don't), men give answers in the opposite direction (42.9% prefer TSES and 44.3% don't).

This may be explained by the fact that men are more concerned with the taste of the product than with the labour involved in the activity.

A series of « chi-square tests » run on frequencies of working versus non-working women's preferences for TSES versus non-TSES durables reveals that on the whole, there are more similarities than differences between the working and the non-working populations in assessing such preferences.

TABLE 12-1A
Chi-Square Statistics Results of TSES Preferences by Working Status

Activity	Observed Chi-Square	P value
Cooking	.47	.40
Grinding	3.24	.07
Roasting	.18	.67
Coffee Preparation	1.44	.23
Clothe-washing	2.04	.15
Dish-washing	5.23	.02
Cleaning	.42	.51

In the cases of cooking, roasting, coffee preparation, cleaning, and clothe washing, there is no evidence of a difference between working and non-working women in the proportion of those who prefer and those who do not prefer TSES durables. This means that for these activities, preferences for TSES durables to their non-TSES counterparts has nothing to do with women's working status.

For the cases of dish-washing, and to a lesser degree, for meat grinding, there is evidence of a difference between working and non-working women in the proportion of preferers and non preferers of TSES durables. The first is significant at an alpha of .05 and the second at an alpha of .10. It seems that, in the first cases, practicality is appreciated by both categories. In other words, there is no effect of working status on preferences of TSES versus non-TSES durables. This means that there are non-working women who prefer using the pressure-cooker as there are working women who do not. This is confirmed by focused-group interviews.

For the cases of dish-washing and meat grinding, time-saving and effort-sparing seem to be underlined. Working women tend to prefer the TSES durables to the non TSES counterparts more than their non-working counterparts do. They may perceive them as helpful in performing some of the most boring tasks of housework.

Household TSES Product Ownership

An independent sample's *t* test meant to see if there are any differences between working and non-working women's families with regard to their respective number of TSES products owned reveals that there are significant differences between both populations in terms of the number of TSES products owned by each family type. The reader is reminded that the TSES variable refers to the total number of major (which totals a maximum of 10 and minor which totals a maximum of 14) durables.

The mean number of TSES durables owned are 8.92 for working and 6.95 for non-working, (the range is 24; $t(459) = 4.9$; $p < .001$. In other words working-women families tend to own more time-saving products than their non-working family counterparts. The same trends are confirmed when the test is run for major and minor durables list separately. *t* tests for both cases are 4.9 and 4.43 ($df = 459$ for both cases) respectively and *p* values $< .001$ in all cases.

An analysis of variance run on the ownership variables reveals a very significant relationship between TSES durables ownership and family input variables such as income level, women's and men's education level, and the women's working status. TSES durables ownership is related to pooled family income, either major and minor durables considered together or separately. TSES product ownership for both major and minor durables is related to women's education level, to men's education level, to women's working status. All considered relationships are significant at $p < .001$ (see Table 12-1b).

Controlling the income variable, simple ANOVAS were run with the number of TSES products owned as a dependent variable and women's working status as independent variable. For each of the three family income levels, *F* tests are all insignificant. The statistics involved are given in Table 12-2.

TABLE 12-1B
ANOVA Results for Ownership of TSES Durables : F Tests and Significance of F for
Explained Variances

Source of Variation	F	Significance of F
F		
FAMILY INCOME LEVEL		
TSES	89.547	.000
MAJOR	47.117	.000
MINOR	64.016	.000
CATEGORY OF WOMEN EDUCATION		
MINOR	32.950	.000
MAJOR	19.799	.000
CATEGORY OF MEN EDUCATION		
MAJOR	9.396	.000
MINOR	25.184	.000
WOMAN WORKING STATUS		
MINOR	24.722	.000
MAJOR	19.603	.000
TSES	24.3	.000

TABLE 12-2

ANOVA Results for Ownership of TSES Durables By Working Status, Controlling for Income
Level : F test and Significance of F

Source of Variation	F	Significance of F
Low Income Level (197 cases)		
MAJOR	.314	.576
MINOR	.278	.599
TSES	.015	.902
Medium Income Level (210 cases)		
MAJOR	1.042	.309
MINOR	.043	.835
TSES	.704	.402
High Income Level (63 cases)		
MAJOR	.156	.694
MINOR	.259	.613
TSES	.056	.813

Purchasing Role Configuration (PRC)

The distribution of men's and women's roles throughout the purchasing process given in the table below reveals the following patterns :

The Purchasing Process in Detail (see Appendix 12-E1).

- a- The need identification phase is characterized by women's active participation. Collapsing the « wife mostly » and the « wife alone » categories of responses gives 57% in the case of major durable, and 67% for the case of minor durable acquisition. This means that women's responsibility in identifying family needs for durables is important in both cases. It is greater for major than for minor durables purchasing.
- b- The information search is characterized more by men's involvement than by women's. In the case of major durable acquisition, collapsing the « husband

mostly » and the « husband alone » categories of responses gives 43.6% of the cases versus 27.2% for the « wife mostly » and the « wife alone » categories. The situation is reversed in the case of minor durable acquisition. The figures become 33.5% for men and 49.3% for women. This means that women are accorded more responsibility for information search in the case of minor durables than in the case of major durables acquisition.

- c- The final decision phase is characterized by men's active participation in the process of major durables but not in that of minor durables acquisition. Collapsing the « husband mostly » and the « husband alone » categories of responses gives 37.1% of the cases versus 23.3% for the « wife mostly » and the « wife alone » categories in the case of major durables. When it comes to minor durables acquisition decisions, the roles are reversed. Collapsing the « husband mostly » and the « husband alone » categories of responses gives 29.6% of the cases versus 44.3% for the « wife mostly » and the « wife alone » categories.
- d- Purchasing act is mostly men's responsibility in both cases of major and minor durables acquisition. The figures reveal 63.1% for men and 17.6% for women. The difference between both figures is however reduced for the case of minor durables acquisition: 44.1% for men and 37.7% for women.
- e- Role sharing is greater for the case of major durables acquisition than that for minor durables throughout the whole purchasing process : 30.6% versus 20.0% for the need identification phase; 29.2% versus 17.2% for the information search phase; 39.7% versus 26.2% for the final decision phase; and 19.2% versus 18.8% for the purchasing act. The most predominant case of sharing appears during final decision making concerning major durables acquisition. Not surprisingly, decisions involving important financial outlays need both partners' participation and involvement.

In conclusion, it would be misleading to generalise about husband and wife roles in any absolute sense. For example, conclusions about which spouse makes the durable purchase acquisition decision would necessarily depend on which particular phase of the process is considered. Also, one cannot generalise about roles in a particular decision without reference to the product being purchased. For example, in

comparing the percentage of who identifies the family need for a minor durable and that of who makes the final decision for the purchase of a major durable, the former is characterized by a large proportion of wife dominant families (67.5%) while in the latter, only 27.2% are wife-dominant.

The Purchasing Process as a Whole (see Appendix 12-E2). Following previous researchers (Davis 1970; Hempel 1974; Shukla & Kapoor 1990), the trichotomization of the purchasing role variable and the aggregation of scores of men's and women's involvement throughout the whole purchasing process of major and minor durables reveals that the process is basically shared. 53.1% of the cases belong to the sharing category of purchasing. There are almost as many cases reflecting men's dominance as there are cases reflecting women's dominance- 22.1% and 24.8% respectively. A closer look at the sharing category reveals that family purchasing behaviour is more predominantly autonomic -80.4% of the cases- than syncratic- 19.6% of the cases. The reader is reminded that the purchasing role structure is calculated as follows : the score for each family is summated over the four decisions of each major and minor purchasing process. The overall score ranges from 4 to 20 for each and from 8 to 40 for both decisions. On the basis of the Blood and Wolfe categorization, the family role configuration is assessed for two durables, one minor and one major, and classified into one of the four following decision patterns (Hempel 1974).

TABLE 12-3

Purchasing Role Structure

Family Role Structure	Relevant Decision Pattern	Range of Dominance
Husband dominant	Husband dominates or shares all eight decisions	8 to 16
Wife dominant	Wife dominates or shares all eight decisions	32 to 40
Syncratic	At least five of the eight decisions are joint and dominance is balanced	17 to 31
Autonomic	Not more than four of the eight decisions are joint but dominance is balanced	17 to 31

Then the family is categorized as autonomic when the number of shared decisions are 4 or less, and syncratic when they are comprised between 5 and 8. An independent sample's t test meant to see if there are any differences between working and non-working women run on their respective rating summated over the

major and minor processes of the purchasing role reveals that working women tend to play bigger roles in the purchasing process of TSES products than their non-working counterparts. The mean score is 27.68 for working women and 22.09 for non-working women. The mean difference is 4.41 thus reflecting a bigger role played by working women; ($t = 5.37$; $df = 431$; $p < .001$). Because of the differences in purchasing patterns between major and minor durables, subsequent analyses are performed separately for major and minor durables.

Purchasing Process and Income. The pooled family income variable was trichotomized into higher, medium, and lower classes of earners on the basis of the mean pooled family income. Families having one more or less standard deviation of the mean value are classified as medium income earners. A Chi-Square test run on the above frequencies crossed by the purchasing process patterns reveals that there is a significant relationship between the family income level and purchasing process patterns. The statistics for minor and for major durables are given in Appendix 12-E3.

The trichotomization of the purchasing role configuration variable for working and non-working reveals the following patterns (see Table 10-E4). In both cases, husband dominance drops from 34.6% to 17% which represents about 50% change for minor purchasing, and from 38.7% to 22.4% which represents a change of about 40%. Wife dominance increases by about 50% for minor durables (which is a gain about the same as the loss for husband dominance). It increases from 31.2% to 47.4%. In the case of major durable acquisition, it increases from 17.1% to 27.1% which represents about 60% change. In both cases, role sharing increases slightly, with a bigger differential for the case of major durable acquisition. Role sharing is more characteristic of working than non-working and of major than of minor durable acquisition.

The cross-tabulation of the purchasing role structure variable by men's education level reveals the following patterns (see Appendix 12-E5). The higher the men's education, the lower his dominance in both purchases. For minor durables, husband dominance drops from 34.1% to 26.6% then to 23.2%. This represents a 22% change as one moves from low to medium, and of 13% as one moves from medium to high educational levels. The change is more important when one moves

from low to medium than from medium to high levels. For major durables, husband dominance drops from 44.7% to 35.6% then to 20.2%, These represent a 20% and a 43% change respectively. This means that the change is more than twice when one moves from medium to high than when one moves from low to medium. Wife dominance increases as husband's education increases only for higher level education. The change is rather insignificant when one moves from lower to medium educational levels. It drops from 35.3% to 33.8% for minor durables and increases from 17.6% to 17.6% for major durables. It increases sharply from 33.8% to 48.2% for minor durables and from 17.6% to 29.8% for major durables. In relative terms the differential is greater for major than for minor (43% change versus a 70% change). Sharing reveals different patterns for minor and major durables. It is enhanced as one moves from low to medium educational levels. In case of minor durables, it moves from 30.6% to 39.6% but decreases as one moves from medium to high level. It drops to 28.6%. In case of major durables, sharing grows from 38.8% to 46.8% then to 50%. In relative terms, the differential is greater as one moves from the low to the medium (20% change) than from medium to high education levels (7% change).

When women's education is used for comparisons of family purchasing behaviour, the same patterns arise (see Appendix 12-E-6). The higher the women's educational level, the greater wife dominance and the smaller husband dominance. The wife dominance change is greater for minor durables than for major durables. It moves from 30.3% to 39.9% to 50.5% versus 17.8% to 21.0% to 29.0%. As for sharing, it remains almost constant as one moves from low to medium then to high levels for minor durables and increases steadily for major durables. Again, the minor durables acquisition process is typically wife dominant while the major durables acquisition process is typically shared.

The distribution of the family purchasing role structure by men's income level reveals patterns that are quite similar to those revealed when women's educational levels were used (see Appendix 12-E7). As one moves from low to medium then to high levels of education, husband dominance increases while wife dominance decreases. The former decreases from 35.2% to 26.7% to 19.3% for minor durables and from 44.3% to 32.7% to 15.7% for major durables and the latter increases from 28.4% to 38.9% to 47.0% for minor durables and from 14.8% to

20.8% to 30.1% for the latter. The trend is confirmed for both minor durables and major durables acquisition. Sharing reflects an interesting pattern. As one moves from low to medium to high educational levels, it decreases slightly in Minor durables but increases quite steadily in major durables . Again, minor durables is typically wife dominant while major durables acquisition is typically shared.

Cross-tabulating the purchasing role structure by women's age category warrants the following comments (see Appendix 12-E8). husband dominance remains about constant for minor durables and major durables. It represents 1/3 to 1/4 of the cases, as one moves from lower to higher age categories. Sharing remains constant as one moves from one age category to another for minor durables but increases sharply from 45.7% to 51.1% as one moves from younger to adult families then drops back to 36.7% when one moves from the adult to the old. Wife dominance is quite important and remains about constant for minor durables. It hinges around 40%. It is higher among the young and to a greater extent, among the old than for the mature in the case of major durables .

Cross-tabulating the purchasing role structure by men's age category warrants the following comments (see Appendix 12-E9). Husband dominant decreases as one moves from one age category to the higher. For minor durables, It drops from 37.1% to 26% to 23.8%. For major durables , it drops from 37.1% to 29.1% to go up again to 32.4%. Sharing remains about constant for both minor durables and major durables with a tendency of more sharing among the adult for both cases. It increases from 31.4% to 35% to drop back to 34.6% for minor durables it increases from 48.6% to 50.2% to drop back to 42.2% This is about the same pattern as the one revealed in the case of the distribution of roles by women's age.

Cross-tabulating the purchasing role structure by women's income category warrants the following comments (see Appendix 12-E10). Husband dominant is lowest among medium income earners; it is about half the proportion of the low and high income earners. It is only 14.7% compared to 31.0% and 27.3% respectively for minor durables. Husband dominance among the medium level income earners is also about half the proportion of that of low income earners (18.6% versus 36.4%), and about the same proportion of high income earners (18.6% versus 18.2%). For minor durables, wife dominance increases from 35.8% to 46.5% as one moves from low to

medium but remains almost the same as one moves from medium to high income category equaling 45.5%. For major durables, wife dominance increases steadily from 19.4% to 25.6% to 36.4%; the differential is greater as one moves from the second to the third category. The first differential represents 32% change while the second represents a 42% change.

The distribution of purchasing role structure by pooled family income reveals the following typical pattern (see Appendix 12-E11). For both major and minor durables acquisition, the greater the family income, the less husband dominance, and the more wife dominance. Wife dominance is on average greater for major than for minor (31.3% versus 26.6%) . The differential is greater as one moves from the lower to the medium level, than when one moves from the medium to the higher levels (36% versus 13% change for minor, and 23% versus 25% change). Sharing is the most typical structure for major durables. The proportion amounts to 47.2% versus 34.9% for minor durables. The differential is however much greater as one moves from low to medium than from medium to high levels in both major durables and minor durables. These represent 17.5% versus 9.5% change for minor durables and 27% versus 6% change for major durables.

PART IV

MODEL TESTING AND VALIDATION

Chapter 13

Assessing Scales Reliability and Validity

Assessing Scales Reliability and Validity

The objective of this chapter is to assess the reliability and the validity of the scales used for measuring the various constructs of the model. The process variables of the model are of particular interest in this analysis. Exploratory factor analysis is performed to explore the patterns of relationships among the different items within the scales. Confirmatory factor analysis is performed to reduce the scales to a theoretically and statistically satisfactory level.

EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI)

The reader is reminded that three TSES products serve for PPI measurement in the present study. These are the pressure cooker, the dishwasher, and the multifunction processor. These products are chosen because of the evidence that during focused-group interviews, men's and women's attitudes towards them were divergent.

An exploratory principal axis factoring is run on each set of men's and women's samples. All the original 15 items have high loadings with a first and very few with a second factor without meaningful consistency across the three data sets and the two men and women samples. Factor statistics are provided in Table 13-1:

TABLE 13-1
EIGEN VALUE (1), PERCENT OF VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY THE FIRST FOUR FACTORS
(2) ACROSS THREE DATA SETS AND TWO SAMPLES OF MEN AND WOMEN

(Men's sample n=480)				(Women's sample n=480)	
Set	Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Var	Eigenvalue	% of Var
1	1	8.07745	53.8	9.24587	61.6
	2	1.60503	10.7	1.23903	8.3
	3	.87711	5.8	.80675	5.4
	4	.66101	4.4	.66036	4.4
2	1	8.89567	59.3	9.26044	61.7
	2	1.44612	9.6	1.35532	9.0
	3	.93830	6.3	.76723	5.1
	4	.68005	4.5	.61152	4.1
3	1	8.10061	54.0	8.81269	58.8
	2	1.36365	9.1	1.25539	8.4
	3	.91925	6.1	.95017	6.3
	4	.71998	4.8	.65658	4.4

Sets 1 through 3 correspond respectively to the pressure-cooker, the dishwasher and the multifunction processor.

Eigen values for the first factor are consistently high and those for the second factors are consistently low throughout the three data sets and the two samples. In all cases, the first factor accounts for approximately 55% to 60% of the variance while the second ones account on average for no more than 10% of the variance. This implies that the PPI scale is presumably unifactorial. A principal axis factoring extracting one factor from the 15 items throughout the three data sets and for the men and women samples gives the patterns presented in Table 13-2:

TABLE 13-2
FIRST FACTOR LOADINGS THROUGH THE THREE DATA SETS FOR MEN'S AND
WOMEN'S SAMPLES

Item	(Women n=480)			(Men n=480)		
	Durable 1	2	3	1	2	3
1	.78082	.72814	.73911	.78564	.72886	.74921
2	.74385	.70358	.72458	.74280	.72634	.73112
3	.75233	.83610	.78382	.80035	.82101	.81387
4	.76635	.83920	.76516	.84963	.84905	.84409
5	.77836	.83879	.79638	.84149	.83324	.83533
6	.72074	.83835	.67059	.78617	.79097	.73859
7	.77353	.82878	.78773	.84418	.82553	.78875
8	.48394	.56083	.47730	.75357	.73645	.72099
9	.70200	.67472	.68082	.72366	.69457	.71457
10	.66741	.68445	.68627	.73870	.68885	.70911
11	.75521	.82963	.76778	.82262	.83926	.80994
12	.71263	.82999	.69539	.54853	.65147	.48149
13	.62305	.74301	.65769	.75802	.77588	.76046
14	.72615	.80122	.73996	.77775	.81570	.78711
15	.69607	.75128	.71410	.74613	.76472	.71368

Durables 1 through 3 correspond respectively to the pressure-cooker, the dishwasher and the multifunction processor.

For men's and women's samples and consistently throughout the three data sets, all 15 items correlate highly with the first factor. The correlations range from .50 to .85. The one-factor solution is deemed appropriate. This means that irrespective of whether the scale is administered to men or to women and whether the stimulus utilized is a major or a minor durable, PPI is unidimensional. Reliability analysis of the same data provides the statistics provided in Table 13-3.

TABLE 13-3

CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATIONS AND ALPHA COEFFICIENTS FOR THE 15-ITEM PPI SCALE THROUGHOUT THE THREE DATA SETS.						
(men's sample=480)				(women's sample=480)		
Durable	1	2	3	1	2	3
Item						
1	.7577	.6911	.7199	.7724	.7129	.7375
2	.7241	.6647	.7037	.7296	.7110	.7195
3	.7053	.7964	.7413	.7722	.7944	.7830
4	.7132	.7986	.7273	.8237	.8245	.8143
5	.7370	.8020	.7612	.8219	.8148	.8126
6	.6647	.7978	.6379	.7583	.7648	.7146
7	.7497	.7974	.7627	.8265	.8092	.7708
8	.4805	.5158	.4709	.7372	.7204	.7025
9	.6758	.6394	.6405	.6839	.6543	.6692
10	.6447	.6503	.6493	.6996	.6536	.6596
11	.7153	.7891	.7391	.8055	.8204	.7896
12	.6813	.7903	.6618	.5391	.6384	.4716
13	.5905	.6933	.6273	.7363	.7514	.7329
14	.7152	.7648	.7223	.7629	.8006	.7701
15	.6852	.7161	.6975	.7308	.7494	.6998
Alpha	.9349	.9497	.9360	.9551	.9554	.9491

The corrected item-total correlations for the 15-items scale across the three data sets are consistently high. Cronbach's alphas are also consistently high for the three data sets and the two samples considered. They all hinge around .94 and .96. This implies that the PPI construct is reliable, irrespective of whether it is administered to a man or a woman respondent and of whether administration uses a major or a minor durable as stimulus.

Role Overload

A principal axis factoring run on the 13-items RO scale throughout the men and women data sets gives the information presented in Table 13-4:

TABLE 13-4

EIGEN VALUES AND PERCENT OF VARIANCE ACCOUNTED BY THE FIRST FOUR FACTORS				
(women n=480)			(men n=480)	
Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var
1	6.14844	47.3	6.27938	48.3
2	1.20059	9.2	1.11064	8.5
3	.89668	6.9	.96418	7.4
4	.75024	5.8	.72323	5.6

Eigen values of the first factor are relatively high but are rather low for second factors. The variance accounted for by the first factor is about half for both cases. This means that the factor can be as good as six or seven of the 13 variables used to measure the RO construct. These results imply that RO is relatively unifactorial.

The one-factor solution run on women's and men's responses reveal that all the 13 RO variables are highly correlated with the first factor thus confirming unidimensionality as shown in Table13-5.

TABLE 13-5
ROLE OVERLOAD FIRST FACTOR LOADINGS FOR MEN'S AND WOMEN'S SAMPLES

	(women n=480)	(men n=480)
Item	Factor 1	Factor 1
1	.67063	.65995
2	.70921	.71132
3	.74506	.71921
4	.59140	.64595
5	.65925	.71044
6	.66229	.61846
7	.65054	.58902
8	.72407	.69286
9	.72421	.75320
10	.59271	.65269
11	.53171	.56146
12	.61640	.64788
13	.65661	.68468

Scale reliability for the 13-items RO is assessed separately for men and women. The corrected item-total correlations are provided in Table 13-6:

TABLE 13-6
CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATION OF THE ROLE OVERLOAD SCALE FOR THE
WOMEN'S AND MEN'S SAMPLE

Item number	(women = 457)	(men = 454)
1	.6233	.6114
2	.6534	.6513
3	.6876	.6690
4	.5638	.6173
5	.6206	.6794
6	.6275	.5880
7	.6083	.5606
8	.6889	.6550
9	.6895	.7182
10	.5674	.6237
11	.5057	.5375
12	.5792	.6158
13	.6267	.6547
Alpha	.9043	.9101

On average, corrected item-total correlations range from .50 to .70 and Alpha coefficients are quite high for both data sets. Results indicate that the RO scale is reliable irrespective of whether it is administered to women or to men. As a matter of fact, Reilly (1982) borrowed it from the sociology literature, adapted it to consumer behavior, but administered it to women only in investigating durables purchasing behavior. The results above imply that the RO administration can be extended to male respondents as well.

Because of the eventual presumption that RO is only relevant for working women on the grounds that overload results from combining the home and the work responsibilities, scale reliability is assessed for working and non-working women separately. Results are provided in the following table :

TABLE 13-7
CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATION FOR THE ROLE OVERLOAD SCALE
FOR ALL, NON-WORKING, AND WORKING WOMEN

	All (n=457)	Nonworking (n=259)	Working (n=184)
1	.6233	.6740	.5538
2	.6534	.6943	.5700
3	.6876	.6817	.6943
4	.5638	.5418	.5950
5	.6206	.5999	.6437
6	.6275	.6143	.6287
7	.6083	.5578	.6717
8	.6889	.7158	.6677
9	.6895	.6690	.7247
10	.5674	.5050	.6454
11	.5057	.4545	.5778
12	.5792	.5569	.6070
13	.6267	.6403	.6297
Alpha =	.9043	.9001	.9091

Either taken together or as separate subsamples of working versus non-working, women’s responses reveal high item-total correlations throughout the 13 items of the RO scale. On average, they range from .50 to .70. The coefficients reveal that the RO scale is reliable, irrespective of whether it is administered to working or to non-working women. To a certain extent, this implies that the RO feeling is not a matter of working or not working ; other variables such as number and ages of children, job status, number of hours worked, and so on are probably responsible for such a feeling.

The Role Ideology Scale

An exploratory principal axis factoring run on each set of men’s and women’s samples reveals that RI is not unidimensional as shown in Table 13-8.

TABLE 13-8
INITIAL FACTOR STATISTICS FOR THE ROLE IDEOLOGY CONSTRUCT

Factor Var	(Women n=480)	Pct of Var	(Men n=480)	Pct of
	Eigenvalue		Eigenvalue	
1	1.61679	23.1	1.93663	27.7
2	1.24816	17.8	1.39943	20.0
3	1.02292	14.6	.88552	12.7
4	.92822	13.3	.83223	11.9

For both men and women, the second factor can account for almost as much as the first factor. This means that the RI cannot be considered a unifactorial construct. Loadings of the different items with the first and second factor for both samples are provided in Table 13-9.

TABLE 13-9
FACTOR MATRIX FOR THE RI SCALE ADMINISTERED TO WOMEN AND MEN
 (women n=480) (Men n=480)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	.49293	.30337	.56697	.43979
2	.39430	.03978	.54622	.13701
3	-.53128	.46389	-.54090	.37239
4	-.22997	.21897	-.39122	.36772
5	.17225	.09770	.18870	.24389
6	-.22198	.16691	-.41856	.16027
7	.34097	.44523	.11969	.35226

Note: items negatively correlated with the first factor are negatively worded in questionnaire administration.

It is worth noting that for both samples, factor loadings have more or less the same pattern. Because of the the difficulty of interpretability, a varimax rotation of the two factors for both sets is performed giving the factor loadings provided in Table 13-10.

TABLE 13-10
ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX FOR THE RI SCALE ADMINISTERED TO WOMEN AND MEN

	(women n=480)		(men n=480)	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2
2				
1	-.10362	.59938	-.20270	.68832
2	-.24380	.31782	-.36294	.43058
3	.68344	-.06348	.65654	-.01427
4	.32763	-.01350	.53239	.06948
5	-.03794	.18823	-.01043	.30819
6	.26233	-.05419	.43325	-.11478
7	.05712	.45772	.10893	.35573

Both men and women sets keep having more or less the same factor patterns. The above data mean that RI is not unidimensional. The two dimensions that are apparently amenable to factor labelling are (1) « POMWR: perception of man's and woman's responsibility » and (2) « ATWLP: attitude towards woman's labor participation ». The first is made of items #1, 2, 5, and 7 and the second factor is made of items # 3, 4 and 6. The pattern is much more pronounced for the men than for the women sample (see table above).

Factor analyses dividing the Role Ideology scale into two sub-scales as proposed by the above structures are run on men's and women's sets of data. The relevant statistics are given in Table 13-11, Table 13-12, and Table 13-13 below.

TABLE 13-11
ROLE IDEOLOGY: TWO-FACTOR SOLUTION STATISTICS FOR WOMEN'S AND MEN'S DATA SETS

(Women n=480)			(Men n=480)	
Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	1.46020	36.5	1.60466	40.1
2	1.32685	44.2	1.56928	52.3

TABLE 13-12
FACTOR MATRIX OF MEN'S AND WOMEN'S SAMPLES ON THE FIRST ROLE IDEOLOGY FACTOR

(Women n=480)		(Men n=480)
	Factor 1 (POMWR)	Factor 1 (POMWR)
Item n°1	.73978	.78287
Item n°2	.58428	.69200
Item n°5	.38590	.50638
Item n°7	.65009	.50646

TABLE 13-13
FACTOR MATRIX OF MEN'S AND WOMEN'S SAMPLES ON THE SECOND ROLE IDEOLOGY FACTOR

	Factor 2 (ATWLP)	Factor 2 (ATWLP)
Item n°3	.77755	.80203
Item n°4	.64044	.69657
Item n°6	.55865	.66395

The Role Performance Scale

The reader is reminded that contrary to the previous scales that are administered to both men and women, the RP scale is administered once for each family. An exploratory principal axis factoring is run on the RP six-items scale. Factor indicators are provided in Table 13-14 below :

TABLE 13-14
EIGEN VALUES, PERCENT OF VARIANCE, AND CUMULATIVE PERCENT OF THE ROLE PERFORMANCE SCALE

Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Cum Pct
1	2.29053	38.2	38.2
2	1.03633	17.3	55.4
3	.82866	13.8	69.3
4	.74038	12.3	81.6
5	.63877	10.6	92.2
6	.46533	7.8	100.0

As is the case for the RI scale, RP is not really unidimensional and it is not intended to be so anyhow. Two factors are needed to account for about 50% of the variance. A varimax rotation meant to ease interpretability gives the following factor loadings in Table 13-15.

TABLE 13-15
ROTATED AND UNROTATED FACTOR MATRIX FOR THE ROLE PERFORMANCE SCALE

Item°	Unrotated Factor Matrix		Rotated Factor Matrix	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	.53775	-.41950	.65317	-.19628
2	.47203	.00485	.43823	.17546
3	.75807	.11551	.66478	.38220
4	.50092	.17724	.40273	.34661
5	.12007	.23694	.02612	.26434
6	.58837	.03145	.53704	.24240

The two rotated-factor solution almost reveals two factors, the first correlating with items 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 and can be labeled « home-chores » and the second moderately correlating with item 5 and can be labeled « outdoor responsibilities ». On the whole results on the RP scale are not conclusive and suggest that RP cannot be used as a composite measure. Rather, items that are related to specific activities/products (washing clothes and participation in the purchase of the washer) will be considered in model testing.

The Purchasing Role Configuration Scale (PRC)

The reader is reminded that respondents are asked to mention their major and their minor durables purchased last and assess their relative responsibility throughout the four phases of the purchasing process. An exploratory principal axis factoring is run on the four-item response for the case of one major durable and one minor durable. The statistics are provided in the Table 13-16 below :

TABLE 13-16

EIGENVALUES AND PERCENT OF THE VARIANCE FOR THE FIRST FOUR FACTORS FOR ONE MAJOR AND FOR ONE MINOR DURABLE

Factor	(One Major Durable=washer)		(One Minor Durable=multifunction)	
	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var
1	2.92096	73.0	2.70033	67.5
2	.64571	16.1	.78269	19.6
3	.29901	7.5	.41102	10.3
4	.13432	3.4	.10595	2.6

In coherence with previous research, the results confirm the unidimensionality of the PRC scale, irrespective of the stimulus utilized to measure it. In both cases, the first factor accounts for most of the variance (over 70%). This implies that the « process » factor can be as reliable as almost three of the four variables used to measure the construct. A one-factor solution run on the family's

responses reveal that all the 4 variables of the purchasing scale are highly correlated with the first factor either the analysis is done for data collected on a major and a minor durable or for data collected on one minor durable and on all minor durables taken together (see Table 13-17B Through 13-17D):

TABLE 13-17A
FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE FOUR PRC ITEMS WITH THE FIRST FACTOR IN THE CASE OF A MAJOR (1) AND A MINOR (2) DURABLE

	(1)	(2)
Item 1	.72771	.60368
Item 2	.91139	.89367
Item 3	.94559	.94941
Item 4	.81648	.79741

TABLE 13-17B
FACTOR STATISTICS OF THE FOUR PRC ITEMS SCALE : THE CASE OF ALL MINOR (1) AND ONE MINOR (2) DURABLE

	(1)		(2)	
Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var
1	2.51676	62.9	2.53980	63.5
2	.74617	18.7	.75494	18.9
3	.40176	10.0	.42700	10.7
4	.33531	8.4	.27825	7.0

TABLE 13-17C
FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE FOUR PRC ITEMS WITH THE FIRST FACTOR IN THE CASE OF ALL MINOR (1) AND ONE MINOR (2) DURABLE

Item	(1)	(2)
1	.61992	.64652
2	.85728	.86596
3	.86719	.87327
4	.80340	.78060

TABLE 13-17D
CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATIONS FOR THE PRC SCALE ON ONE MINOR DURABLE

Item1	.4273
Item2	.7010
Item3	.7198
Item4	.6192
Alpha =	.8003
N of Cases =	476.0

Corrected item-total correlations range from .50 to .70. These results confirm the assumption that the PRC scale is unidimensional (Davis 1970; Hempel 1974).

The TSES Product Ownership Scale

The ownership scale is made of a multitude of dichotomous variables. Respondents are asked to mention whether they own (=1) or do not own (=0) the product in question. A reliability analysis test is run on the 28 variables that are intuitively defined as TSES products and that are drawn from an original list of 36 variables (see Appendix 13-1). Results of this analysis are provided in Table 13-18.

TABLE 13-18
ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

original 28-items scale		reduced 22-items scale	
Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
VAR00001	-.1718	.7950	
VAR00002	.1419	.7786	
VAR00003	.3085	.7714	.3174
VAR00004	-.0738	.7867	.8332
VAR00005	.0898	.7787	
VAR00006	.3842	.7660	.3963
VAR00007	.3098	.7720	.3159
VAR00008	-.0381	.7904	.8299
VAR00009	.2495	.7737	.8331
VAR00010	.2973	.7727	.8341
VAR00011	.4531	.7625	.8271
VAR00012	.2512	.7729	.8352
VAR00013	.3373	.7685	.8328
VAR00014	.4784	.7598	.8264
VAR00015	.3697	.7665	.8308
VAR00016	.5248	.7572	.8240
VAR00017	.5167	.7574	.8240
VAR00018	.5210	.7571	.8237
VAR00019	.4387	.7623	.8280
VAR00020	.4000	.7646	.8310
VAR00021	.5185	.7572	.8234
VAR00022	.3914	.7676	.8306
VAR00023	.4187	.7673	.8299
VAR00024	.4204	.7671	.8298
VAR00025	.3511	.7677	.8325
VAR00034	.3665	.7667	.8305
VAR00035	.3170	.7709	.8328
VAR00036	-.1776	.7944	
Reliability Coefficients			
N of Cases =	480		480
N of Items =	28	22	
Alpha =	.7773		.8364

Note. Products corresponding to the variable numbers above are provided in Appendix 13-1.

The corrected item-total correlation column proves that most items are rather moderately correlated with the scale as a whole. Items 1, 2, 4, 5, 8, and 36 have negative or very low correlations with the scale as a whole. This means that there is not much of a relationship between these items and the other items as a whole. Dropping these items and reducing the original scale to 22 items improve the Alpha coefficient: it moves from .78 to .84. The objective here is not to ascertain that the scale is unidimensional, but to verify whether there is any coherence within the items.

CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Introduction

Principal axis factoring shows that all first factors of the PPI, the RO and the PRC scales have high eigen values and all second factors have rather low eigen values. These results indicate that the PPI, the RO and the PRC concepts are unidimensional and are internally consistent. However, the RI and RP scales are bidimensional. The first will be used as two separate scales for model testing and the second will not be used as a composite score. Rather, it will serve some pieces for eventual analyses and model testing.

Unidimensionality can be defined as the existence of one construct underlying a set of items. Unidimensionality has been recognized as « one of the most critical and basic assumptions of measurement theory ». However, « traditional » approaches are not good enough for assessing unidimensionality, despite large indices of reliability (Steenkamp and Trijp 1991). The previous section of assessing scales reliabilities is exploratory and needs to be confirmed. Hence, each construct will be analyzed independently of the other related constructs and necessary adjustments will be made in order to subsequently reduce the number of items to a manageable size. As the model is composed of input process and output variables, the process components represent the black box , or to use the language of covariance structure models, the latent variables. These will be looked at before inclusion in the comprehensive model .¹

In this project, not only the PPI construct which is proposed as a new component in the model will be submitted to latent structure modelling, but also the other constructs that are proposed in the model and that have already been introduced either in the sociology or in the consumer behavior literature (Reilly 1982).

The measurement models considered involve one latent variable each. ² For example, the path diagram for the Perceived Product Instrumentality construct is presented as follows :

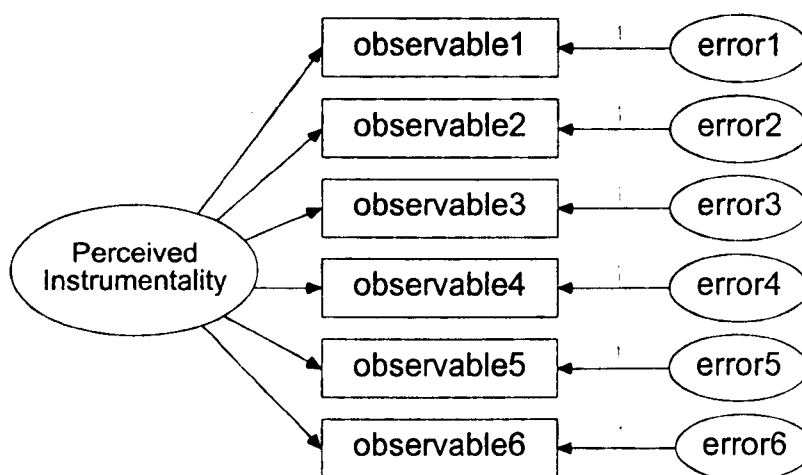


Figure 13.1 : Measurement Model for the PPI Latent Construct

The process of scale purification is guided by three main indicators : the chi square statistic, the goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), and the root mean square residual (RMR). The GFI is an indicator of the « relative amount of variances and covariances jointly accounted for by the model ». It shows the degree to which the proposed model comes to reproduce the observed covariance matrix. The AGFI is simply the GFI adjusted for the degrees of freedom in the model. Both these indices take values between 0 and 1 and the closer to unity, the better the model fit. In contrast to both the GFI and AGFI, the root mean squared residual RMR is a measure of residual variance, reflecting the average amount of variances and covariances not accounted for by the model. The closer to zero RMR is, the better the fit. « An obsessive desire to obtain a good fit at all costs must be firmly resisted because a good fit proves nothing » (Diamantopoulos 1995, p. 127).

In the following sections, model modification and scale-reduction will proceed, not in the hope of improving fit indices which remains a desirable

outcome anyway, but rather for ascertaining theoretical validity of the scale components. Hence, as soon as a slightly significant p is attained, the process of scale « trimming » is stopped, lest the proposed theory gets hampered. Most of the time the analysis is done on the observations irrespective of gender, i.e, taking men and women as a single group because the process components of the model are hypothesized to be valid for both populations. However, in the process of construct validation, at times, the analysis is done separately for several purposes:

- a- on the one hand, previous literature proposed that some constructs be included in the comprehensive model and be measured only for women. This is the case for the role overload construct adapted by Reilly (1982) to consumer behavior investigations. So far, research seems to be influenced by the « stereotypical » assumption that durables administration is the affair of women. If this turns out to be true, some of the proposed constructs may indeed prove irrelevant for some groups (men) but relevant for others (women).
- b- On the other hand, one of my objectives is to assess convergent validity. The case before hand represents a « key informant research » where multiple informants (here men and women serving as methods) rate multiple items. «It makes only sense to assess the extent to which the key informants agree when it has first been established that the set of items the informant has rated converge towards a common construct » (Steenkamp and Trijp 1991, p 287).

Scale reduction is performed on a random half of the cases (derivation sample). The other half is saved for model testing (validation sample).

Role Overload

The process of scale purification gives the results shown in the Table 13-20 below. The original 13-item scale gives an unsatisfactory solution and shows a bad fit of the model ($\chi^2 = 457.8$, $p < 0.001$, GFI= 0.860, AGFI=0.804, and RMR = 0.116). Smaller try-out scales tend to show better fits. The scale that is considered satisfactory for model testing in is model 23W. The items involved are 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 ($\chi^2 = 13.1$ ($p < 0.154$), GFI= 0.981, AGFI=0.956, and RMR = 0.053). Item 6 is a candidate for eventual exclusion. At this stage, the scale reaches significance irrespective of gender (Model 24 in Table 13-20).

TABLE 13-20

THE ROLE OVERLOAD SCALE REDUCTION PROCESS

Model N°	items involved													Fit Indices				
														CMIN	P Value	GFI	AGFI	RMR
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13					
1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	457.8	.000	.860	.804	.116
2	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	414.9	.000	.866	.806	.115
3	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	317.7	.000	.887	.831	.041
4	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	217.0	.000	.910	.859	.088
5	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	195.4	.000	.900	.847	.090
6	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	195.6	.000	.909	.848	.091
7	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x				185.3	.000	.915	.858	.089
8	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		273.9	.000	.895	.842	.102
9	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x		225.1	.000	.905	.851	.094
10	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x				x	160.0	.000	.915	.848	.093
11	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		x		204.1	.000	.902	.837	.100
12	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		x		195.0	.000	.908	.847	.092
13	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x			162.0	.000	.914	.846	.093
14	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		x		204.0	.000	.902	.837	.100
15	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x					185.0	.000	.915	.858	.089
16	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x				x	195.0	.000	.909	.848	.091
17		x	x		x	x	x	x	x				x	131.0	.000	.934	.881	.083
18		x	x			x	x	x	x				x	117.0	.000	.931	.862	.089
19		x	x		x	x	x	x	x				x	101.0	.000	.941	.882	.079
20		x	x			x	x	x	x					87.0	.000	.940	.860	.085
21		x	x		x		x	x	x					58.8	.000	.958	.902	.073
22		x	x				x	x	x					51.9	.000	.955	.860	.080
23		x			x	x	x	x	x					30.5	.000	.981	.955	.051
23M		x			x	x	x	x	x					31.8	.000	.960	.906	.076
23W		x			x	x	x	x	x					13.1	.154	.981	.956	.053
24		x			x		x	x	x					11.7	.039	.991	.972	.040
25		x					x	x	x					4.3	.120	.996	.978	.027

Note. Highlighted models show that fit begins to tend towards significance.

Role Ideology :

The original 7-item scale is submitted to model testing as a one dimensional construct, despite the conclusions about its bidimensionality in the exploratory factor analysis. This gives slightly unsatisfactory results confirming the two-dimension solution of the exploratory phase (see Table 13-21: $\chi^2 = 86.63$ ($p=0.000$), GFI= 0.946, AGFI=0.892, and RMR = 0.117). Items 1, 2, 5, and 7, loaded positively with the latent variable while items 3, 4, and 6 loaded negatively with it thus confirming bidimensionality. When it is run as a two dimensional scale, the goodness of fit indices increase but the scale attains no significance ($p<.000$). It is only when each of the two dimensions (models 6 and 7) are proposed to represent the latent role ideology construct that goodness of fit

indices become very significant. The first dimension labelled ATWLP, i.e. attitude towards women labor participation (see previous section) has got a p value of 0.891 and an RMR of 0.11 while the second dimension labeled POMWR (perception of men and women's roles) has got a p value of 0.728 and an RMR of 0.17. ATWLP will be selected for entry in the global model in the first step because of its theoretical relevance and of its higher GFI and lower RMR (see Model n°6 in Table 13-21 below).

TABLE 13-21
SCALE PURIFICATION PROCESS FOR ROLE IDEOLOGY

Model N°	Items Involved							Fit Indices					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	CMIN	P Value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	
1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	86.63	.000	.946	.892	.117	a
2	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	37.01	.000	.978	.950	.112	b
3	x	x	x	x	x	x		20.40	.009	.986	.962	.071	
4	x	x		x		x		8.06	.089	.993	.975	.052	c
5	x	x	x	x				.087	.762	1.00	.999	.005	
6	x	x			x		x	.23	.891	1.00	.999	.011	d
7			x	x		x		.12	.728	1.00	.999	.017	

a One dimensional scale

b Two dimensional scale

c Two dimensional scale with 2 items
for each dimension

d One dimensional subscale with 4 items

Perceived Product Instrumentality

The original 15-item scale gives an unsatisfactory solution and shows a bad fit of the pressure-cooker instrumentality model ($\chi^2 = 1441$; $p < 0.001$; GFI= 0.68, AGFI=0.575, and RMR = 0.189). A trial and error process of scale reduction results in smaller try-out scales and better fits to the model as the number of items becomes smaller. It is only when the scale comprises 6 to 7 items that fit indices become satisfactory. The scale that is considered for inclusion in the comprehensive model is model 13M and model 13W involving items 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 13 (see Table 13-22A below). Items involved give the following statistics: $\chi^2 = 34.39$, $p=0.043$, GFI= 0.974, AGFI=0.940, and RMR = 0.052. The same results are more or less confirmed when the model is run on the dishwasher and the processor data (Table 13-22B and Table 13-22C).

The original 15 item scale shows a very bad fit to the data for both cases. Significance is attained only when the scale is composed of items 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 13, that is the same results as the pressure cooker set of data. In the case of the dishwasher, model 3M involving the items above mentioned gives the following statistics ($\chi^2 = 18.86$, $p=0.026$ GFI= 0.975, AGFI=0.941, and RMR = 0.046).³

TABLE 13-22A
SCALE REDUCTION PROCESS FOR PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY
SCALE:PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY:
PRESSURE COOKER

Model N°	Items Involved															Fit Indices				
																CMIN	P. Value	GFI	AGFI	RMR
	1															15				
1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	1441	.000	.681	.575	.189
2	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	737	.000	.788	.701	.139
3		x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x	x	x	x	691	.000	.784	.680	.140
4	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x		x	x	x	405	.000	.750	.640	.150
5	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x		331	.000	.793	.690	.142
6	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				x		x	x	x	311	.000	.793	.674	.145
7	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x	x	x		263	.000	.800	.700	.139
8	x		x	x	x	x	x				x	x	x	x		146	.000	.888	.819	.094
9			x	x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	109	.000	.905	.841	.085
10			x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x	70.9	.000	.920	.863	.073
11W			x	x	x	x					x	x	x			32.74	.003	.962	.925	.045
12				x	x	x	x				x	x	x			50.00	.000	.939	.879	.067
12M				x	x	x	x				x	x	x			36.74	.001	.958	.916	.064
12W				x	x	x	x				x	x	x			50.51	.000	.936	.891	.069
13All				x	x	x					x	x	x			34.39	.000	.976	.943	.045
13M				x	x	x					x	x	x			17.42	.043	.974	.940	.052
13W				x	x	x					x	x	x			23.18	.006	.970	.930	.043
14			x	x	x	x					x	x				22.97	.006	.969	.928	.040
15				x	x	x					x	x				10.31	.067	.980	.948	.031

Note. Highlighted models show that fit begins to tend towards significance.

TABLE 13-22B
SCALE REDUCTION PROCESS FOR PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY

SCALE: PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY (DISHWASHER)															
Model	Items				Fit Indices										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
2			x	x	x	x					x	x	x		
2M			x	x	x	x					x	x	x		
2W			x	x	x	x					x	x	x		
3				x	x	x					x	x	x		
3M				x	x	x					x	x	x		
3W				x	x	x					x	x	x		
4				x	x	x	x				x	x	x		
4M				x	x	x	x				x	x	x		
4W				x	x	x	x				x	x	x		

A = All ; M= Men only ; W= Women only

TABLE 13-22C
SCALE REDUCTION PROCESS FOR PERCEIVED PRODUCT INSTRUMENTALITY (MULTIFUNCTION PROCESSOR)

Model	Items														
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
2				x	x	x	x				x	x	x		
2M			x	x	x	x					x	x	x		
2W			x	x	x	x					x	x	x		
3				x	x	x					x	x	x		
3M				x	x	x					x	x	x		
3W				x	x	x					x	x	x		

NOTES

1. Covariance structure analysis is a « second generation » multivariate technique combining methodological contributions from two disciplines : the confirmatory factor analysis model from psychometric theory and the structural equations model typically associated with econometrics. Its aim is to explain the structure or pattern among a set of latent (i.e. unobserved or theoretical) variables, each measured by one or more manifest variables (i.e. observed or empirical) and typically fallible indicators. Thus there are two parts to a covariance structure model : the measurement part describes how each of the latent variables is operationalized via the manifest variables and provides information about the validities and reliabilities of the latter. The structural part specifies the relationships between the latent variables themselves (reflecting substantive hypothesis based on theoretical considerations) and the amount of unexplained variance. The extent to which the postulated structure (as described by the linkages among the latent variables and among the latter and their indicators) is actually consistent with the empirical data at hand. This is done by computing the covariance matrix implied by the specified model and comparing it to the (actual) covariance matrix based on the empirical data (Diamantopoulos 1995, p. 105-6). In assessing model fit, attention needs to be paid to the measurement and the structural parts of the model. Proper specification of the measurement model is necessary before meaning can be attached to the analysis of the structural model. That is, good measurement of the latent variables is prerequisite to the analysis of the causal relations among the latent variables (Diamantopoulos 1995, p. 120). This stepwise approach will be adopted here.
2. In matrix form, the confirmatory factor analysis model is written:

$$\mathbf{x} = \Lambda \boldsymbol{\xi} + \boldsymbol{\delta}$$
, where
 \mathbf{x} is the $q \times 1$ vector of the n sets of observed variables (items),
 $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ is the $n \times 1$ vector of the underlying factors (latent variables),
 Λ is the $q \times n$ matrix of regression coefficients (factor loadings) relating the items to the underlying factor(s),
 $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ is the $q \times 1$ vector of error terms of the items.
3. Regarding the scale reduction process, three important remarks are worth mentioning : (a) as the scale gets smaller, the number of items diminishes, fit indices get better, i.e., GFI and AGFI get closer to one while RMR gets closer to Zero ; (b) the p value reaches significance only when the number of items in the scale dramatically drops to 5-7 items ; (c) different combinations of the items may reflect different fit indices. The modification of say one item out of six may translate into a better fit, thus reflecting a greater consistency of the item with the pool. For instance, concerning the Role Ideology scale, model 26 represents a better fit than model 24 by excluding item 3 instead of item 5 (See Table 13-21).

APPENDIX 13-1

LIST OF DURABLES UTILIZED IN OWNERSHIP ASSESSMENT
 Group \$BUYERS Proportion Buying TSES Products (Value tabulated = 1)

Dichotomy label	Name	Count	Pct of Cases
fridge	VAR00001	134	27.9
frige/freez	VAR00002	363	75.6
freezer	VAR00003	37	7.7
simple cooker	VAR00004	76	15
cooker/oven	VAR00005	435	90.6
elctric/oven	VAR00006	129	26.9
microwave/oven	VAR00007	27	5.6
simple/washer	VAR00008	249	51.9
automaticwasher	VAR00009	213	44.4
dishwasher	VAR00010	22	4.6
vaccum	VAR00011	116	24.2
pressure/cooker	VAR00012	418	45.0
multi/processor	VAR00016	175	36.5
thresher	VAR00017	271	56.5
squeezer	VAR00018	223	46.5
centrifugal	VAR00019	197	41.0
coffee/mill	VAR00020	251	52.3
mixer	VAR00021	216	45.0
toaster	VAR00022	55	11.5
tinopener	VAR00023	44	9.2
cutter	VAR00024	45	9.4
phone	VAR00025	321	66.9
taperecorder	VAR00026	426	88.8
VCR	VAR00027	223	46.5
CD/ROM	VAR00028	62	12.9
color/TV	VAR00029	476	99.2
camera	VAR00030	262	54.6
parabola	VAR00031	127	26.5
airconditioner	VAR00032	49	10.2
library	VAR00033	196	40.8
first/car	VAR00034	284	59.2
second/car	VAR00035	43	9.0
motorbike	VAR00036	120	25.0

Chapter 14

Model Testing: Focus on The Process

Model Testing: Focus on the Process

Before the inclusion of the role orientations variables as predictors of purchasing behaviour in the comprehensive model, it is necessary to assess their adequacy as a system's framework. The process sub-model is arrived at by inclusion of the latent constructs that are « purified » via latent structure modelling. After a trial-and-error process involving the pressure cooker, the dishwasher and the multifunction processor data sets, the model components are : role ideology (4 observables), role overload (5 observables), role performance (5 observables) and perceived product instrumentality (6 observables). Specifically, Role Ideology (RI), Role Overload (RO) and Role Performance (RP) are hypothesised to influence Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI).¹ The path diagram for the hypothesised model is presented in figure 14-1.

The components are rearranged in such a way that PPI represents the dependent latent variable (six observables) and RI (4 observables), RO (5 observables), and RP (5 observables) represent the independent latent variables (see Appendix 14-D). The one-headed arrows from RI, RP, and RO to PPI are structural paths while the double-headed arrows between RI and RP, RI and RO, RO and RP are covariances. This formulation abides by LISREL modelling rules (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1989) and coincides perfectly with the centrality of PPI in the model.²

Using AMOS (Arbuckle 1997), the test of the model proceeds as follows: confirmatory factor analysis is used to examine the adequacy of the process model measurement and simultaneous equations regression is used to evaluate the hypothesized causal relationships among the latent constructs. The Maximum Likelihood (ML)³ method is used to fit the model to the data (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1982). The framework for testing the Perceived Product Instrumentality sub-model is presented (see figure 14-1) as follow.

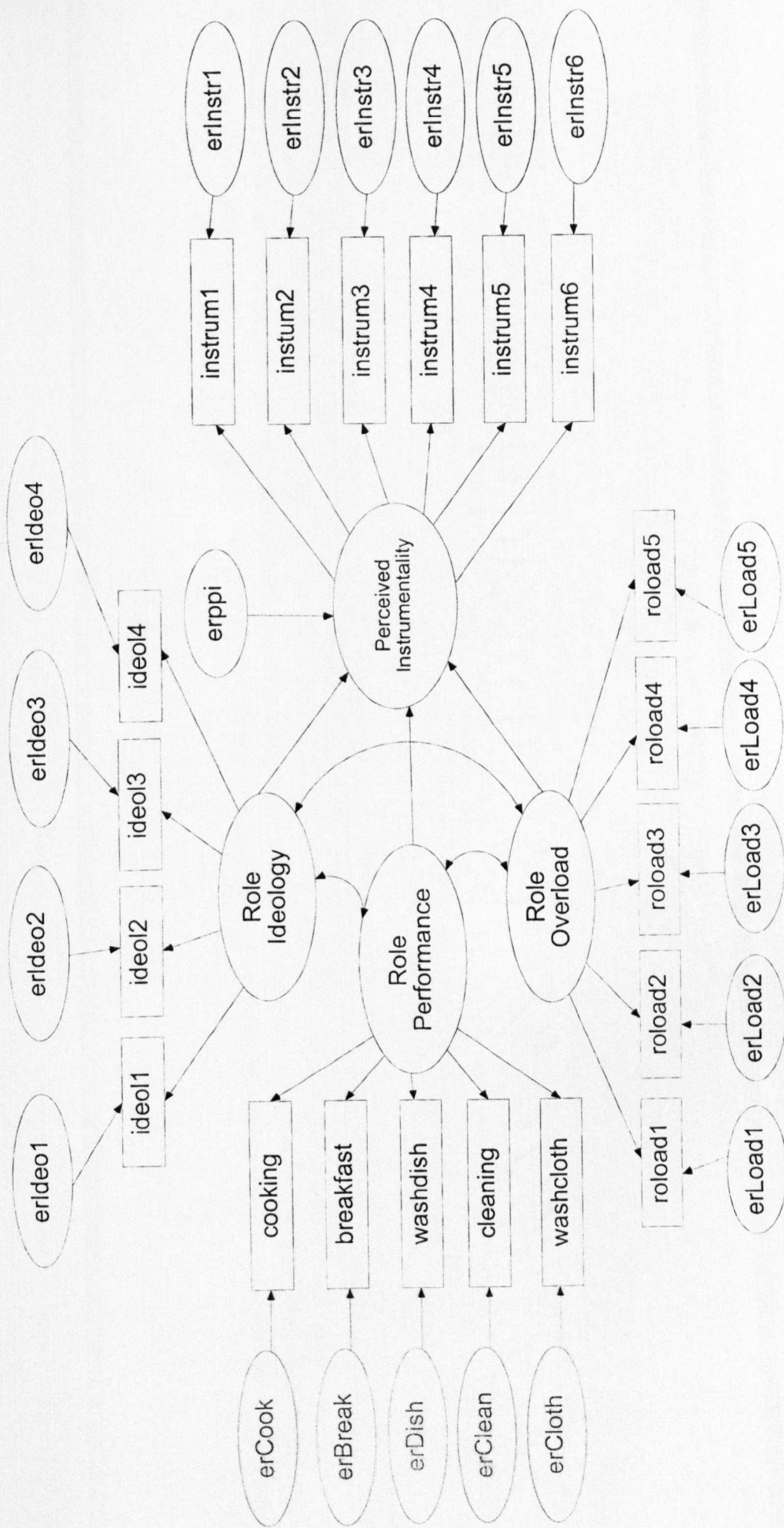


Figure 14-1

The Perceived Product Instrumentality Submodel

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

An overall confirmatory factor analysis is conducted on all items and constructs to examine the adequacy of the measures. The analysis is done twice, i.e. one for the data involving the complete model and one for the data involving the reduced model. The complete model involves all the five role performance observables that proved to be unifactorial (see chapter 13), while the reduced one involves only one variable for the case of the pressure cooker (cooking), one variable for the dishwasher (washing the dishes), and two variables for the multifunction processor (cooking and preparing breakfast).³

The sample described previously (see chapter 10) is divided into two random halves. The analysis is done three times, one for the derivation, another for the validation, and another for the whole sample. The first serves for deriving the individual constructs of the process sub-model and the second serves for validation check (Vantakesh 1980 ; Diamantopoulos 1994). The total sample run is meant to see if the balance is tipped in the derivation or in the validation sample results direction. It is also used for reliability and validity assessment.

Table 14-1 gives the unstandardized loadings and their corresponding coefficient ratios for the reduced model as applied to the validation sample. Appendices 14-1A and 14-1B give the same statistics for the reduced model, as applied to the derivation and the total sample. Appendices 14-2A, 14-2B, and 14-2C show the same statistics for the complete model. The interpretation of the results is based on Table 14-1 given below. This is deemed interesting for the following reasons. On the one hand, instead of considering all 5 items in RP measurement, it only considers the tasks that are intuitively relevant for the product of interest (e.g. cooking for the pressure cooker model). On the other hand, it involves « fresh data », i.e. data that did not serve the purpose of scale generation and reduction.

TABLE 14-1 : Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Construct Measures : The Reduced Model (Validation Sample)

Measurement Items *	P. Cooker (n=474)		Washer (n=469)		Processor (n=474)	
	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio
Role Ideology						
1- A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.	1.000		1.000		1.888	4.125
2- A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife.	0.832	4.161	0.846	4.251	1.590	4.707
3- If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job.	0.523	3.435	0.527	3.480	0.984	3.568
4- Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and the children	0.519	4.147	0.511	4.206	1.000	
Role Overload						
1 - There are too many demands on my time.	1.000		1.000		1.000	
2 - I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.	1.201	10.538	1.193	10.474	1.200	10.550
3 - Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day.	1.001	10.436	1.002	10.408	0.998	10.439
4 - Many times I have to cancel commitments.	1.358	11.467	1.346	11.396	1.357	11.481
5 - I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.	1.399	11.489	1.394	11.419	1.396	11.494
Role Performance **	1.000		NA		1.000	
1- Cooking meals	NA		1.000		NA	
2- Washing the dishes	NA		NA		0.729	9.346
3- Preparing breakfast						
Perceived Product Instrumentality						
1- It helps me devote more time for my family	1.000		1.000		1.136	17.120
2- It helps me get organized	0.996	22.488	0.922	23.257	1.196	18.583
3 - It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously	0.976	26.658	0.973	25.362	1.080	16.768
4- It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations	0.945	23.838	0.977	25.914	0.672	11.447
5- It has practical usefulness	0.563	13.034	0.750	17.701	1.200	10.550
6- It allows me to spare time for other activities	0.839	18.719	0.900	22.092	1.000	
Fit Indices	CMIN/DF=2.457; RMR=0.093; GFI=0.940; AGFI=0.917		CMIN/DF=2.768; RMR=0.103 GFI=0.933 ; AGFI=0.907		CMIN/DF=2.049; RMR=0.091; GFI=0.947 ; AGFI=0.928	

* Subjects responded to all measurement items using a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly agree, 2=somewhat agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=somewhat disagree, 5=strongly disagree).

** Subjects originally, mostly women, responded to the question « who holds responsibility for the following household activities (responsibility for a task includes either actually completing the task oneself or supervising its completion) » using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=husband entirely, 2=husband and wife equally, 3=husband more than wife, 4=wife more than husband, 5=wife entirely). Then a measure for role performance reflecting the degree to which husbands and wives were involved in home-chore activities was derived.

All items load significantly on their hypothesized factors ($p < .01$), and the model fits the data quite well (see also fit indices for the other models in the chapter Appendices). CMIN/DF statistics range from 1.5 to 2.5.⁴ The Chi-square statistic fails to achieve significance ($p < .000$ in all cases). This is not necessarily an indicator of poor fit. Models with good fit are known to be falsely rejected by Chi-square tests. This is due to bias stemming from departures from normality and/or sample size.⁵ The CFI value which is found to be resistant to bias (Rich 1997) is safely above the recommended level of .90. Hence the whole measurement model appears to be a reasonable representation of the data.

Reliability Analysis

Scales Reliability is assessed on the basis of Cronbach's Alphas and multiple squared correlations.

Cronbach's Alphas. Table 14-2 reproduces Cronbach's Alphas for the different scales utilised in process model testing in their original and reduced format..

Table14-2: Cronbach's Alphas For Latent Construct Measures

Scale	Original Scale		Reduced Scale	
	Men=480	Women=480	Men=473	Women=473
PPI 1 (Cooker)	0.935 (15) ¹	0.955 (15)	0.918 (6)	0.889 (6)
PPI 2 (Washer)	0.949 (15)	0.955 (15)	0.913 (6)	0.921 (6)
PPI 3 (Processor)	0.936 (15)	0.949 (15)	0.891 (6)	0.889 (6)
Role Ideology	0.469 (04) ²	0.365 (04)	0.469 (4)	0.365 (4)
Role Overload	0.910 (13)	0.904 (13)	0.814 (5)	0.814 (5)
Role Performance	0.718 (05)	0.718 (05)	0.439 (2)	0.439 (2)

Note1. Figures in parentheses represent the number of items composing the scale.

Note2. Because of the bidimensionality of the original 7-item RI scale, only one dimension with 4 items is considered in RI reliability assessment.

The above figures warrant the following comments :

- a) The process of items reduction is translated by a decrease in reliability scores. The PPI Alpha drops from 0.95 to 0.90 on average while the RO Alpha drops from 0.90 to 0.82. This, in a way, represents a trade-off between validity and reliability.
- b) The RI scale has got the lowest reliability score in comparison with the other latent constructs. This lack of reliability is reflected in the squared multiple correlations of the RI observable measures with their latent construct (see Appendix 14-B).

Multiple Squared Correlations. Multiple squared correlations, reproduced in Appendix 14-B, translate the degree to which the independent variables account for the variation in their latent constructs. Squared multiple correlations are considered as lower-bound reliability estimates because the error variables in the model represent more than just measurement error (Arbuckle 1997). These figures warrant the following comments:

- 1) When sex is not used as a moderator variable, i.e. in the single-group model, the squared multiple correlations for the PPI construct are much higher than in the two-group model (see bottom line of Appendix 14-B). RO, RI and RP account for a much higher percentage of the PPI variance in the former than in the latter case (15.5% versus 3.6% and 3.1% for the pressure cooker model; 12.9% versus 5.0% and 4.7% for the multifunction processor model; 8% versus 4.5% and 2.7% for the dishwasher model).
- 2) The RI, RO, and RP latent variables do not account for variation in the PPI factor in the same way across the three durables considered. The variance in the pressure-cooker and the processor PPI is about twice that for the dishwasher. This may be due to the fact that there are more important variables like income and education determining PPI which are not included in the process model.
- 3) The observables corresponding to the RI, RO, and PPI latent hypothesised constructs do not have the same reliability levels. While the PPI observables and, to a smaller extent, the RO observables have relatively satisfactory multiple squared correlations with their corresponding factors, the RI ones are rather low, thus confirming lack of reliability. While item1 of the RI scale accounts on average for 50% of the variance in the RI factor, the three other items account for only 10% to 15% of the variance in the RI factor.

On the whole, confirmatory factor analysis demonstrates that the proposed measurement relationships are consistent with the data. The hypothesised structural model, which is run simultaneously with the measurement model, results in acceptable goodness of fit indices. These indicate good fit of the model but not necessarily support for all hypothesized structural relationships as reported hereafter.

Structural Path Coefficients

As in the case of confirmatory factor analysis, simultaneous structural equations results are provided for the reduced model in Table 14-2. Appendix 14-2A gives results of the complete model and 14-2B gives comparative results when the multifunction processor model is run either with one or with two role performance variables.

Hypotheses Formulation. The following hypotheses are tested.

Hypothesis I. The more the actor's role ideology gears towards egalitarianism, the more s/he perceives the TSES product as instrumental ;

Hypothesis II. The more the actor's role overload, the more s/he perceives the TSES product as instrumental ;

Hypothesis III. The more the actor is involved into performing roles that are linked to particular TSES products, the more s/he perceives that TSES product as instrumental .

Details about these hypotheses are dealt with in previous sections (see chapter 9 on model specification). A summary of the rationale for their formulation is in order.

Hypothesis I. Beliefs in emerging egalitarian roles and ideals predispose the actor to have a favorable attitude towards egalitarian role sharing and, eventually, an unfavorable attitude towards some housekeeping tasks. As long as TSES products are thought to help the incumbent save time and effort to invest in more enjoyable roles and activities, they will be perceived by him/her as instrumental.

Hypothesis II. Feeling of overload may reinforce the actor's interest in stress-relieving and strain-reducing products. As long as TSES durables are thought to alleviate such stresses and strains, they will be perceived by the actor as instrumental.

Hypothesis III. Involvement in performing tasks increases the actor's interest and sensitivity to products that are used in enacting such tasks (e.g. cooking and the pressure-cooker). Because TSES products help facilitate role performance, they will be perceived by role incumbents as instrumental.

Hypothesis Testing. Hypothesis testing is conducted on the reduced model (see Table 14-2 below). There are inconsistencies in the structural equations results between the derivation and the validation samples. For instance, the RO-PPI relationship is significant in the case of the derivation sample, but not in the case of the validation one. Hence, the interpretation of the results is done on the basis of the total sample data.

**Table 14-2 : Structural Equations Results for the Derivation, the Validation, and the Total Sample: The Reduced Model
(Role Performance with 2 or 1 observables)¹**

	Men and Women (Derivation Sample)			Men and Women (Validation Sample)			Men and Women (Total Sample)		
Relation- ship	P.Cooker (n=478)	Washer (n=477)	Processor (n=477)	Pressure (n=474)	Washer (n=469)	Processor (n=469)	Pressure (n=954)	Washer (946)	Processor (n=954)
RP-->PPI									
Estimate	-0.221	-0.164	-0.230	-0.268	-0.213	-0.214	-0.241	-1.188	-0.221
Std Error	0.032	0.037	0.033	0.033	.0037	0.032	0.072	0.026	0.023
Coef Ratio	-6.875 ^a	-4.610 ^a	-6.935 ^a	-8.187 ^a	-5.800 ^a	-6.670 ^a	-10.547 ^a	-7.252 ^a	-9.656 ^a
RO-->PPI									
Estimate	0.318	0.209	0.215	0.124	0.121	0.050	0.234	0.170	0.138
Std Error	0.081	0.089	0.082	0.084	0.092	0.081	0.057	0.063	0.070
Coef Ratio	3.942 ^a	2.348 ^b	2.622 ^a	1.485	1.316	0.614	4.081 ^a	2.679 ^a	2.438 ^b
RI-->PPI									
Estimate	-0.028	-0.108	-0.004	-1.149	-0.178	0.013	-0.073	-0.131	0.016
Std Error	0.108	0.122	0.112	0.109	0.121	0.101	0.072	0.182	0.070
Coef Ratio	-0.258	-0.888	-0.037	-1.365	-1.477	0.129	-1.010	-1.597	0.228
MSC-PPI	0.159	0.075	0.135	0.164	0.096	0.106	0.155	0.088	0.119
RMR	0.078	0.089	0.075	0.093	0.103	0.091	0.071	0.079	0.071
GFI	0.954	0.953	0.957	0.940	0.933	0.948	0.961	0.955	0.965
AGFI	0.937	0.936	0.940	0.917	0.907	0.929	0.947	0.959	0.952
CFI	0.968	0.972	0.970	0.949	0.942	0.955	0.963	0.979	0.964

Note1. The role performance variables (RP) consist in one variable in the case of the dishwasher PPI prediction (washing the dishes), one variable in the pressure-cooker PPI prediction (cooking) and two variables in the case of the multi-function processor PPI prediction (cooking and preparing breakfast).

a = p significant at .01

b= p significant at .05

Hypothesis I. None of the coefficients involving the pressure cooker, the dishwasher, and the multifunction processor instrumentality is significant. The last case is not even in the predicted direction.

Hypothesis II. Holding constant the effect of RP and RI, a unit increase in RO (i.e. lower feeling of overload) increases the PPI score (i.e. decreases perceived instrumentality) by 0.234 in the case of the pressure cooker, by 0.170 in the case of

the dishwasher, and by 0.138 in the case of the multifunction processor. The first two coefficients are significant at $p < .01$. The last coefficient is significant at $p < .05$. This confirms the positive relationship between overload feeling and instrumentality perception.

Hypothesis III. Holding constant the effect of RO and RI, a unit increase in RP (i.e. greater involvement in role performance) decreases the PPI score (i.e. increases perceived instrumentality) by 0.241 in the case of the pressure cooker, by 1.19 in the case of the dishwasher, and by 0.221 in the case of the multifunction processor. All these coefficients are highly significant ($p < .01$). This again confirms the positive relationship between involvement in a specific role and perceived instrumentality of products that are capable of helping the actor enact his/her role more skilfully.

The model testing output integrating confirmatory factor and structural paths analyses are presented in the following page. The model regresses the dishwasher dependent latent PPI against the independent latent RI (4 observables), RO (5 observables), and RP (one observable, dish-washing). Amos text output for this model is provided in Appendix D (see Main Appendices at the end of the thesis). The measurement and the structural models below are run simultaneously for the whole sample (see figure 14-2 below). The reader is reminded that structural paths are written in bold, covariances in italics, and regression weights in standard normal characters.

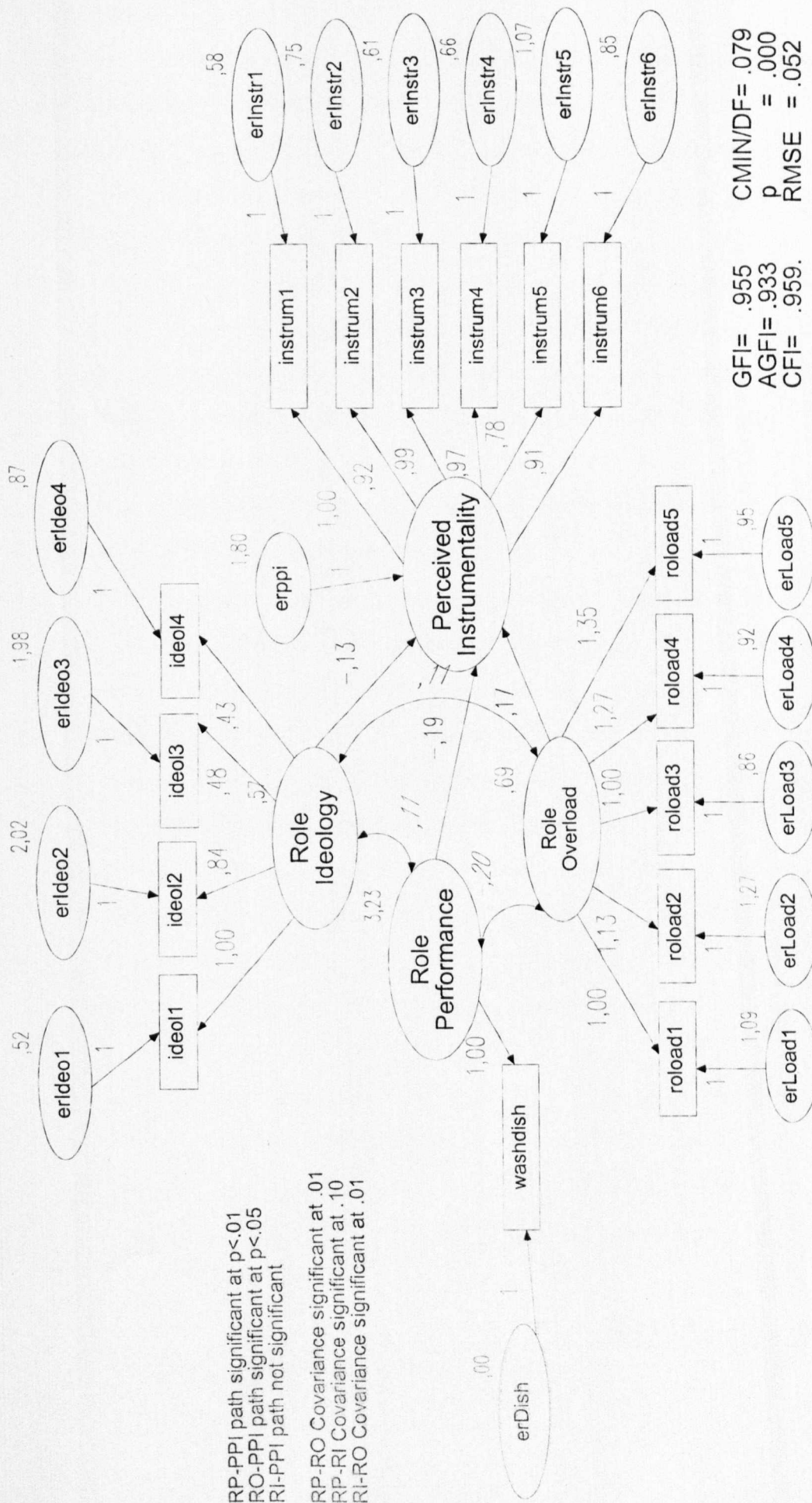


Figure 14-2
 Latent Structure Model Output For The Dishwasher Perceived Instrumentality
 (sample size: 946)

Discussion

The results about the above relationships warrant the following comments.

a- *Role Ideology/Perceived Product Instrumentality*. This relationship is confirmed in none of the specified models. This may be due to the following reasons :

- ◇ The relationship does not hold in reality. Presumably, perceived product instrumentality has nothing to do with role ideology; or,
- ◇ The RI scale is not reliable enough to measure the phenomenon it is intended to measure. An attempt to run the model with the two first RI items which are relatively more reliable was made. The results given in Appendix 14-3 below reveal no significant difference between the 4-item and the two-item RI scale. There is no significant change in fit indices.
- ◇ The relationship is blurred by other moderator variables such as sex. This hypothesis will be verified later in this chapter.

b- *Role Overload/Perceived Product Instrumentality*. The relationship is found to be significant in the derivation sample but insignificant in the validation sample. It is slightly significant in the total sample run however. In other words the relationship is not stable over samples. This may be due to the fact that the relationship is not significant in reality. The role overload construct was originally administered to women only by Reilly (1982).

c- *Role Performance/ Perceived Product Instrumentality* . The hypothesized model run on the derivation and the validation samples reveals a consistent significant relationship between role performance and perceived product instrumentality. The total sample run confirms the relationship. This implies that the relationship is stable over samples.

All measurement models, whether involving the derivation or the validation samples, reveal significant relationships between the latent variables and their observables. The Perceived Product Instrumentality as a latent construct has got the most significant relationship with its observables. The coefficient ratios for PPI are extremely high in all models. They all range from 18 to 25 (see the above mentioned appendices). On this basis it is considered as a valid construct to be incorporated in models investigating role-based consumer experiences.

As for the structural model, the hypothesised relationships are not all significant. The only consistent structural stable relationship is the one involving role performance and perceived product instrumentality. At this point, it is tentative to conclude that what finally matters in instrumentality perception is not what one thinks his roles should be, or what/how one feels about such involvement, but what one really does. That is, what matters in instrumentality perception is actual role behaviour rather than feelings and judgments about them.

The Use of Comparison Groups

Normally, multi-group analyses allow for more efficient estimates in case the hypothesized model is true (Jöreskog and Sorbôm 1985). Hence, the model is run using sex as a grouping variable for men's and women's data, and working status for women's data .

Men Versus Women. The analysis in this case is conducted for structural paths and for covariance relationships. The model run for a two-group analysis gives the results provided in Tables 14-4A and 14-4B).

Table 14-4A
Comparing Men and Women - Reduced Model with Variant Factor Patterns

	Pressure Cooker Men and women compared (Total Sample)		Dishwasher Men and women compared (Total Sample)		Multifunction Processor Men and women compared (Total sample)	
Relation	Men (n=473)	Women (n=473)	Men (n=473)	Women (n=473)	Men (n=473)	Women (n=473)
RP→PPI						
Estimate	-0.136	0.025	-0.086	0.113	-0.989	0.341
Std Error	0.133	0.090	0.115	0.103	0.428	0.226
Coef Ratio	-1.026	0.273	-0.750	1.093	-2.311	1.509
RO→PPI						
Estimate	0.269	0.181	0.131	0.193	0.175	0.028
Std Error	0.093	0.067	0.089	0.089	0.090	0.072
Coef Ratio	2.904	2.723	1.471	2.167	1.953	0.390
RI→PPI						
Estimate	-0.188	0.091	-0.370	0.174	0.022	0.334
Std Error	0.113	0.109	0.132	0.139	0.129	0.140
Coef Ratio	-1.665	0.835	-2.810	1.254	0.167	2.389
MSC-PPI	0.036	0.031	0.045	0.027	0.050	0.047
RMR	0.079		0.080		0.071	
GFI	0.947		0.942		0.950	
AGFI	0.927		0.921		0.933	
CFI	0.953		0.958		0.958	

Table 14-4B
Comparing Men and Women - Reduced Model with Invariant Factor Patterns

	Pressure Cooker		Dishwasher		Multifunction Processor	
	Men and women compared (Total Sample)		Men and women compared (Total Sample)		Men and women compared (Total sample)	
Relation	Men (n=473)	Women (n=473)	Men (n=473)	Women (n=473)	Men (n=473)	Women (n=473)
RP--->PPI						
Estimate	-0.126	0.019	-0.082	0.117	-0.917	0.330
Std Error	0.129	0.095	0.112	0.107	0.412	0.235
Coef Ratio	-0.975	0.198	-0.732	1.091	-2.227	1.404
RO--> PPI						
Estimate	0.264	0.187	0.131	0.184	0.167	0.037
Std Error	0.091	0.068	0.089	0.089	0.088	0.075
Coef Ratio	2.911	2.737	1.473	2.066	1.897	0.495
RI--->PPI						
Estimate	-0.194	0.178	-0.359	0.181	0.011	0.295
Std Error	0.115	0.106	0.127	0.149	0.132	0.128
Coef Ratio	-1.689	0.738	-2.826	1.213	0.084	2.297
MSC-PPI	0.036	0.030	0.045	0.026	0.049	0.040
RMR	0.097		0.100		0.094	
GFI	0.941		0.937		0.944	
AGFI	0.924		0.919		0.928	

Structural Path Coefficients. Comparisons between men's and women's data are done in two different ways, one with variant factor patterns, i.e, allowing men and women to have different factor loadings and different path coefficients (Table 14-4A), and another with invariant factor patterns, i.e. allowing men and women to have the same factor loadings but different path coefficients (Table 14-4B).

A look at both tables warrants the following comments :

- 1) The squared multiple correlation for the latent endogenous variable PPI is almost identical in both cases. The RMR scores are slightly lower and the GFI scores are slightly higher for the variant factor pattern compared to the invariant factor pattern model.
- 2) The RP-PPI relationship is no longer significant in a consistent manner as in previous one-group analyses. It is only significant for the men group in the case of the multifunction processor ($p < .05$). For the women group, it gears towards significance for the multifunction and for the dishwasher models, but not in the predicted direction.

3) The RO-PPI relationship reveals other significance patterns than in the one-group analyses. It is significant for both men and women in the case of the pressure cooker ($p < .01$), for the women group in the case of the dishwasher ($p < .05$) and for the men group in the case of the multifunction processor ($p < .05$).

4) The RI-PPI relationship which was consistently insignificant in the one-group analysis is now slightly significant for men in the case of the pressure cooker ($p < .10$) and quite significant in the case of the dishwasher ($p < .01$). The relationship is insignificant for women in the case of the pressure cooker and the dish-washer. It is significant however for the multifunction processor but not in the predicted direction. This means that the hypothesised structural relationship of RI, RO, RP, with PPI is unstable over sexes and across the three durables considered.

Covariances. Appendix 14-C reproduces covariances for testing the relationships between the three exogenous latent variables. The figures reveal different results. While all covariances are significant at least at $p < .10$ in the predicted direction for the single group run, some of them take different signs in the two-group model run.

- a) The RO-RI covariance keeps the same direction and significance for both men and women in the two-group analysis as is the case for the single-group analysis.
- b) The RO-RP covariance which was significant in the single-group run is significant in none of the three models of pressure-cooker, dishwasher and multifunction PPI.
- c) The RI-RP covariance, which was very significant in the single-group run ($p < .01$), takes significantly predictable opposite directions for men and women. It is in the predicted direction for men : to higher levels of RI, that is of egalitarianism, correspond higher levels of men's household role involvement. It is in the predicted direction for women as well : to higher levels of RI, that is of egalitarianism, correspond lower levels of women's household role performance.

The latter results are coherent with sociological findings about husband and wife role distribution as a consequence of trends in role interchangeability (Scanzoni 1977). « Egalitarian » men, especially those married to working women, step in and share

home-chore activities to reduce their wives' household responsibilities (Bernardo et al. 1987). « Egalitarian » women press for equal partnership in domestic labor and have their husbands share home-chores with them (Hall 1987 ; Bielby and Bielby 1989).

Working Versus Non-working Women. A comparison between working and non-working women run on the complete model reveals the results given in Table 14-5.

Table 14-5 : Working Versus Nonworking Women (Complete Model with Total Sample)

	Pressure Cooker		Dishwasher		Multifunction Processor	
Relation	Working (n=188)	Nonworking (n=268)	Working (n=188)	Nonworking (n=268)	Working (n=188)	Nonworking (n=268)
RP-->PPI						
Estimate	0.129	0.174	0.579	0.194	0.068	0.331
Std Error	0.204	0.364	0.316	0.478	0.231	0.389
Coef Ratio	0.631	0.480	1.832	0.406	0.295	0.850
RO-->PPI						
Estimate	0.130	0.215	0.131	0.198	0.052	-0.005
Std Error	0.130	0.079	0.197	0.103	0.147	0.083
Coef Ratio	1.001	2.709	0.664	1.918	0.356	-0.064
RI-->PPI						
Estimate	0.174	0.195	0.396	0.443	0.265	0.731
Std Error	0.221	0.273	0.349	0.346	0.248	0.324
Coef Ratio	0.789	0.714	1.135	1.288	1.067	2.255
MSC-PPI	0.022	0.048	0.042	0.040	0.019	0.061
RMR	0.085		0.098		0.084	
GFI	0.899		0.892		0.908	
AGFI	0.871		0.862		0.883	
CFI	0.922		0.936		0.943	

- 1- The goodness of fit indices are rather low, thus suggesting that the hypothesised model accounting for differences between working and non-working women in predicting perceived product instrumentality is rather inadequate. Working status is not a significant moderator of perceived product instrumentality.
- 2- This is supported by the fact that the multiple squared correlations for the perceived product instrumentality variable are rather low. On average, between 2% and 6% of the variation in PPI is accounted for by the role orientations constructs.
- 3- Subgroup analyses usually lead to poor results. «The approach of splitting the sample has been criticised for its reduction of statistical power and the resultant likelihood of false disconfirmation » (Ping 1995, 337).

Conclusions

Despite these poor results, some trends are worth noting:

- a) The RP-PPI relationship tends to be significant for working women in the case of the dishwasher only, but not in the other cases of pressure-cooker and the processor,
- b) The RO-PPI relationship tends to be significant for non-working women in the cases of the pressure-cooker and the dishwasher, but not in the case of the processor.
- c) The RI-PPI relationship tends to be significant for non-working women in the case of the processor, but not in the cases of the pressure-cooker or the dishwasher.

The structural model reveals considerable variability in the directions and levels of significance over sexes and across products. Following Ping (1995), it is possible that the reformulation of the process sub-model in terms of quadratic and interaction terms will reveal better results. Presumably, the relationship between the latent exogenous variables with the latent endogenous variables is not linear. Despite their limitations, Such findings warrant the inclusion of all the process variables in comprehensive model testing. More reasons for this inclusion in the model are in order.

- 1- The objective of the researcher is to determine relative predictive power of RI, RO, RP, and PPI on TSES purchasing not as single variables, but as interactive processes. So even if individual variables per se are insignificant, their interactions can be significant. For instance, RO, which is significant in none of the above comparative models, may interact with RI and/or with RP and/or with PPI to become significantly related to TSES purchasing behaviour. Bagozzi (1986) suggests that latent structure modelling with interactive latent exogenous variables and/or non-linear relationships may give better predictive results.
- 2- Because the dependent TSES ownership and purchasing behaviour is hypothesised to be determined by household, men, and women characteristics in the comprehensive model, the explanatory interactions of RI, RO, RP and PPI variables will be entered

for both men and women in the case of several products. Presumably, some of these interactions may be significant for women for example but insignificant for men, or significant for major durables prediction, but insignificant for minor ones. These kinds of relationships will be of interest to me in the following chapter.

In conclusion, the structural formulation of the process sub-model supports my contention that the proposed system's framework is relevant, despite its limitations. « The evaluation of structural equation models is a complex conceptual and empirical activity fraught with errors... [Their] assessment involves *theoretical*, *methodological* and *statistical* analyses. To focus on only one of these areas is to risk reproducing false and misleading conclusions (Bagozzi 19981, p.375).»

NOTES

1. Model testing involved a very long trial and error process of variables selection and rejection. Every time, candidates for exclusion, i.e. measurement items that are part of the scale but whose exclusion may enhance fit are removed from the model and goodness of fit is ascertained. The hypothesised model is the result of this process and has the best goodness of fit indices in comparison with tens of other general models.
2. In order to examine the effects of RI, RO and RP on PPI, a LISREL model can be defined by the three following equations (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1985),

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Structural Equation Model :} & \eta = \Gamma\xi + \zeta \\ \text{Measurement Model for } y : & y = \Lambda_y\eta + \epsilon \\ \text{Measurement Model for } x : & x = \Lambda_x\xi + \delta, \end{array} \quad \text{with the assumptions,}$$

- a- ζ is uncorrelated with ξ
- b- ϵ is uncorrelated with η
- c- δ is uncorrelated with ξ
- d- ζ , ϵ , and δ are mutually uncorrelated.

However, as part of the SPSS Software, AMOS provides methods for estimating structural equation systems by testing the measurement and the structural models directly from path diagrams, i.e. without going through LISREL programming (Arbuckle 1997).

3. « If the distribution of the observed variables is moderately non-normal, skewed or peaked, the Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Generalized Least Squares (GLS) methods may still be used to fit the model to the data and, if interpreted with caution, standard errors and chi-square values together with other fit statistics can still be used to assess the fit of the model. However, especially chi-square is sensitive to departures from normality » (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1989, p. 191).
4. The focus-group interviews revealed that the multifunction processor is used in cooking and in preparing breakfast as well.
5. As a rule of thumb, Arbuckle (1977) confirms that the researcher also computes a relative chi-square to degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF). He suggests a ratio of approximately five or less as beginning to be reasonable. Ratios in the range of 2 to 1 or 3 to 1 are indicative of an acceptable fit between the hypothetical model and the sample data. According to Arbuckle, different researchers have recommended using ratios as low as 2 or as high as 5 to indicate a reasonable fit
6. Under assumption of multivariate normality, a sufficiently large sample size and a covariance matrix as input, the chi-square statistic tests the hypothesis H_0 that the observed covariance matrix is generated by the hypothesised model against the alternative hypothesis H_a that the covariance matrix is an unrestricted matrix. Rejection of the null hypothesis implies that the model-based covariance matrix Σ does not adequately reproduce the observed (i.e. the sample-based) covariance matrix S . « However, such a use of Chi-square is not valid in most applications. Reasons for this include the sensitivity of the chi-square statistic to departures from multinormality, sample size and problems related to the test, given its reverse-testing logic (i.e. one looks for an insignificant chi-square to support one's model). Thus chi-square values should be interpreted with caution and used as an indicator of how well the model reproduces the covariance matrix S , rather than as a formal test of a hypothesis. A large value indicates a poor reproduction of S and a small value indicates a good reproduction. This interpretation is particularly appropriate when the model under investigation is only tentative and the key concern is fitting the model to the data, assessing whether the fit is adequate, and perhaps modifying the model to improve the fit.

Appendix 14-B : Dependent Variables Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC)

Relation	Pressure-cooker (n=954)			Dishwasher (n=946)			Multifunction Processor (n=954)		
	(1)	(2)		(1)	(2)		(1)	(2)	
	M&W	M	W	M&W	M	W	M&W	M	W
Instr 4	0.769	0.788	0.649	0.772	0.787	0.721	0.725	0.759	0.725
Instr 5	0.691	0.681	0.617	0.690	0.650	0.680	0.714	0.707	0.652
Instr 6	0.742	0.733	0.681	0.759	0.713	0.782	0.605	0.610	0.552
Instr 11	0.686	0.663	0.616	0.735	0.713	0.734	0.672	0.707	0.633
Instr 12	0.364	0.292	0.506	0.527	0.405	0.699	0.318	0.759	0.520
Instr 13	0.572	0.651	0.422	0.655	0.698	0.592	0.587	0.587	0.466
washdish	NA	NA	NA	1.00	1.000	1.000	NA	NA	NA
breakfas	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.705	0.409	0.218
cooking	1.000	1.000	1.000	NA	NA	NA	0.913	0.272	0.508
RO2	0.388	0.380	0.390	0.389	0.385	0.519	0.389	0.385	0.387
RO5	0.413	0.480	0.345	0.411	0.478	0.592	0.413	0.478	0.347
RO7	0.441	0.366	0.519	0.445	0.367	0.523	0.441	0.366	0.518
RO8	0.549	0.486	0.593	0.549	0.487	0.550	0.550	0.486	0.595
RO9	0.573	0.622	0.519	0.569	0.618	0.572	0.572	0.621	0.519
RI1	0.527	0.612	0.367	0.522	0.522	0.406	0.538	0.627	0.209
RI2	0.159	0.241	0.108	0.165	0.277	0.107	0.156	0.240	0.102
RI5	0.061	0.070	0.046	0.063	0.080	0.048	0.060	0.066	0.043
RI7	0.110	0.081	0.198	0.110	0.088	0.175	0.109	0.077	0.209
PPI SMC	0.155	0.036	0.031	0.080	0.045	0.027	0.129	0.050	0.047

(1) Men and women not compared ; (2) Men and women compared. M=Men ; W=Women ; M&W=Men & Women.

Appendix 14- C : Coefficient Ratios For Testing Hypotheses About Latent Exogenous Variables Covariances

Relation	Pressure-Cooker (n=954)			Dishwasher (n=946)			Multifunction Processor (n=954)		
	(1)	(2)		(1)	(2)		(1)	(2)	
	M&W	M	W	M&W	M	W	M&W	M	W
RO-RP	-3.885 a	-0.710	0.925	-3.710 a	0.190	0.296	-3.799 a	0.209	0.821
RI-RP	1.682 c	4.041 a	-3.313 a	1.827 c	4.720 a	-3.417 a	1.813 c	4.319 a	-3.526 a
RO-RI	3.663 a	3.276 a	2.571 b	3.763 a	3.192 a	2.570 b	3.203 a	3.294 a	2.554 b

(1) Men and women not compared ; (2) Men and women compared; Significance levels for zero coefficients are : a = $p < .01$; b = $p < .05$; c = $p < .10$.

APPENDIX 14-1A : Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Construct Measures : The Complete Model (Derivation Sample n=477)

Measurement Items *	Cooker			Washer			Processor		
	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio		Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio		Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	
Role Ideology									
1-A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.	2.529	3.824		2.515	3.839		2.538	3.819	
2-A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife.	2.336	4.126		2.343	4.124		2.334	4.126	
5-If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job.	1.229	3.275		1.232	3.227		1.229	3.276	
7-Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main bread-winner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and the children	1.000			1.000			1.000		
Role Overload									
2-There are too many demands on my time.	1.000			1.000			1.000		
5-I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.	1.063	11.564		1.059	11.540		1.060	11.514	
7-Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day.	0.994	12.432		0.995	12.455		0.996	12.423	
8-Many times I have to cancel commitments.	1.190	12.949		1.190	12.962		1.194	12.956	
9-I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.	1.305	13.336		1.299	13.310		1.305	13.309	
Role Performance									
1-Cooking meals	1.000			1.000			1.000		
2-Washing clothes	1.018	69.458		1.018	69.381		1.018	69.371	
3-Washing the dishes	0.971	67.393		0.971	67.373		0.971	67.362	
4-Cleaning the house	0.979	64.934		0.980	64.924		0.980	64.883	
5-Preparing breakfast	0.808	31.273		0.808	31.267		0.808	31.270	
Perceived Product Instrumentality									
4-It helps me devote more time for my family	1.000			1.000			1.115	21.221	
5-It helps me get organized	0.958	22.874		0.928	24.655		1.066	20.012	
6-It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously	0.942	24.134		1.015	27.040		0.996	18.358	
10-It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations	0.966	23.484		0.956	24.854		1.049	19.992	
11-It has practical usefulness	0.643	16.320		0.815	20.573		1.638	13.141	
12-It allows me to spare time for other activities	0.935	22.119		0.921	23.565		1.000		
Fit Indices	CMIN/DF=1.737 ; RMR=0.083 GFI=0.946 ; AGFI=0.931			CMIN/DF=1.672 ; RMR=0.089 GFI=0.947 ; AGFI=0.932			CMIN/DF=1.604 ; RMR=0.082 GFI=0.950 ; AGFI=0.936		

* Subjects responded to all measurement items using a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly agree, 2=somewhat agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=somewhat disagree, 5=strongly disagree).

APPENDIX 14-1B : Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Construct Measures : The Complete Model (Validation Sample n=469)

Measurement Items *	Pressure Cooker		Washer		Processor	
	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio
Role Ideology						
1-A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.	2.025	4.114	1.947	4.184	1.966	4.117
2-A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife.	1.641	4.727	1.651	4.729	1.632	4.745
5-If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job.	1.021	3.584	1.030	3.608	0.994	3.548
7-Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and the children	1.000		1.000		1.000	
Role Overload						
2-There are too many demands on my time.	1.000		1.000		1.000	
5-I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.	1.194	10.463	1.193	10.474	1.193	10.476
7-Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day.	1.001	10.387	1.002	10.410	0.999	10.392
8-Many times I have to cancel commitments.	1.348	11.387	1.346	11.400	1.347	11.403
9-I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.	1.399	11.421	1.394	11.423	1.395	11.427
Role Performance						
1-Cooking meals	1.000		1.000		1.000	
2-Washing clothes	1.020	61.122	1.020	61.104	1.020	61.093
3-Washing the dishes	0.976	61.749	0.976	61.773	0.976	61.722
4-Cleaning the house	1.014	69.373	1.014	69.390	1.014	69.423
5-Preparing breakfast	0.790	28.849	0.790	28.856	0.790	28.852
Perceived Product Instrumentality						
4-It helps me devote more time for my family	1.000		1.000		1.140	17.989
5-It helps me get organized	0.958	22.874	0.922	23.258	1.202	18.433
6-It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously	0.942	24.134	0.973	25.365	1.081	16.607
10-It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations	0.966	23.484	0.977	25.902	1.118	17.324
11-It has practical usefulness	0.643	16.320	0.750	17.700	0.670	11.308
12-It allows me to spare time for other activities	0.935	22.119	0.901	22.104	1.000	
Fit Indices	CMIN/DF=2.262 ; RMR=0.098 GFI=0.927 ; AGFI=0.907		CMIN/DF=2.471 ; RMR=0.107 GFI=0.922 ; AGFI=0.900		CMIN/DF=2.141 ; RMR=0.097 GFI=0.932 ; AGFI=0.913	

Note. The item numbers remain the same as in the original scales (see chapter 13).

APPENDIX-14-1C: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Construct Measures : The Complete Model Total Sample (n=946)

Measurement Items	Pressure Cooker		Washer		Processor	
	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio
Role Ideology						
1- A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.	2.316	5.463	2.321	5.484	2.356	5.403
2- A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife.	1.927	6.284	1.933	6.274	1.918	6.283
5- If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job.	1.106	4.845	1.117	4.864	1.103	4.839
7- Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main bread-winner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and the children	1.000		1.000		1.000	
Role Overload						
2 - There are too many demands on my time.	1.000		1.000		1.000	
5 - I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.	1.132	15.582	1.129	15.585	1.130	15.568
7 - Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day.	1.001	16.008	1.001	16.041	1.000	15.999
8 - Many times I have to cancel commitments.	1.272	17.172	1.271	17.196	1.273	17.184
9 - I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.	1.352	17.390	1.347	11.380	1.351	17.378
Role Performance						
1- Cooking meals	1.000		1.000		1.000	
2- Washing clothes	1.019	91.457	1.019	91.389	1.019	91.392
3- Washing the dishes	0.974	90.927	0.974	90.933	0.974	90.913
4- Cleaning the house	0.997	94.561	0.997	94.559	0.997	94.553
5- Preparing breakfast	0.799	42.418	0.799	42.420	0.799	42.421
Perceived Product Instrumentality						
4- It helps me devote more time for my family	1.000		1.000		1.125	27.570
5- It helps me get organized	0.982	33.321	0.924	33.836	1.129	27.273
6- It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously	0.961	35.572	0.993	37.080	1.036	24.749
11- It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations	0.957	33.119	0.966	35.934	1.081	26.317
12- It has practical usefulness	0.609	20.699	0.781	26.944	0.653	17.217
13- It allows me to spare time for other activities	0.892	28.707	0.910	32.277	1.000	
Fit Indices	CMIN/DF=2.601 ; RMR=0.075 GFI=0.957 ; AGFI=0.945		CMIN/DF=2.902 ; RMR=0.085 GFI=0.952 ; AGFI=0.939		CMIN/DF=2.524 ; RMR=0.077 GFI=0.952 ; AGFI=0.948	

APPENDIX 14-2A : Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Construct Measures : The Reduced Model (Derivation Sample)

Measurement Items *		P. Cooker (n=478)		Washer (n=477)		Processor (n=478)	
		Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio
Role Ideology							
1- A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.		1.000		1.000		2.557	3.834
2- A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife.		0.922	4.421	0.912	4.411	2.369	4.115
5- If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job.		0.481	3.808	0.480	3.510	1.230	3.254
7- Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and the children		0.393	3.809	0.393	3.089	1.000	
Role Overload							
2 - There are too many demands on my time.		1.000		1.000		1.000	
5 - I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.		1.065	11.603	1.058	11.544	1.061	11.557
7 - Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day.		0.991	12.443	0.995	12.463	0.993	12.443
8 - Many times I have to cancel commitments.		1.188	12.970	1.189	12.962	1.191	12.979
9 - I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.		1.305	13.372	1.298	13.312	1.304	13.346
Role Performance							
1- Cooking meals		1.000		NA		1.000	
2- Washing the dishes		NA		1.000		NA	
3- Preparing breakfast		NA		NA		0.946	12.373
Perceived Product Instrumentality							
4- It helps me devote more time for my family		1.000		1.000		1.113	21.242
5- It helps me get organized		0.959	22.919	0.929	24.644	1.065	20.046
6- It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously		0.943	24.186	1.016	27.021	0.995	18.389
11- It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations		0.967	23.522	0.956	24.851	1.049	20.024
12- It has practical usefulness		0.644	16.353	0.815	20.580	0.638	13.170
13- It allows me to spare time for other activities		0.936	22.156	0.921	23.555	1.000	
Fit Indices		CMIN/DF=1.920 ; RMR=0.078 GFI=0.954; AGFI=0.937		CMIN/DF=1.897; RMR=0.075 GFI=0.953 ; AGFI=0.936		CMIN/DF=1.670 ; RMR=0.076 GFI=0.957 ; AGFI=0.942	

Note. All coefficient ratio tests are significant at p values <0.1.

APPENDIX 14-2C : Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Construct Measures : The Reduced Model (Total Sample)

Measurement Items *		P. Cooker (n=954)		Washer (n=946)		Processor (n=954)	
Role Ideology		Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio	Factor Loading	Coefficient Ratio
1- A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.		1.000		1.000		2.362	5.345
2- A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife.		0.817	5.651	0.835	5.798	1.894	6.260
5- If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job.		0.472	4.675	0.482	4.766	1.097	4.837
7- Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and the children		0.431	5.391	0.433	5.485	1.000	
Role Overload							
2 - There are too many demands on my time.		1.000		1.000		1.000	
5 - I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.		1.137	15.692	1.129	15.589	1.136	15.579
7 - Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day.		0.998	16.071	1.001	16.049	0.997	16.061
8 - Many times I have to cancel commitments.		1.274	17.267	1.270	17.195	1.276	17.279
9 - I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.		1.352	17.484	1.346	17.379	1.350	17.472
Role Performance							
1- Cooking meals		1.000		NA		1.000	
2- Washing the dishes		NA		1.000		NA	
3- Preparing breakfast		NA		NA		0.826	15.236
Perceived Product Instrumentality							
4- It helps me devote more time for my family		1.000		1.000		1.120	27.703
5- It helps me get organized		0.985	33.499	0.924	33.828	1.126	27.450
6- It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously		0.964	35.746	0.993	37.067	1.035	24.936
11- It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations		0.959	33.265	0.966	35.944	1.079	26.506
12- It has practical usefulness		0.606	20.620	0.781	26.950	0.654	17.377
13- It allows me to spare time for other activities		0.889	28.654	0.910	32.266	1.000	
Fit Indices		CMIN/DF=3.120 ; RMR=0.071 GFI=0.961 ; AGFI=0.947		CMIN/DF=3.581 ; RMR=0.079 GFI=0.955 ; AGFI=0.938		CMIN/DF=2.694 ; RMR=0.073 GFI=0.965 ; AGFI=0.952	

Note. All coefficient ratio tests are significant at p values < 0.01.

Appendix 14-2A : Structural Equations Results: The Complete Model (Role Performance with 5 observables)

Relation-ship	Men and Women (Derivation Sample n=477)			Men and Women (Validation Sample n=477)			Men and Women (Total Sample n=946)		
	Pressure Cooker	Dish- Washer	Multi.F. Processo r	Pressure Cooker	Dish- Washer	Multi.F. Processor	Pressure Cooker	Dish- Washer	Multi.F. Processor
RP→PPI									
Estimate	-0.229	-0.178	-0.223	-0.277	-0.208	-0.192	-0.250	-1.191	-0.207
Std Error	0.033	0.037	0.031	0.034	.0037	0.030	0.024	0.026	0.022
Coef Ratio	-6.868 a	-4.823 a	-7.166 a	-8.086 a	-5.572 a	-6.417 a	-10.47 a	-7.371 a	-9.586 a
RO→PPI									
Estimate	0.307	0.203	0.183	0.135	0.116	0.048	0.233	0.164	0.117
Std Error	0.081	0.089	0.073	0.084	0.092	0.072	0.058	0.063	0.051
Coef Ratio	3.797 a	2.283 b	2.492 b	1.613	1.255	0.672	4.029 a	2.590 b	2.298 b
RI→PPI									
Estimate	-0.058	-0.249	0.007	-0.277	-0.358	0.038	-0.170	-0.293	0.051
Std Error	0.276	0.312	0.253	0.213	0.235	0.177	0.168	0.189	0.148
Coef Ratio	-0.209	-0.797	0.028	-1.365	-1.520	0.216	-1.009	-1.550	0.342
MSC-PPI	0.160	0.078	0.147	0.167	0.091	0.105		0.083	0.124
RMR	0.083	0.089	0.082	0.096	0.107	0.097	0.075	0.085	0.077
GFI	0.946	0.947	0.950	0.927	0.932	0.922	0.957	0.952	0.959
AGFI	0.931	0.932	0.936	0.907	0.922	0.900	0.945	0.939	0.948
CFI	0.983	0.985	0.986	0.970	0.985	0.966	0.981	0.979	0.981

Note. Significance level for zero path coefficient : a = $p < .01$; b = $p < .05$ c = $p < .10$

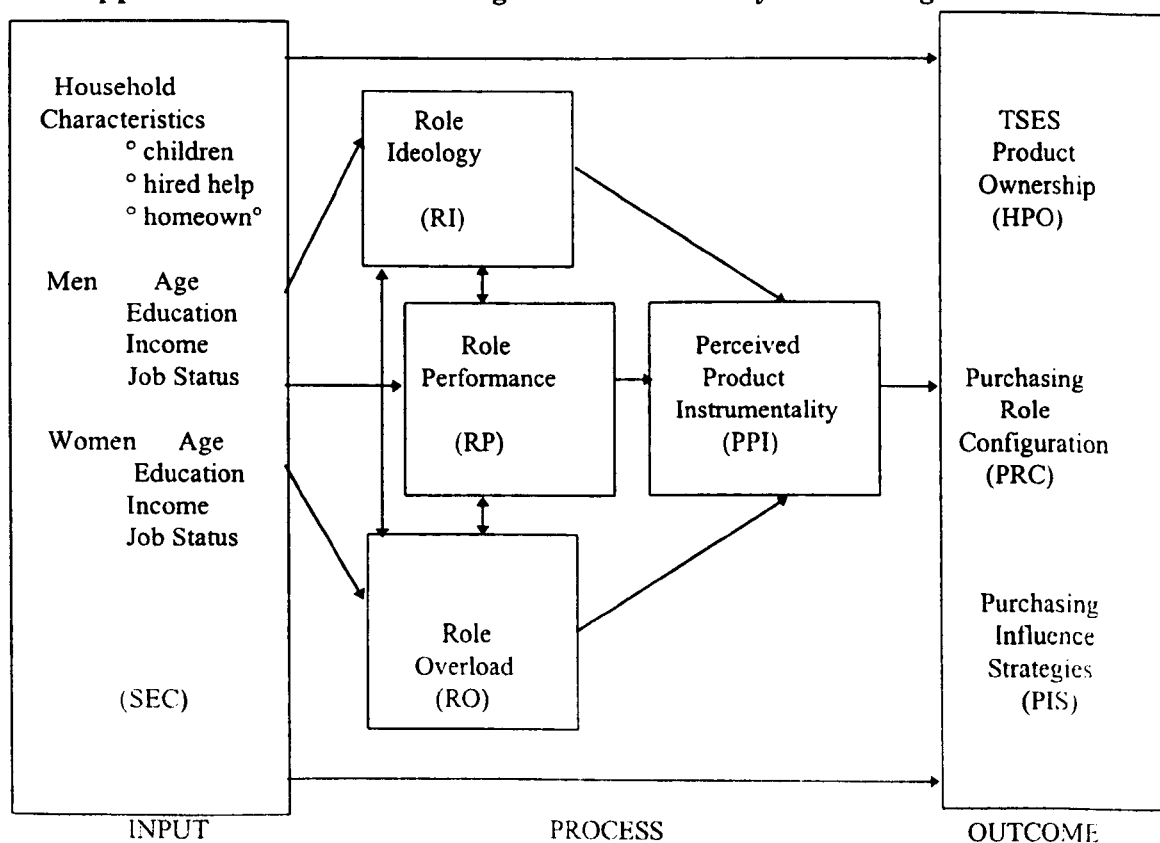
Appendix 14-C : Structural Equations Results For The Multifunction Processor Perceived Instrumentality : Comparisons Between Role Performance as a one-Item (Cooking) or (Breakfast) or as a two Item-Scale (Both Tasks)

Relation	(Derivation Sample)			(Validation Sample)			(Total Sample)		
	Both tasks (n=478)	Breakfast (n=477)	Cooking (n=477)	Both tasks (n=474)	Breakfast (n=477)	Cooking (n=477)	Both tasks (n=954)	Breakfast (n=946)	Cooking (n=954)
RP→PPI									
Estimate	-0.254	-0.245	-0.230	-0.186	-0.177	-0.214	-0.217	-1.209	-0.221
Std Error	0.037	0.036	0.033	0.035	.0035	0.032	0.025	0.025	0.023
Coef Ratio	-6.870	-6.887	-6.935	-5.373	-5.127	-6.670	-8.576	-8.479	-9.656
RO→PPI									
Estimate	0.187	0.255	0.215	0.047	0.086	0.050	0.118	0.158	0.138
Std Error	0.073	0.082	0.082	0.072	0.083	0.081	0.051	0.058	0.070
Coef Ratio	2.557	2.749	2.622	0.165	1.035	0.614	2.322	2.746	2.438
RI→PPI									
Estimate	0.068	-0.022	-0.004	0.009	0.013	0.013	0.054	0.025	0.016
Std Error	0.258	0.113	0.112	0.173	0.104	0.101	0.148	0.071	0.070
Coef Ratio	0.262	0.193	-0.037	0.049	0.125	0.129	0.364	0.344	0.228
MSC-PPI	0.159	0.135	0.135	0.105	0.067	0.106	0.129	0.098	0.119
RMR	0.076	0.071	0.075	0.091	0.090	0.091	0.073	0.070	0.071
GFI	0.957	0.959	0.957	0.947	0.949	0.948	0.965	0.965	0.965
AGFI	0.942	0.944	0.940	0.928	0.930	0.929	0.952	0.952	0.952
CFI	0.976	0.973	0.970	0.960	0.955	0.955	0.969	0.965	0.964

Appendix 14-3 : Structural Equations Results For The Multifunction Processor Perceived Instrumentality : Comparison Between Entering the Four and the Two-Item Role Ideology Scale in the Model

Relation	Derivation Sample (n=477)		Validation Sample (n=469)	
	4-items Scale	2-items Scale	4-items Scale	2-items Scale
RP--->PPI				
Estimate	-0.254	-0.256	-0.186	-0.188
Std Error	0.037	0.038	0.035	0.035
Coef Ratio	-6.870	-6.736	-5.373	-5.425
RO--> PPI				
Estimate	0.187	0.187	0.047	0.042
Std Error	0.073	0.077	0.072	0.072
Coef Ratio	2.557	2.442	0.165	0.584
RI-->PPI				
Estimate	0.068	0.023	0.009	0.027
Std Error	0.258	0.148	0.173	0.106
Coef Ratio	0.262	0.158	0.049	0.259
MSC-PPI	0.159	0.158	0.105	0.107
RMR	0.076	0.076	0.091	0.082
GFI	0.957	0.960	0.947	0.955
AGFI	0.942	0.943	0.928	0.935
CFI	0.976	0.978	0.960	0.969

Appendix 14-D : The Rearranged Model of Family Purchasing Behaviour



Chapter 15

Model Testing: Predicting TSES Product Ownership

Comprehensive Model Testing: Predicting TSES Product Ownership

In the following chapter, I am interested in testing the global model. The reader is reminded of the following propositions (see chapters 7, 8 and 9):

- a- The inclusion of role orientations (apprehended in terms of RI, RO, and RP) will increase the explanatory power of socio-demographics and will contribute to reducing the unexplained variability in household TSES products purchasing behaviour.
- b- The inclusion of perceived product instrumentality (PPI) in the model will moderate the effect of socio-demographics to enhance their predictive power and to account for variability in household TSES products purchasing behaviour.
- c- The interactions of perceived product instrumentality with role orientations may enhance the predictability of socio-demographics and may reduce unexplained variability in household TSES products purchasing behaviour.

The above propositions provide clues to answering the following research questions: What is the impact of the input and process variables upon family purchasing behaviour, i.e. upon the decision to own or not to own TSES durables? How do these variables interact to affect such behaviour? Answers to the above questions can be provided via logistic regression.¹ Model testing will not involve all output variables developed in the theoretical presentation. In this section, I am interested in apprehending factors that determine TSES durables ownership.

MODEL TESTING PROCEDURE

The model consists of input, process and output variables. Input variables consist in household characteristics (number of children, home-ownership, and hired-help), the man's and the woman's characteristics (age, education, income, work-status). Process variables consist in the man's and the woman's role orientations variables (role ideology, role overload, role performance, and perceived product instrumentality for the pressure-cooker, the dish-washer, and the multifunction processor). Output variables consist in ownership assessment of TSES products

(pressure-cooker, dish-washer, and multifunction processor). Both input and process variables are entered as independent variables and regressed upon ownership. The four process variables are also entered as two, three and four-factor interactions. The various independent dichotomous variables distribution is given in Appendix 15-A. The dependent ownership dichotomous variables distribution is given in Appendix 15-B. Descriptive statistics of the variables involved in comprehensive model testing are given in Appendix 15-C.

Before the interpretation of the findings, a summary of the main hypotheses and the basic results of the previous sub-model testing phase are in order.

Hypotheses Formulation

Hypotheses are formulated in terms of the relationship of the input and process variables to the output variable.

The Household Variables

- ◇ *Children*. The increase in the number of children increases the likelihood of TSES durables ownership. The rationale for the inclusion of this hypothesis is that children are a source of overload and TSES products are used as a means of reducing it.
- ◇ *Hired Help*. Two alternative hypotheses are formulated: hired help either increases or decreases the likelihood of TSES durables ownership. Firstly, hired help and TSES durables ownership are complementary. Families who resort to hired help are more likely to own TSES durables because hired help may be needed for durables administration. Secondly, hired help and TSES durables ownership are substitutes. Families who resort to hired help are less likely to own TSES durables because TSES durables may no longer be needed as long as hired help is available.
- ◇ *Home-Ownership*. Home-ownership is found to increase the likelihood of durables ownership by previous researchers (Bellante and Foster 1984; Dickson et al). My rationale for the inclusion of such a variable is in order. On the one hand, home-owners, i.e. families who already solved their home-possession problem tend to save money for other purposes such as durables acquisition. On the other hand, home non-owners tend to be dissuaded from TSES ownership because, among

numerous reasons, they find such durables so heavy that they dare not possess them while knowing that they will have to move away with them sooner or later.

Women's Variables

- ◇ *Work Status.* Women's involvement into the labour force may increase the likelihood of TSES products ownership. Not only do these women have means to acquire them, but they also need their help for managing the household and for keeping up with their tight schedules. TSES products may be appreciated by working women for their time-saving and effort-sparing qualities.
- ◇ *Income.* Woman's income enhances the family's purchasing power. This increases the likelihood of TSES durables ownership.
- ◇ *Age.* Two alternative hypotheses may be formulated. Firstly, the older the woman, the higher the likelihood that the household be an owner of TSES durables because older women need help very badly for household management and TSES products can be very helpful. Secondly, the younger the woman, the higher the probability of TSES products ownership because it is possible that younger women are more receptive to modern household technology than are older ones.
- ◇ *Education.* The higher the woman's education, the higher the likelihood of TSES product ownership. Education enhances receptivity to modern household technology.

The Man's Variables

- ◇ *Work Status.* The higher men's working status, the higher the likelihood of TSES durables ownership. Not only do high status working men have means to acquire them, but they also need their help for managing the household and keeping up with their tight schedules in case they are involved in home-chore activities.
- ◇ *Income.* Man's income increases the likelihood of TSES products ownership.
- ◇ *Age.* Two alternative hypotheses may be formulated. Firstly, the older the man, the higher the likelihood that the household be an owner of TSES durables because older men need help very badly for household management and TSES products can be very helpful (in case they are involved in home-chores). Secondly, the younger the man, the higher the probability of TSES products ownership because it is possible that younger men are more receptive to modern household technology than older ones.

- ◇ *Education.* The more the man's education, the higher the likelihood of TSES durables ownership. Education enhances receptivity to modern household technology.

The Structural Equations Results Process Submodel Revisited

A summary of the structural equations results of the process sub-model testing, dealt with in the previous chapter, is provided in Appendix 15-D. Some measurement issues deserve attention. In the structural equations analysis, the direction of the scales was as follows: for RP, the greater the score, the higher the involvement; for RI, the higher the score, the more direction towards egalitarianism; for RO, the greater the score, the higher the feeling of role overload; for PPI, the lower the score, the higher the perceived instrumentality. For instance, in Appendix 15-D, the negative sign for men's RI-PPI path in the pressure-cooker model means that the higher the RI score (i.e. the direction towards egalitarianism) the lower the PPI score (i.e. the higher the perceived instrumentality of the pressure-cooker). In order to make the interpretation of the logistic model interaction terms easier and more consistent with the theory, the PPI scales are recoded so that high PPI score means high perceived instrumentality.

LOGISTIC REGRESSION RESULTS

Table 15-1 through Table 15-3 give logistic regression results using different methods. Before discussing the findings, variable selection deserves attention. A description of the variables scales involved in model testing is provided in the above tables as well. RI, RO, and PPI are entered as summated ratings of 5-item Likert scales. For the sake of simplicity, only the role variables, i.e. Role Ideology, Role Performance, and Role Overload, are entered as interactive variables with Perceived Product Instrumentality. The rest are entered as individual variables. Interactions such as help-use by job status, or children by role overload, etc. can intuitively make sense as interactive terms, but are not entered as such. The focus here is on role variables as interacting with the central PPI process component of the model presented above. The Work status variable is assessed differently for men and women. It is a measure of labour involvement for women (involved=1, not involved=0) and a measure of job status for men (high=1, low status=0). In this case, the first two categories of men's employment status were combined to represent high

status (administrators, higher professionals and business owners =1 ; key executives, lower professionals and business owners =1). The rest are considered of low status (code=0).

Following Oropesa (1993), the method used to select significant relationships is stepwise Wald.² Several methods of variable selection were used. For the pressure-cooker and the multifunction processor ownership prediction, variables are entered in such a way that the first block is made of one factor terms, the second block of two-factor interactions, the third block of three-factor interactions, and the fourth block of one four-factor interaction term (see results for Models A1, Model A2, and Model B in Table 15-1).

For the dishwasher ownership prediction, the above method is also used (see results for Model C1 and Model C2 in Table 15-2). As in the case of Model A1 and Model A2, variables are entered in such a way that the first block is made of one factor terms, the second block of two-factor interactions, the third block of three-factor interactions, and the fourth block of one four-factor interaction term (See Model C2 in Table 15-2). Besides, a variant of the above method is used whereby the first block is made of one 4-factor interaction term, the second block of 3-factor interaction terms, the third block of 2-factor interactions, and the fourth block of one-factor terms (see results of Model C1 in Table 15-2).

Two variants for Model C2 are provided : Model C2a and Model C2b. The corresponding statistics for each model are given in the bottom of Table-15-2. The first set of statistics concerns the model with the last three-factor interaction term entering the equation. The second set of statistics concerns the model without the last three-factor interaction term entering the equation. For instance, the difference between the two R squared (i.e. between .424 and .395) reflects the predictive power added with the inclusion of the three-factor interaction term.

The use of multiple block method is deemed preferable to entering all predictors as a single block using the enter or the stepwise method. The enter method with all single and interaction terms leads to the selection of many redundant predictors. In the multiple block stepwise method, precedence is either given to lower-order interactions over higher-order ones (Model C2 of Table 15-3) or to higher-order interactions over lower-order ones (Model C1 of Table 15-3).

TABLE 15.1 : Logistic Regression Results for the Pressure-Cooker (Model A1 and Model A2) and the M. Processor (Model B)
(Variables Entered as Several Blocks in a Stepwise Backward and Forward Wald)

	Model A1 : Pressure-cooker (n=398) Forward Method				Model A2 : Pressure-Cooker (n=397) Backward Method				Model B : M. Processor (n=399) Backward and Forward Methods ¹			
	Entered (Step)	Reg. Coef. (Odd Ratio)	Wald.Stat (sig.level)	Entered	Reg. Coef. (Odd Ratio)	Wald.Stat (sig.level)	Entered (Step)	Reg. Coef. (Odd Ratio)	Wald.Stat (sig.level)	Entered (Step)	Reg. Coef. (Odd Ratio)	Wald.Stat (sig.level)
household variables (scale)												
children (1-7)	1						2	(4)	.74 (2.10)	8.29 (.004)		
hired help (0-1)	2											
home-ownership (0-1)	3											
woman's variables (scale)							4	(3)	.69 (1.99)	8.96 (.003)		
work-status (0-1)	4											
education (1-8)	5	.214 (1.24)	4.52 (.033)	5	.24 (1.32)	5.24 (.025)						
income (1-9)	6											
age (1-8)	7											
role ideology (4-20)	8											
role performance (1-5)	9											
role overload (5-25)	10											
perceived instrumentality (6-30)	11	.064 (1.07)	6.51 (.011)	11	.68 (1.07)	6.92 (.008)	11	(2)	.11 (1.11)	24.62 (.000)		
woman's variables interactions												
man's variables (same scale)												
work-status	12											
education	13											
income	14	.254 (1.29)	5.02 (.025)	14	.28 (1.32)	5.48 (.019)	14	(1)	.30 (1.35)	14.45 (.000)		
age	15											
role ideology ²	16											
role performance	17											
role overload ²	18											
perceived instrumentality ²	19	.041 (1.04)	3.42 (.064)									
man's variables interactions				16*18*19	.001 (1.001)	2.87 (.094)						
				17*18*19	-.005 (.995)	3.50 (.089)						
-2 Log likelihood		258.122			249.489				458.998			
Goodness of Fit		402.419			378.755				383.595			
R Squared		.119			.148				.163			
Adj. R Squared (Degree of Freedom)		.110 (5)			.137 (6)				.154 (5)			
AIC (Akaike's Information Criterion)		248.122			237.489				448.998			

Note1. For the multifunction processor (Model B), the Forward and Backward methods give equivalent results.

TABLE 15.2
LOGISTIC REGRESSION RESULTS FOR THE DISHWASHER OWNERSHIP
PREDICTION (n=397)
(Variables Entered as Several Blocks in a Stepwise Forward and Backward Wald) ¹

	Model C1 : 4-order interactions entered as 1 st block, 3-order as 2 nd , 2-order as 3 rd , etc.			Model C2 : Individual variables entered as 1 st block, 2-order interactions as 2 nd , 3-order as 3 rd , etc.		
	Entered	Reg. Coef. (Odd Ratio)	Wald.Stat (sig.level)	Entered	Reg. Coef. (Odd Ratio)	Wald.Stat (sig.level)
household variables (scale)						
children (1-7) 1						
hired help (0-1) 2	2	1.77 (5.89)	6.50 (.01)	2	1.25 (3.49)	3.11 (.077)
home-ownership (0-1) 3	3	1.23 (3.41)	2.94 (.08)	3	1.52 (4.57)	4.17 (.041)
woman's variables (scale)						
work-status ⁴ (0-1)						
education (1-8) 5				5	.44 (1.56)	4.06 (.044)
income (1-9) 6						
age (1-8) 7						
role ideology (4-20) 8				8	.20 (1.23)	5.38 (.020)
role performance (1-5) 9						
role overload (5-25) 10						
perceived instrumentality (6-30) 11				11	.17 (1.18)	8.08 (.004)
woman's variables interactions	8*9*11	.003 (1.003)	6.75 (.009)			
man's variables (same scale)						
work-status ⁴ 12						
education 13						
income 14	14	.791 (2.20)	11.9 (.000)	14	.75 (2.11)	8.98 (.003)
age 15						
role ideology 16						
role performance 17						
role overload 18				18	.11 (1.12)	2.66 (.102)
perceived instrumentality 19						
man's variables interactions	16*17 *18*19	-.0002 (.999)	3.10 (.07)	17*19	.08 (1.08)	6.65 (.010)
	17*18 *19	.005 (1.01)	13.22 (.00)	16*17 *19	-.005 (.995)	3.50 (.061)
	Model C2a ²			Model C2b ³		
-2 Log Likelihood	96.178			91.300		
Goodness of Fit	240.319			189.732		
R Squared	.393			.424		
Adj. R Squared	.384			.410		
Degree of Freedom	7			10		
AIC (Akaike's Information Criterion)	82.178			71.3		

1. When independent variables are entered as several blocks, forward and backward Wald methods give the same results.

2. The statistics for Model C2a concern the model shown in the above table with the 3-factor interaction term entering the equation.

3. The statistics for Model C2b concern the model shown in the above table without the 3-factor interaction term entering the equation.

4. Work status is a measure of labour involvement for women (1=involved ; 0= not involved) and of job status for men (1= high status; 0= low status).

TABLE 15.3
LOGISTIC REGRESSION RESULTS FOR THE DISHWASHER OWNERSHIP PREDICTION
(n=397)
(Variables Entered as a Single Block in a Stepwise Wald)¹

	Model C : Stepwise Backward Wald			Model D : Stepwise Forward Wald		
	Entered	Reg. Coef. (Odd Ratio)	Wald.Stat (sig.level)	Entered	Reg. Coef. (Odd Ratio)	Wald.Stat (sig.level)
household variables (scale)						
children (1-7) 1						
hired help (0-1) 2	2	1.78 (5.96)	6.50 (.01)	2	1.79 (5.96)	6.56 (.010)
home-ownership (0-1) 3	3	2.53 (12.62)	4.68 (.03)	3	1.16 (3.17)	2.78 (.095)
woman's variables (scale)						
work-status (0-1) 4	4	-1.56 (.209)	3.23 (.07)			
education (1-8) 5	5	.68 (1.97)	5.50 (.02)			
income (1-9) 6						
age (1-8) 7	7	.44 (1.56)	3.21 (.073)			
role ideology (4-20) 8	8	1.26 (3.52)	6.94 (.008)			
role performance (1-5) 9						
role overload (5-25) 10	10	1.45 (4.29)	5.89 (.015)			
perceived instrumentality (6-30) 11	11	2.3 (10.15)	9.86 (.001)			
woman's variables interactions	10*11	-.07 (.930)	6.08 (.013)	8*9*11	.002(1.01)	12.56 (.000)
	9*11	-.02 (.818)	6.43 (.011)			
	8*10*11	-.02 (.998)	5.25 (.022)			
man's variables (same scale)						
work-status 12						
education 13						
income 14	14	1.05(2.86)	10.7 (.001)	14	.82 (2.27)	12.92(.000)
age 15						
role ideology 16						
role performance 17						
role overload 18						
perceived instrumentality 19						
man's variables interactions	18*19	.005 (1.005)	3.80 (.051)	17*18*19	.006 (1.01)	13.03 (000)
	16*17*19	-.0013 (.986)	4.34 (.037)	16*17*18 *19	-.001 (.998)	3.17 (.075)
	16*17*19 *19.	.001 (1.001)	3.50 (.061)			
-2 Log likelihood	74.83			96.815		
Goodness of Fit	147.358			231.460		
R Squared	.528			.389		
Adj. R Squared	.510			.381		
Degree of Freedom	16			7		
AIC (Akaike's Information Criterion)	42.83			82.815		

Note1 When independent variables are entered as several blocks, Forward and Backward Wald methods give equivalent results.

INTERPRETING THE LOGISTIC REGRESSION RESULTS

For the Pressure Cooker (Models A1 and A2 in Table 15-1), the Backward model (Model A2) reveals better statistics and more significant relationships between the dependent and the independent variables than the Forward method (Model A1). Two of these variables are 3-factor interaction terms and have better fit statistics. However, in the interest of simplicity and interpretability, the forward model is preferred. In this case, all entered predictors are individual variables.

For the Multifunction Processor (Model B in Table 15-1), the Backward and Forward methods give equivalent results. Only individual variables are significantly related to the ownership variable. None of the interaction terms enters the equation, as reflected in the R and the Wald Statistics.³

For the Dishwasher (Models C1, C2 in Table 15-2, and Models C3, C4 in Table 15-3), all four models reveal significant relationships between the ownership dependent variable and the independent variables. Model C3 in Table 15-3 has got the highest predictive power amongst all models ($R^2 = .52$; Adj. $R^2 = .510$)⁴ and the best fit ($AIC = 42.8$)⁵. There are too many interactive terms however which are, in essence, difficult to interpret. Most of these have signs that are contrary to what was expected. The interaction terms are : two 2-factor interaction terms (RO*PPI and RP*PPI) and one 3-factor interaction term for women (RI*RI*PPI) and one 2-factor (RO*PPI), one 3-factor interaction term (RI*RP*PPI) and one 4-factor interaction term (RI*RO*RP*PPI) for men.

For simplicity and interpretability, Model A1 is preferred to Model A2 for the pressure-cooker ownership prediction and, Model C2 is preferred to Models C1, C3, and C4 for the dishwasher ownership prediction. The interpretation of the logistic regression coefficients will proceed for these three selected models.

The Pressure-Cooker (see Model A1 in Table 15-1)

In this case, variables that are significantly related to the ownership probability are linked to men and women, but not to the household as a whole. The four variables which make significant contribution to the overall effect are women's Perceived Product Instrumentality PPI, women's Education, men's Income, and

finally men's Perceived Product Instrumentality. Most odds ratios are however relatively modest in magnitude.

For men's income, the odds ratio is at about 1.29. This means that when man's income level increases by one unit (here, by one income category), the odds for the dependent variable are increased by about 30%. In other words, higher income-husband families have higher probability of owning a pressure-cooker than their one-level-lower income counterparts.

For women's education, the odds ratio is at 1.24. This means that when women's educational level increases by one unit (here, by one category), the odds ratio for the dependent variable is increased by about 25%. In other words, higher educational levels for women are translated by higher probability of pressure-cooker ownership for the household.

For women's PPI, the odds ratios are more modest at 1.07. This means that a unit increase in women's perceived instrumentality of the product is translated into an increase of the odds by about 7%. The higher women's PPI score, the higher the probability that the household be an owner of a pressure-cooker.

For man's PPI, the odds ratio is 1.04. This means that a unit increase in men's perceived instrumentality of the product is translated into an increase of the odds by about 4%. The higher men's PPI score, the higher the probability that the household be an owner of a pressure-cooker. Notice however that women's PPI contribution to the explanatory power of the dependent variable is greater than men's.

The Multifunction Processor (Model B in Table 15-2)

In this case, variables that are significantly related to the ownership probability are linked to men and women as well as to the household as a whole. The four variables which make significant contribution to the overall effect are women's PPI, women's Work Status, men's Income, and finally men's Perceived Product Instrumentality.

- a- The first variable to enter the equation is men's income. The odds ratios are 1.35 greater for one-level higher income families than for one-level-lower income ones. This means that when man's income level increases by one unit (here, by one income category), the odds for the dependent variable are

increased by about 35%. In other words, higher income-husband families have higher probability of owning a multifunction processor than their one-level-lower income counterparts.

- b- The second variable to enter the equation is women's PPI ; the odds ratios are 1.11. This means that a unit increase in women's perceived instrumentality of the product is translated into an increase of the odds by about 11%. The higher women's PPI score, the higher the probability that the household be an owner of a multifunction processor.
- c- The third variable to enter the equation is women's Work Status. The odds for working-women families are about two times greater than that for non-working women families. This means that women's employment is translated into an increase of the odds by about 100%. So, women's employment increases the probability of ownership of the multifunction processor by the family.
- d- The fourth variable to enter the equation is hired help. The odds for families who resort to hired help are more than two times greater than those for families who do not resort to hired help (2.10). This means that families who resort to hired help have a higher probability of ownership of the multifunction processor than families who do not resort to hired help.

The Dish-washer (Model C2 in Table 15-2)

In this case, variables related to men and to women as well as to the household as a whole are significantly related to the probability of ownership. Nine variables enter the equation. In comparison with the two previous models, the dishwasher model reveals that there is a significantly greater number of variables that enter the equation and that there are significant interactive variables effects upon the ownership dependent variable. In the pressure-cooker and the multifunction processor model, only four variables enter the equation. In the dishwasher case, the socio-economic variables that have the major contributions to the ownership probability are home-ownership, hired help, women's education, and men's income.

- a- *Home-ownership*. Families that own their homes have an odds ratio that is almost 4.6 times greater than families who do not own their homes. This means that families who own their homes have a higher probability of ownership of the dish-washer than families who do not own their homes.

- b- *Hired help*. The odds ratio for families who resort to hired help is 3.5 greater than that for families who do not resort to hired help. This means that families who use hired help have a much higher probability of ownership of the multifunction processor than families who do not use hired help.
- c- *Women's Education*. The odds ratio for families with women who attain one-level-higher education is about 1.6 times greater than that for their one level-lower counterparts. In other words, a one-level increase in women's educational attainment increases the odds ratio by about 60%. This means that families with women attaining one-level-higher education have a higher probability of ownership of the dish-washer than families with women attaining lower levels of education.
- d- *Men's Income*. The odds for higher income men's families are 2.11 times greater than those for one level-lower-income men's families. In other words, a one-level increase in men's income increases the odds ratio by more than 110%. This means that families with men earning one-level-higher income have a higher probability of ownership of the dish-washer than families with men earning lower-level incomes.

The role orientations variables that contribute to the ownership probability are women's role ideology, women's perceived instrumentality, men's role overload, men's RP*PPI interaction and men's RI*RP*PPI interaction. RP*PPI correlates positively with probability of ownership, whereas for RI*RP*PPI, the opposite effect is observed.

- a- *Women's Role Ideology*. The odds ratios for the women's RI are 1.23. This means that a unit increase in women's RI score is translated into an increase of the odds by 23%. In other words, the more the women's orientation towards egalitarianism, the higher the probability that the household be an owner of a dishwasher.
- b- *Women's Perceived Product Instrumentality*. The odds ratios are 1.11. This means that a unit increase in women's perceived instrumentality of the product (here the dishwasher) is translated into an increase of the odds by about 11%. The higher women's PPI score, the higher the probability that the household be an owner of a dishwasher.

- c- *Men's Role Overload*. The odds ratios for men's RO are 1.12. This means that a unit increase in men's RO score is translated into an increase of the odds by about 12%. The more men feel overload, the higher the probability that the household be an owner of a dishwasher.
- d- *Men's Role Performance by Perceived Product Instrumentality Interaction*. The odds ratios for the men's RP*PPI interaction are about 1.08. This means that a unit increase in men's RP*PPI interaction is translated into an increase of the odds by about 8%. In other words men who are relatively involved in the dish-washing activity tend to have high PPI scores. Similarly, those with low involvement scores tend to have low perceived instrumentality for the product. The correlation between RP and PPI is positively significant at $\alpha = .05$. In both cases, the RP*PPI product is positive. On average, the higher men's involvement in home-chore activities (here, dish-washing), the higher the perceived instrumentality of the dishwasher, the higher the probability that the family be classified as an owner of the dish-washer. The regression of the independent variables without interaction terms using the enter method against the ownership dependent variable reveals that the men's PPI and the men's RP variables are positively but insignificantly related to the dependent ownership variable (see Appendix 15-E). From the R statistic,³ evidence is given to the fact that the correlations of these variables with the probability of ownership are null (see Appendix 15-E). It is only when RP interacts with PPI that contribution is made to the ownership variable.
- e- *Men's Role Ideology by Role Performance by Perceived Product Instrumentality*. The odds ratio for the men's RI*RP*PPI interaction is about 0.995. The impact of the change in the X variables upon Y is hypothesised to be positive. If this is true, this means that the more the actor's ideology gears towards egalitarianism, the more he is involved in dish-washing, the more the perceived dishwasher instrumentality, the higher the probability that the family be an owner of a dishwasher. However, instead of a positive relationship, the 3-factor interaction term is negative. This means that a unit increase in men's RI*RP*PPI interaction decreases the odds ratio by less than 1%. Because of the positive significant RP*PPI interaction discussed above, and the negative trend in the RI relationship

with ownership (see Appendix 15-E), the three-factor interaction results in a negative contribution. It is interesting to note that, in a regression of the individual variables and the two-way interaction terms using the enter method, the RI*PPI interaction for men tends to be positively, but insignificantly, related to the probability of ownership. The correlation of this interaction with the probability of ownership is however null (see Appendix 15-F). While the correlation of RI with the probability of ownership is null, the correlation of PPI with the probability of ownership is significant (at α level = .1). The model in Appendix 15-F has better goodness of fit indices than the stepwise model (-2LL= 78.549; GF=186.658 versus -2LL=91.300 ; GF=189.732), but is not deemed appropriate because of the numerous redundancies in the predictor variables.

LOGISTIC REGRESSION DIAGNOSTICS

The diagnostics for logistic regression are analogues of common methods used for normal theory regression. In normal theory regression, some of the standard diagnostic statistics are the residuals, standardised, the standardised predicted residuals, Cook's distances, and so on. Unlike ANOVA-type log-linear models, for 0-1 data the residuals are not asymptotically normal, so the usual residual analysis is not appropriate.⁶ Hence, the diagnostics here will focus on goodness of fit assessment, without concern about the detection of outliers.

One way of assessing the goodness of fit of the model is to examine how likely the sample results actually are, given the parameter estimates. (Recall that we chose parameter estimates that would make our observed results as likely as possible). The probability of the observed results, given the parameter estimates, is known as the *Likelihood*. Since the likelihood is a number smaller than one, it is customary to use -2 times the log of the likelihood (-2LL). If a model fits perfectly, the likelihood is 1, and -2 times the log likelihood is 0 (Christenson 1990, p. 150). So the smaller these numbers, the better the fit. These statistics are given in the bottom of Tables 15-1, 15-2, and 15-3 presented above. Another measure of how well the model fits is the *goodness-of-fit statistic*, which compares the observed probabilities to those predicted by the model.⁷ These are also provided in the bottom of the tables mentioned above. Again, the smaller these numbers, the better the fit.

The classification table is another way of assessing goodness of fit. It compares the predictions to the observed outcomes. For the above predictions, the classification tables are given in Appendix 12-G. The diagonal entries of the table counts how many families were correctly classified. In the case of the pressure-cooker, 5 families who do not own the product were correctly predicted by the model not to have the product. 349 families who own the product were correctly predicted by the model to be owners of the product. The off-diagonal entries of the table counts how many families were incorrectly classified. In this case, out of the 44 families. 43 families who do not own the product were incorrectly predicted by the model to be owners of the product and 1 family who owns the product was incorrectly predicted by the model not to be an owner of the product. Of the families who do not own the product, only 10.42% were correctly classified. Of the families who own the product, 99.71% were correctly classified as such. This gives an average proportion of classification of about 88.94%.

In the case of the processor, 162 families who do not own the product were correctly predicted not to have the product. 110 families who own the product were correctly predicted to be owners of the product. The off-diagonal entries give how many families were incorrectly classified. In this case, out of 127 families, 56 families who do not own the product were incorrectly predicted by the model to be owners of the product and 71 families who own the product were incorrectly predicted not to be owners of the product. Of the families who do not own the product, 74.31% were correctly classified. Of the families who own the product, 60.77% were correctly classified as such. This gives an average proportion of correct classification of 68.17%.

In the case of the dishwasher, 375 families who do not own the product were correctly predicted by the model not to have the product. 6 families who own the product were correctly predicted by the model to be owners of the product. The off-diagonal entries of the table tell us how many families were incorrectly classified. In this case, they were 16 families classified as follows. 2 families who do not own the product were incorrectly predicted by the model to be owners of the product. 14 families who own the product were incorrectly predicted by the model not to be owners of the product. Of the families who do not own the product, 30.00% were

correctly classified. Of the families who own the product, 99.47% were correctly classified as such. This gives an average proportion of correct classification of about 95.97%.

However, the use of the classification table as diagnostic tool of logistic regression results has some limitations. It does not reveal the distribution of estimated probabilities for cases in the two groups. For each predicted group, the table shows only whether the estimated probability is greater or less than .5. For example, we cannot tell from the classification table in Appendix 15-G whether the 71 families in the multi-function model who had false negative results had predicted probabilities near 50% or much lower. As a matter of fact, in this model, the proportion of correct classification was 68.67% when only 3 variables were entered. When the fourth variable enters the equation, it drops to 68.17%. Hence, the classification rate should not be used as the only criterion for evaluating goodness of fit. It should be considered in light of other criteria such as -2LL and Goodness of Fit (GF). For example, -2LL is 467.351 before the fourth variable enters the equation. Then, it drops to 458.998. The GF statistic passes from 387.115 to 383.595. This means that the four-variable model represents a better fit to the data despite a lower correct classification rate.

DISCUSSION

The above logistic regression findings reveal that the impact of socio-demographics upon TSES product ownership is unstable across products, and varies for men and women. Relationships that are worth commenting on are in order.

Hired Help

Hired help is proposed as an explanatory factor for its relevance with the role orientations conceptualisations. It may be used as a means of alleviating time-pressures and of adapting to multiple role obligations (Stronberg and Weinberg 1983). So far, its relationship with TSES product ownership has not been investigated in the literature. Two alternative hypotheses about the impact of hired help upon TSES product ownership can be formulated : (1) services of TSES durable goods and household labour are substitutes (Bryant 1988). Consequently, households resorting to hired help are less likely to own TSES products; (2) services of TSES durable goods and household labour are complements. Consequently, households

resorting to hired help are more likely to own TSES products. Hypothesis two is verified for the multifunction and the dishwasher models. The use of hired help and the ownership of TSES products are complements not substitutes.

Home Ownership

Home-ownership was found in the literature to be correlated with the purchase of such goods as washing machines, dryers, and so on (Bellante and Foster 1984). Dickson et al (1980) and Stroberg and Weinberg (1983) provided support for the existence of differences in the priority patterns of TSES products acquisition between home owners and non-owners. In this project, it is significant only in the case of the dish-washer model. It enters fourth the equation in the forward stepwise logistic regression. It is significant neither for the pressure cooker, nor for the multifunction processor model. This may indicate that home-ownership has predictability in case of big ticket items, but not in case of small ticket items. This may be explained by the fact that families who do not own their homes tend to refrain from buying a dishwasher. It is a bulky item and one prefers not to own it when he knows that he will have to move with it sooner or later.

Work Status

Most consumer behaviour researchers introduced women's work status, but rarely men's, as a predictor of household purchasing behaviour (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983, Nickols and Fox 1983, Bellante and Foster 1984). Wives' employment was found to be unstable in its relationship with TSES product ownership. It appears to have no significant impact on the purchase of TSES durables in general (Bellante and Foster 1984), and on the purchase of a dishwasher in particular (Stroberg and Weinberg 1980). In this project, it is significant only for the case of the multifunction processor prediction model. To a large extent, this corroborates the findings that expenditure patterns of households were converging regardless of the wife's work status; the wives' work status was not a useful or practical predictor of ownership (Bellante and Foster 1984 ; Oropesa 1993; Schaninger et al 1993; Stroberg and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983). Men's work status is significant in none of the above models. This may be attributed to the fact that the variation in men's work status is already accounted for

by the variation in men's income which is consistently and significantly related to the dependent ownership variable.

Income

Men's and women's incomes were found to be significantly related to TSES product ownership in previous research (Reilly 1982). In this project, men's income enters all three models. It enters first in the dishwasher and in the multifunction processor model, and third in the pressure-cooker model. However, women's income enters none of the equations. It is significant in none of the three models. This contradicts previous findings about the wife's income contribution to the family's total income and its impact upon durables ownership (Reilly 1982). Previous researchers used rather relative contribution to the family income, rather than women's income per se.

Education

Previous researchers proposed women's education, but not men's, as a predictor of TSES product ownership. Women's education was found to be significantly related to probability of time-saving durables ownership (Bellante and Foster 1984). In this project, it is significant in the case of the pressure-cooker and the dishwasher models. On the one hand, this may imply that higher educational attainment for women may be reflective of open-mindedness and receptivity to new technology. On the other hand, education is considered as a resource brought by women into the marriage. From this standpoint, women with greater resources may alleviate the pressures of homemaking by using TSES products and services to perform homemaking tasks (Schaninger et al 1993; Bellante and Foster 1984). As for men's education, it is proposed as an eventual predictor of TSES product ownership, but enters none of the equations in the present project. Again, this may be attributed to the fact that the variation in men's education is already accounted for by the variation in men's income, which is consistently and significantly related to the dependent ownership variable.

Role Orientations

None of the role orientations variables is significant, except for men's Role Overload which approaches significance as an individual variable in the dishwasher model (See Model C2 in Table 15-2). This is coherent with previous findings about

the relative power of Role Overload in predicting time-saving durables ownership (Reilly 1983). But Reilly ascertained its predictability for women, not for men. This again may underline the RO relevance for major but not for minor durables. As for RI and RP, they enter none of the equations as individual variables. Nonetheless, men's RI and RP enter the dishwasher model as interactions with PPI. Technically, this corroborates previous findings about the predictive power of the trait interaction in comparison with the trait by trait method (Sparks and Tucker 1971).

Perceived Product Instrumentality

The PPI variable, which is proposed to enhance understanding and predictability, enters all equations. The women's PPI enters first in the pressure-cooker model, second in the multi-function processor model, and third in the dishwasher model. The men's PPI enters last in the pressure-cooker model as an individual variable, and last in the dish-washer model as a two and as a three interactive term. Men's PPI enhances the predictive power of socio-demographics as well. It accounts for a relatively significant proportion of variance in TSES product ownership.⁸ For example, in the case of the dishwasher model, the men's RI*RP*PPI enhances predictability by about 2.2% (Adj.R² increases from .388 without the 3-factor interaction term to .410 with the 3-factor term). In relating the two-factor RP*PPI interaction term to its higher order three-factor interaction term RI*RP*PPI, it is noticeable that the RP*PPI relationship is valid for the whole sample when the effect of RI is held constant. But when Role Ideology is taken into account, i.e. when it is allowed to interact with RP*PPI, the effect of RI*RP*PPI becomes negative. While RP is positively related to Y, RI is negatively related to Y (See Appendix 15-E). In reference to role orientations, this may be an instance of the role attitude-behaviour discrepancy phenomenon where attitudes and behaviour patterns are found to go into different directions (Araji 1977; Hall 1987; Hood 1986).

Attitude-Behaviour Discrepancy

According to previous sociological research, there are persistent discrepancies between prescriptive beliefs about role enactment and behaviour proper (Hall 1987; Hood 1986). Now, according to Hall (1987), when discrepancies between role attitude and role behaviour occur, role behaviour will tend to correspond to traditional role patterns. Attitudes and behaviour may be moving in the

direction of egalitarianism but behaviour does not always correspond with these attitudes. However, according to Scanzoni (1977) and Davis and Robinson (1983), women press for equal partnership in the division of domestic labour. According to Berardo et al (1987), some men feel the pressures to offer their working wives active support in the form of reduced household responsibilities. Man's participation is conditioned by the demands placed upon him by the women's attitudes and needs (Barnett and Baruch 1987; Walker 1989). So, the more power wives have in marriage, the more housework their husbands do irrespective of role ideology. It seems that when behaviour and attitude are incongruent, behaviour adapts more easily to changes than attitude.

For the sample in hand, it seems that men grudgingly accept to give a hand in home-chores (here in dish-washing) without having the appropriate beliefs in such an involvement (role ideology). Whether there has been a « liberalisation » of role definition or « democratization » of role enactment depends upon the specific role or attitude which is considered (Scanzoni 1977). The reader is reminded that while PPI is a situation-specific scale, RI is rather a general scale. So it is possible that the $RI \cdot RP \cdot PPI$ impact is different when other home-chore activities and the perceived instrumentality of the products involved are measured. Take the case of cleaning, men may be reluctant to involve in such an activity. So, their low involvement in cleaning and their orientation towards traditionalism may interact with PPI to impact TSES product ownership differently. These findings are in fact illustrative of the types of differences in family purchasing patterns across products as well as across cultures.

In conclusion, socio-demographics are necessary but not sufficient for TSES product ownership prediction. The relationship between socio-demographics, role orientations, and TSES product ownership are not the same for major and for minor durables. The proportions of variation accounted for by the model are 12% for the pressure-cooker, 16% for the multifunction processor, and 42% for the dishwasher model (See Table 15-1 above). Presumably, the model does an adequate job of explaining major durables acquisition, and to a lesser degree minor durables'. This may be an indication of the fact that the specified model works better for big-ticket than for small-ticket items. This does not mean that the model is only valid for major

durables prediction. Major and minor durables have not only demographic determinants in common (e.g. man's income), but also orientations as well (e.g. woman's PPI). It is tentative to conclude that the proposed framework hinging around role concepts has more relevance to high than to low involvement products.

The fact that income is significantly related to the dependent ownership variable for husbands but not for wives, and that education and work status are significantly related to the dependent ownership variable for wives but not for husbands may be an indication that socio-demographics may work differently for wives and husbands. This finding is congruent with Steil and Weltman (1990) who found that education and job status work differently for husbands and wives. To a large extent, the women's PPI parallels the men's income in predicting TSES durables ownership. This may imply that the main determinants of the families' TSES ownership are the women's attitudes towards them (PPI) and the men's capacity to acquire them (Income). The first represents the goodwill while the second represents the means to acquire them. The fact that the men's PPI shows up as a significant variable related to the probability of TSES product ownership means that TSES product evaluation shall no longer be considered as women's domain only. The consideration of men as integral part of the ownership decision is necessary.

However, some variables (e.g. man's and woman's age, number of children) seem to be irrelevant for both major and minor durables prediction ; they enter none of the above equations. As a matter of fact, a stepwise linear model regressing TSES (=number of TSES products owned-ranging from 0 to 22) against the same men's and women's variables (without interactions) reveal that only socio-demographics are significantly related to the number of TSES products owned (see Appendix 15-H). None of the men's nor the women's role orientations variables are significantly related to the dependent TSES ownership variable. These findings lend support to the conclusion that the theoretical framework is relevant for TSES product prediction, irrespective of whether these are major or minor durables. However, product specific configurations are revealed and significant relationships are unveiled because situation-specific variables such as PPI are proposed. Thus PPI is believed to enhance understanding of the dynamics of ownership of TSES durables.

NOTES

1- The relevance of the logistic regression comes from the fact that ownership can be apprehended and the probability of the event (here, ownership) can be a function and dichotomous and continuous variables. The terms log and logistic regression as applied to models, are essentially two names for the same idea. Technically, the terms logit and logistic are names for transformations. The logit transformation takes a number p between 0 and 1 and transforms it to $\log[p/(1-p)]$. The logistic transformation takes a number z on the real line and transforms it to $(e^z/1+e^z)$. The logit and the logistic transformations are inverse of each other. In other words, the logistic transformation applied to $\log[p/(1-p)]$ gives p and the transformation applied to $(e^z/1+e^z)$ gives z (Christenson 1990, p.233). Examining odds really amounts to a re-scaling of a measure of uncertainty. Probabilities between zero and one half correspond to odds between zero and one. Probabilities between one half and one correspond to odds between one and infinity. Examining the log of the odds is another convenient way of re-scaling. Probabilities between zero and one half correspond to log odds between minus infinity and zero. Probabilities between one half and one correspond to log odds between zero and infinity. The log odds is symmetric about zero just as probabilities are symmetric about one half. One unit above zero is comparable to one unit below zero.

2. **Forward** stepwise variable selection proceeds the same way as in stepwise multiple linear regression. One starts out with a model that contains only the constant term from the model. At each step, the variable with the smallest significance level for the Wald Statistic, provided it is less than the chosen cutoff value (by default 0.05), is entered into the model. All variables in the forward stepwise block that have been entered are then examined to eventually meet removal criteria. If the Wald Statistic is used for deleting variables, the Wald Statistics for all variables in the model are examined and the variable with the largest significance level for the Wald statistic, provided it exceeds the chosen cut-off value (by default 0.1), is removed from the model. If no variables meet removal criteria, the next eligible variable is entered into the model. If selection results in a model that has already been considered, variable selection stops (SPSS Advanced Statistics, Version 7, 1994). **Backward** stepwise elimination starts with all of the variables in the model. Then at each step, variables are entered then evaluated for eventual removal. The score statistic (Wald in this case) is used as a criterion for variable removal.

3. The **R statistic** is used to look at the partial correlation between the dependent variable and each of the independent variables. R can range from -1 to +1. A positive value indicates that as the variables increases in value, so does the likelihood of the event occurring. If R is negative, the opposite is true. Small values for R indicate that the variable has a small partial contribution to the model.

The equation for R is,

$$R = \mp \sqrt{((WaldStatistic - 2K) / -2LL_0)}$$

where K is the degree of freedom for the variable. The denominator is -2 times the log likelihood of a base model that contains only the intercept. The sign of the corresponding coefficient is attached to R . The value of $2K$ is an adjustment for the number of parameters to be estimated. If the Wald statistic is less than $2K$, R is set to 0 (SPSS Advanced Statistics, version 7, 1994).

4. **R^2** measures, in linear models, the proportion of the total variation accounted for by the explanatory variables. In loglinear models, G^2 plays a role similar to that of SSE in regression. If X_0 indicates the smallest interesting model and X indicates the loglinear model of interest, define R^2 in a loglinear model: $R^2 = [(G^2(x_0) - G^2(x)) / G^2(x_0)]$ where $G^2(x)$ and $G^2(x_0)$ are the likelihood test statistics for testing models X and X_0 against the saturated model. If X_0 is the smallest saturated model, then $G^2(x_0)$ is a measure of the total variability in the data. (It tests against a model that fits the data perfectly.) It follows that $G^2(x_0) - G^2(x)$ measures the variability of the X model. R^2 is the proportion of variability explained by the X model. As in regression, R^2 cannot be used to compare models that have different numbers of degrees of freedom. In regression analysis, this is caused by the fact that larger models have larger R^2 s. Exactly the same phenomenon occurs with log-linear models. In fact, R^2 for the saturated model will always equal 1 because G^2 for the saturated model is zero. Hence, the **Adjusted R^2** is needed. Having defined R^2 for log-linear models, the same adjustment for model size used in regression analysis can be used for loglinear models. The adjusted R^2 is

$$Adj. R^2 = 1 - [(q-r_0)/(q-r)](1-R^2)$$

where q is the number of cells in the table and r and r_0 are the degrees of freedom for testing X and X_0 . Note that there are $(q-r)$ degrees of freedom for testing X against the saturated model and $(q-r_0)$ for testing X_0 (Christenson 1990, p. 150). Following this formula, Adj. R^2 's are calculated for the above logistic models (with q = number of observations ; $r_0=1$, i.e., base model that contains only the intercept ; r = number of predictors in the corresponding model).

5. Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC). Akaike proposed a criterion of the information contained in a statistical model. He advocated choosing the model that maximizes this information. For loglinear models, maximizing Akaike's information criterion (AIC) amounts to choosing the model X that minimizes

$$A_x = G^2(X) - (q-2r)$$

where $G^2(X)$ is the likelihood ratio test statistic for testing the X model against the saturated model, r is the number of degrees of freedom for the X model, and there are q degrees of freedom for the saturated model, i.e., the number of cells in the table. Given a list of models to be compared along with their G^2 statistics and the degrees of freedom for the tests, a slight modification of A_x is easier to compute by hand,

$$A_x - q = G^2(X) - 2(q-r) \\ = G^2(X) - 2(\text{test degrees of freedom})$$

Because q does not depend on the model X , minimizing $A_x - q$ is equivalent to minimizing A_x (Christenson 1990, p. 151).

6. The diagnostics for logistic regression are analogues of common methods used for normal theory regression. In normal theory regression, some of the standard diagnostic statistics are the residuals, standardized (studentized), standardized predicted residuals (t residuals), Cook's distances and the leverages. A primary use of residuals is in detecting outliers. However, for data consisting of 0's and 1's, the detection of outliers presents some unusual problems. When there are only two outcomes, it is difficult to claim that seeing either of them constitutes an outlier. If we have two outcomes, it is difficult to claim that seeing either of them constitutes an outlier. If we have too many 0's and 1's in situations where we would not expect them (e.g., too many 1's in situations that we think have a small probability of yielding a 1), then we have a problem which is best thought of as a lack of fit. With 0-1 data, reasonable observations can have unusually large residuals. Another use for residuals is in checking normality. For log linear models, this can be thought of as checking how well the asymptotic theory holds. Unlike ANOVA-type log-linear models, for 0-1 data the residuals are not asymptotically normal, so again the usual residual analysis is not appropriate. All in all, the residuals (and modified residuals) do not seem very useful in and of themselves (Christenson 1990, p. 150).

7. The goodness of fit statistic is defined as

$$Z^2 = \sum \frac{\text{Residual}_i^2}{P_i(1-P_i)}$$

Where the residual is the difference between the observed value Y_i and the predicted value, P_i . (SPSS, Version 7, 1994).

8. In order to assess the predictive power of interactive terms in the dishwasher model, I propose to calculate R^2 and Adj. R^2 on the basis of the formula given in note 4 above. Then, I can appreciate the degree to which such variables add predictive power to individual variables (see table below). Notice that adding the 2-factor interaction term increases predictability by about 2% (.395-.377=.018) while adding the the 2-factor and the 3-factor interaction term increases predictability by about 5% (.424-.377=.047). Dropping the 3-factor term will hamper predictability by 3% (.424-.395=.029).

Statistic	Model A	Model B	Model C	Model D
-2LL (G2)	158,503	98,762	95,866	91,300
R ²		.377 ^a	.395 ^b	.424 ^c
Adj. R ²		.325 ^d	.383 ^e	.410 ^f

Notes.

Model A : base model (i.e., model with constant only

Model B : model with individual variables only

Model C : model with the 2-factor interaction term

Model D : with the 2 and the 3-factor interaction term

a/.377 = (158,503-98,762)/158,503

b/.395 = (158,503-95,866)/158,503

c/.424 = (158,503-91,300)/158,503

d/.325 = 1-[(397-1)/(397-8)](1-.377)

e/.383 = 1-[(397-1)/(397-9)](1-.395)

f/.410 = 1-[(397-1)/(397-10)](1-.424)

APPENDIX 15-A : Dichotomous Independent Variables Distribution**hired help**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	318	66,3	66,5	66,5
	yes	160	33,3	33,5	100,0
	Total	478	99,6	100,0	
Missing	System Missing	2	,4		
	Total	2	,4		
Total		480	100,0		

woman working status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	nonworking	269	56,0	58,4	58,4
	working	192	40,0	41,6	100,0
	Total	461	96,0	100,0	
Missing	System Missing	19	4,0		
	Total	19	4,0		
Total		480	100,0		

homeownership

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	95	19,8	19,8	19,8
	yes	385	80,2	80,2	100,0
	Total	480	100,0	100,0	
Total		480	100,0		

category of men job

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	not high	270	56,3	56,3	56,3
	high	210	43,8	43,8	100,0
	Total	480	100,0	100,0	
Total		480	100,0		

APPENDIX 15-B : Ownership Variables Distribution**dishwasher**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid no	458	95,4	95,4	95,4
yes	22	4,6	4,6	100,0
Total	480	100,0	100,0	
Total	480	100,0		

pressure/cooker

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid no	62	12,9	12,9	12,9
yes	418	87,1	87,1	100,0
Total	480	100,0	100,0	
Total	480	100,0		

multifunction

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid no	264	55,0	55,0	55,0
yes	216	45,0	45,0	100,0
Total	480	100,0	100,0	
Total	480	100,0		

Appendix 15-C: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
CHILDREN	480	7,00	,00	7,00	2,6875	1,4814	2,194	,219	,111	-,057	,222
age of man	478	7,00	1,00	8,00	5,6674	1,8085	3,271	-,220	,112	-,128	,223
maneduc	475	7,00	1,00	8,00	4,9074	1,7777	3,160	-,126	,112	-,497	,224
manincom	473	7,00	2,00	9,00	4,9810	1,6017	2,565	,214	,112	-,451	,224
manideol	473	16,00	4,00	20,00	7,3784	3,1229	9,753	1,045	,112	1,277	,224
wom ideol	474	13,00	4,00	17,00	7,9135	3,0952	9,580	,587	,112	-,235	,224
S5ROWOM	465	20,00	5,00	25,00	18,2559	5,1784	26,816	-,771	,113	-,183	,226
S5ROMEN	465	20,00	5,00	25,00	16,8946	5,3811	28,957	-,372	,113	-,747	,226
S6PPI1M	467	24,00	6,00	30,00	20,1884	7,7997	60,836	-,400	,113	-,196	,225
S6PPI1W	465	24,00	6,00	30,00	25,3849	5,8891	34,681	-,1708	,113	2,483	,226
S6PPI2M	461	24,00	6,00	30,00	17,5835	7,9597	63,357	,024	,114	-,1329	,227
S6PPI2W	467	24,00	6,00	30,00	21,7987	7,8241	61,217	-,730	,113	-,775	,225
S6PPI3M	465	24,00	6,00	30,00	19,7527	7,4256	55,139	-,312	,113	-,125	,226
S6PPI3W	464	24,00	6,00	30,00	24,3254	6,2299	38,812	-,1320	,113	,934	,226
man involv cooking	478	4,00	1,00	5,00	1,2385	,5472	,299	2,613	,112	8,012	,223
wom involv cooking	478	4,00	1,00	5,00	4,7615	,5472	,299	-,2,613	,112	8,012	,223
man involvdish	478	4,00	1,00	5,00	1,3222	,6284	,395	2,120	,112	4,786	,223
woman involvdish	478	4,00	1,00	5,00	4,6778	,6284	,395	-,2,120	,112	4,786	,223
man's involv break	479	4,00	1,00	5,00	1,6701	1,1052	1,222	1,642	,112	1,748	,223
woman's involvdish	479	4,00	1,00	5,00	4,3299	1,1052	1,222	-,1,642	,112	1,748	,223
womage	478	7,00	1,00	8,00	4,4958	1,8618	3,466	,107	,112	-,851	,223
womeduc	478	7,00	1,00	8,00	4,0816	1,7850	3,186	-,079	,112	-,485	,223
womincom	192	7,00	1,00	8,00	4,9938	1,3773	1,897	,413	,175	,130	,349

APPENDIX 15-D : Structural Equations Path Coefficients Ratios for the Process Sub-model

Relationship	Pressure-cooker	Dish-washer	Multifunction
RP→PPI			
Men	-0.975	-0.732	-2.227
Women	0.198	1.091	1.404
Both	-10.547	-7.252	-9.656
RO→PPI			
Men	2.911	1.473	1.897
Women	2.737	2.066	0.495
Both	4.081	2.679	2.438
RI→PPI			
Men	-1.689	-2.826	0.084
Women	0.738	1.213	2.297
Both	-1.010	-1.597	0.228

APPENDIX 15-E**Logistic Regression without Interactions Using the Enter Method
(The Dishwasher)**

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig	R	Exp(B)
CHILDREN	-,2278	,3011	,5725	1	,4493	,0000	,7963
HELPUSE	,9930	,7299	1,8507	1	,1737	,0000	2,6992
HOMEOWN	1,7121	,8811	3,7761	1	,0520	,1059	5,5408
CATMJOB	-,7300	,8175	,7975	1	,3718	,0000	,4819
MENAGE	,3491	,3322	1,1043	1	,2933	,0000	1,4177
MENEDUC	,0662	,2777	,0568	1	,8117	,0000	1,0684
MENINCOME	,8214	,2779	8,7381	1	,0031	,2062	2,2736
JOBCLAS	,3307	1,2573	,0692	1	,7925	,0000	1,3920
WOMAGE	-,0542	,3068	,0312	1	,8597	,0000	,9472
WOMEDUC	,4651	,3237	2,0641	1	,1508	,0201	1,5922
WOMINCOME	,1784	,2875	,3850	1	,5349	,0000	1,1953
S6PPI2MEN	,0409	,0473	,7494	1	,3867	,0000	1,0418
S6PPI2WOM	,1990	,0731	7,4053	1	,0065	,1847	1,2202
ROLEIDMEN	-,1729	,1260	1,8824	1	,1701	,0000	,8413
ROLEIDWOM	,1934	,1002	3,7270	1	,0535	,1044	1,2133
S5ROMEN	,1530	,0773	3,9214	1	,0477	,1101	1,1653
S5ROWOM	-,0526	,0643	,6700	1	,4131	,0000	,9488
RPERFMEN	,4664	,4369	1,1399	1	,2857	,0000	1,5943
Constant	-22,5349	4,8337	21,7350	1	,000		

Note. Variables that are significantly related to ownership are highlighted.

APPENDIX 15-F
Logistic Regression with 2-Factor Interactions Using the Enter Method
(The Dishwasher)

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig	R	Exp (B)
CHILDREN	-,0992	,3583	,0766	1	,7820	,0000	,9056
HELPUSE	1,4425	,8450	2,9140	1	,0878	,0759	4,2314
HOMEOWN	2,1525	1,0668	4,0710	1	,0436	,1143	8,6065
CATMJOB	-1,1628	,9539	1,4860	1	,2228	,0000	,3126
MENAGE	,3743	,4051	,8538	1	,3555	,0000	1,4539
MENEDUC	,2107	,3165	,4431	1	,5056	,0000	1,2345
MENSAL	,9377	,3542	7,0095	1	,0081	,1778	2,5542
JOBCLAS	1,6301	1,4552	1,2548	1	,2626	,0000	5,1046
WOMAGE	,1186	,3724	,1014	1	,7501	,0000	1,1259
WOMEDUC	,6717	,4026	2,7837	1	,0952	,0703	1,9577
WOMSAL	-,2003	,3458	,3354	1	,5625	,0000	,8185
S6PPI2M	-,4084	,2269	3,2413	1	,0718	-,0885	,6647
S6PPI2W	1,5419	,7010	4,8377	1	,0278	,1338	4,6733
ROLEIDM	-,3002	,4182	,5152	1	,4729	,0000	,7407
ROLEIDW	1,1132	,5703	3,8102	1	,0509	,1069	3,0439
S5ROMEN	-,1284	,2090	,3775	1	,5389	,0000	,8795
S5ROWOM	1,0699	,5376	3,9604	1	,0466	,1112	2,9152
RPERFME	-1,9705	2,4161	,6651	1	,4148	,0000	,1394
ROLEIDM*S6PPI2M	,0026	,0170	,0233	1	,8788	,0000	1,0026
S5ROMEN*S6PPI2M	,0159	,0096	2,7772	1	,0956	,0700	1,0160
S6PPI2M*RPERFME	,0840	,0862	,9495	1	,3298	,0000	1,0876
ROLEIDW*S6PPI2W	-,0295	,0199	2,2014	1	,1379	-,0356	,9709
S5ROWOM*S6PPI2W	-,0440	,0201	4,7920	1	,0286	-,1327	,9569
S6PPI2W*RPERFWO	-,0296	,0826	,1280	1	,7205	,0000	,9709
Constant	-48,9334	19,0353	6,6083	1	,0102		

Note. Variables that are significantly related to ownership are highlighted.

Appendix 15-G : Ownership Classification Tables

a - Classification Table for pressure-cooker							
		Predicted					
		no		yes		Percent Correct	
		n	I	y			
Observed		+-----+-----+					
no	n	I	5	I	43	I	10,42%
		+-----+-----+					
yes	y	I	1	I	349	I	99,71%
		+-----+-----+					
Overall							88,94%

Overall 88,94%

b - Classification Table for multifunction

		Predicted				Percent Correct
		no		yes		
		n	I	y		
Observed		+-----+-----+				
no	n	I	162	I	56	I 74,31%
		+-----+-----+				
yes	y	I	71	I	110	I 60,77%
		+-----+-----+				
Overall						68,17%

Overall 95,97%

c - Classification Table for dishwasher						
		Predicted				Percent Correct
		no		yes		
		n	I	y		
Observed		+-----+-----+				
no	n	I	375	I	2	I 99,47%
		+-----+-----+				
yes	y	I	14	I	6	I 30,00%
		+-----+-----+				
Overall						95,97%

Appendix 14-H : Multiple Regression Analysis Results
Model Summary^{a,b}

Model	Variables		R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
	Entered	Removed				
1	salary of man ^c	.	,544	,296	,295	3,7344
2	hired help ^d	.	,583	,340	,337	3,6205
3	education of woman ^e	.	,610	,373	,369	3,5331
4	age of man	.	,620	,385	,380	3,5023
5	age of man ^{f,g}	.	,620	,385	,380	3,5023

- a. Dependent Variable: ALLTSES
- b. Method: Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= ,050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= ,100).
- c. Independent Variables: (Constant), salary of man
- d. Independent Variables: (Constant), salary of man, hired help
- e. Independent Variables: (Constant), salary of man, hired help, education of woman
- f. Independent Variables: (Constant), salary of man, hired help, education of woman, age of man
- g. Probability of F-to-enter = ,050 limits reached.

N.B. In this model, the number of TSES durables owned by the family is regressed against socio-demographics and role orientations. Some of the former variables are significant. None of the latter ones is significant.

Chapter 16

Conclusions, Implications, Limitations, and Further Research Agenda

Conclusions, Implications, Limitations, and Research Agenda

This research provides a theory for modelling the relationships between role orientations and family purchasing behaviour. By taking the case of time-saving and effort-sparing (TSES) products and by apprehending spouses as consumers and actors at the same time, a comprehensive model is constructed in terms of input, process, and outcome. Input consists of socioeconomic characteristics of the household and output consists of product ownership, purchasing influence strategies, and purchasing role configurations. For the process components, the model magnifies the role orientations into role ideology (RI), role overload, (RO) and role performance (RP). The inclusion of RP, along with RI, is meant to reach beyond role attitudes and investigate actual role behaviour. The model also proposes a new perceptual and attitudinal construct: Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI). PPI accounts for consumption experiences that help facilitate role performance, reinforce identity and warrant compatibility with self-perception. Built from an interdisciplinary perspective, the proposed model hinging around the pivotal PPI construct is believed to enrich our understanding of family purchasing and to account for differences among families in TSES product ownership, purchasing role configurations, and purchasing influence strategies use.

In order to attain the model testing phase, various methodologies were utilized and several intermediate steps were taken. On the one hand focus-interviews were used in order to assess the theoretical relevance for the Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI) construct, and generate substantive items for its measurement. Four groups of household members were selected (three groups of women and one group of men). Content analyses of the interviews confirm the assumption that possessions, particularly time-saving and effort-sparing (TSES) durables, are appreciated for their utilitarian, interpersonal, pleasure, and identity values. These values which echo Richins (1994a) theory about product meaning are proposed to be the main facets of PPI. Then, on the basis of typical statements made by the participants and on previous literature, a 33-item scale is proposed to serve as an initial instrument for PPI measurement. Exploratory survey research was used for unidimensionality assessment and for the reduction of the PPI scale to a manageable

size. Four identical lists of the 33 items scale, each corresponding to one durable, are administered to a convenience sample of 46 respondents (16 men and 30 women). The item reduction process guided by preliminary principal axis factoring and reliability analyses resulted in a scale of 15-items. This scale was proposed as an operationalization for the PPI construct of the family purchasing model.

In order to constitute a data bank for model testing, a large scale survey was conducted among 480 families within a modern urban Tunisian middle class context. As a preliminary step, reliability analyses and purifications of the role orientation and the PPI variables were undertaken via latent structure modelling. This step resulted in the reduction of the Role Ideology scale from 7 to 4 items, of the Role Overload scale, from 13 to 5 items, and of the PPI scale from 15 to 6 items. The reduced scales are then integrated into a system's framework. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the adequacy of the sub-model measurement scales and structural path coefficients of the RI, RO, and RP relationships with PPI were calculated. The sub-model parts were found to be interrelated in such a way that excluding any one may distort the whole.

Finally, ownership of three TSES products by the household was predicted on the basis of the household's characteristics (number of children, hired-help use, home-ownership), the men's and the women's socio-demographics (education, income, employment status, and age) role orientations (Role Ideology, Role Overload, Role Performance and Perceived Product Instrumentality) via logistic regression. On the whole results confirm the assumption that adding the role orientations and the PPI variables for men and particularly for women enhances the predictability of the socio-demographic variables for household TSES product ownership prediction.

The relationship of socio-demographics and role orientations with TSES product ownership are found to be different for men and women. The fact that income is significantly related to the dependent ownership variable for husbands but not for wives, and that education is significantly related to the dependent ownership variable for wives but not for husbands is an indication that socio-demographics may work differently for wives and husbands (Steil and Weltman 1991). To a large extent, the women's PPI parallels the men's income in predicting TSES durables ownership.

This may imply that the main determinants of the families' TSES ownership are the women's attitudes towards them (PPI) and the men's capacity to acquire them (Income). One is tempted to assert that, at least in the context where the research is conducted, TSES product acquisition may be reflective of somewhat stereotypical roles distributions between women and men. This assertion is reminiscent of Hempel's (1974) theory of expressive versus instrumental role distribution. Nonetheless, the fact that the men's perceived product instrumentality shows up as a significant variable related to the probability of TSES product ownership means that TSES product evaluation shall no longer be considered as women's domain only. Men shall also be considered as an integral part of the TSES product ownership decision.

The relationship of socio-demographics and role orientations with TSES product ownership are found to be different for major and for minor durables. The proportions of variation in TSES product ownership accounted for by the global model are 12% for the pressure-cooker, 14% for the multifunction processor, and 42% for the dishwasher model. Hence, the model is believed to do an adequate job in explaining ownership of major durables and to a lesser degree of minor durables. A tentative conclusion is that the proposed framework has more relevance to the high than to the low involvement TSES products.

IMPLICATIONS OF ROLE-BASED CONSUMER RESEARCH

Because of the centrality of the PPI component in the model, implication of the PPI construct is emphasized in terms of theory and practice. I contend that PPI has theoretical implications because it can unify several previous theories of consumer behaviour. It has practical implications because it can help marketers select the right informants in data collection, find clues for market segmentation and targeting, and adapt communication strategies to target audiences.

Theoretical Implications

The purpose of theories is to explain and predict phenomena in a comprehensive way (Hunt 1983). The model with the central PPI component is meant to provide further explanation and prediction for the complex family purchasing and decision behaviours. PPI is comprehensive in that it aptly combines earlier consumer behaviour theories, and may thus represent an advance over

previous conceptualizations in the field. The PPI construct is generalizable to products other than durables and contains ramifications with previous sociological theories as well.

The PPI Comprehensiveness. PPI is a perceptual construct that is proposed to moderate the impact of socio-demographics such as employment status, income, education., on product ownership and decision behaviour. Taking the specific case of time-saving and effort-sparing (TSES) products, PPI conveys the main idea that a product is owned or used to facilitate role enactment, help the incumbent reduce overload and better the quality of role performance provided it helps elevate a position, reinforce an identity, and enhance an image (Sentis and Markus 1986; Solomon 1983; Richins 1994a). « The more comprehensive a theory is, the more it unifies phenomena by revealing apparently different things to be special cases of the same kind of thing » (Hunt 1983, p.11). PPI is deemed comprehensive, because the different categories of meaning and the different classes of buying motives it encompasses are reminiscent of other important conceptualizations in the consumer behaviour literature: buying as problem solving and need satisfaction processes, consumer involvement, and the self-concept theory.

From the perspective of buying as *problem solving*, a product is appreciated because it solves the consumer's problems. The more problems a product solves, the more accurately these problems are solved, the stronger its appeal to the consumer. The seriousness of the problem to be solved affects the attractiveness of the product, hence its perceived instrumentality. The more a product is capable of solving problems of adaptations to multiple role obligations, the more its perceived instrumentality. Consumers, apprehended as role players may be very sensitive to the time-saving and effort-sparing (TSES) qualities of products, because these products help them cope with multiple roles.

From the perspective of buying as a process of *need satisfaction*, a TSES product is appreciated because it satisfies the individual's needs to save time, spare effort, and reduce overload in order to cope with multiple roles. A TSES product may satisfy the individual's needs for higher skills in role enactment, better quality in task accomplishment, more evidence in role identity, more symbols for image

enhancement. The more a product is perceived as satisfying this range of needs, the more its perceived instrumentality.

From the *consumer involvement perspective*, most of consumer motivators alluded to as sources of meaning (Richins 1994a) were previously referred to as sources of consumer involvement (Laurent and Kapferer 1985) or as functional tangible versus symbolic intangible attributes (Hirshman and Holbrook 1982 ; Holbrook and Hirshman 1982). According to Laurent and Kapferer, knowing only that the individual is or is not involved gives rather a static description of consumers, but knowing the sources of involvement gives a dynamic picture of consumers. It follows from the product meaning, the rational/symbolic motives, and the involvement conceptualizations that products may have different meaning configurations or motive mixes or still, instrumentality profiles. Consequently, and on the basis of the above theories, no single facet of instrumentality alone catches the richness of the relationship between a consumer, apprehended as a role actor, and a TSES product.

From the *self-concept theory perspective*, the individual strives to buy products which are believed to express a desired image or to convey a good impression. Nonetheless , while appealing to some rational motive, products may be at odds with an emotional motive (Belk et al. 1982; Buskirk and Buskirk 1992). Products may solve problems in terms of time and effort , but may deprive the consumers of the pleasure of exercising imagination or performing skills. Concurrent with these views, a product will be appreciated only when it is perceived as congruent with the individual's self-concept and with his/her salient identity (Gentry et al. 1995; Sentis and Markus 1983; Solomon 1983). The more the product is congruent with the self-concept, the more it reinforces an identity the more its perceived instrumentality. In this perspective, PPI is reminiscent of a landmark study on instant coffee which discovered that such a purchase is deemed incongruent with the woman's concept of herself as a diligent homemaker and a good cook because people prefer maintaining the status-quo to jeopardizing the self-concept (Buskirk and Buskirk 1992). Hence a product which is supposed to be rationally helpful will be selected, preferred or used only if it is perceived as an efficient means of

enhancing the performance of a role, reinforcing a salient identity, extending a role skill, or giving an impression that the role actor wishes to convey.

If products are perceived as instrumental because they satisfy a need (rational or emotional), have meaning (private or public), solve problems (practical or symbolic), and are congruent with the self-concept (identity value), then the more a product is deemed capable of satisfying this range of motives, the more it is invested with meaning, and the more its perceived instrumentality. PPI will thus account for differences among consumers having more or less similar objective characteristics but different decision-making processes, consumption priorities and preferences. As a moderator variable, it will contribute, for instance, to discriminate between product owners and non-owners or users and non-users. These may have more or less the same employment status but different instrumentality profiles vis-à-vis a particular TSES product. For instance, a working woman may experience role overload and still does not buy or use a TSES product for the reason that she does not perceive it as instrumental in meeting her role obligations. The product may objectively represent a helpful device for her as a worker but may be perceived as incompatible with her self image as a diligent mother or a good housewife.

Model and PPI Generalisability. The proposed model is applicable to TSES products in the durable goods category ; it can also be applicable to TSES consumer goods and services. The role orientations and the PPI variables can possibly be generalisable to such products as frozen, canned, precooked, or take-away foods as well as to such services as nurseries, day-care schools, etc. In a word, the model may be applicable to any product identifiable as role-based, time-saving and effort-sparing. It may be that the framework is more relevant for high-involvement than for low involvement products. The fact that the PPI construct as well as the other role orientation constructs are validated as summated rating scales as opposed to weighted factor scores represents a benefit for generalisability and transferability.¹

Ramifications with Sociological Theories. Previous consumer investigations about family purchasing processes and role patterns revealed a predominance of product-specific influence distribution (Davis 1970) and a tendency towards role specialization with women concentrating on social and expressive roles and men concentrating on financial and instrumental roles (Hempel 1974). Then, sociological

research substantiated, to an extent, Scanzoni's (1977) role interchangeability theory and revealed a decline in traditionalism and domestic specialisation (Maret and Finlay 1984 ; McBroom 1987). Recalling that findings about role configuration dated back to the 1970-1975 period, and those about role interchangeability to the late 1970's, questioning some of the well established conceptualizations of family purchasing behaviour is warranted.

Consumer behaviour research findings about purchasing role distribution were tautological with sociological findings about role and household responsibility distribution. Husband-wife influence distribution was found to be product-specific or area-bound (Davis 1970 ; Hempel 1974) because typical family role distribution reflects men's and women's involvement in the provider and in the homemaker roles respectively. The social/expressive versus the financial/instrumental categorization of family purchasing roles (Hempel) is stereotypical because it results from a stereotypical role distribution, with women enacting household labor and men holding bread-winning responsibility.

According to Rosen and Granbois (1983), research about family role structure was useful in explaining the « end product » of family decision making but revealed nothing about the dynamics involved in defining purchasing objectives and in distributing roles among family members. On this basis, influence distribution will no longer be product specific nor area-bound. It will reflect spousal interests, time constraints and arrangements rather than explicit authority structures or established standard operating procedures for role distribution and decision making. Relative roles of spouses will be dependent on the contextual factors governing the couple, such as women's career involvement, husbands' and wives' time availability, and so on. These factors are likely to be idiosyncratic and family-specific not product-specific or area-bound. Two decades ago, Douglas and Wind (1978) confirmed that most families do not have clear-cut, consistent patterns of authority across different areas, and argued that investigation of authority across different areas should first be conducted relative to specific areas of family life, rather developing overall authority measures aggregating across areas.

Theoretically, different settings may substantiate either extensive or limited role interchangeability. In either case, the expressive/social versus the

financial/instrumental purchasing role distribution will be questioned. Even in the case of limited role interchangeability (i.e., men not involved in housekeeping role to the same extent as their wives are involved in the provider role enactment), the expressive versus the instrumental roles will still be questioned because the instrumental/financial roles will no longer be the domain of men alone. As a result of their increasing involvement in the work place, women may play financial/instrumental roles by taking control over previously men-controlled areas. This will lead women to be more influential in previously men-controlled areas, and eventually men to be more influential in previously women-controlled areas. Hence, relative influence throughout the purchasing process for instance will be directly linked with particular home-chore tasks that will reflect negotiated marital arrangements, rather than established stereotypical role configurations.²

If products are conceived as problem-solvers, need satisfiers, as well as facilitators of role performance, and if family purchasing and decision behaviour, particularly those related to TSES products, be put in the context of broader spousal role arrangement, distribution and enactment, product instrumentality will be ascertained. PPI, reflecting the rational, the emotional and the identity consumer values (Richins 1994a) is deeply rooted in family role orientations and marital arrangements. The shift in consumer research from the investigation of certain forms of dominance (Davis 1970; Hempel 1974) to the exploration of interpersonal dynamics (Cox III 1975; Burns and Granbois 1977; Park 1982; Corfman and Lehmann 1987; Menasco and Curry 1989) paved the way for the consideration of role orientations as important interactive processes that are operant in TSES family purchasing and decision making behaviour.

Practical Implications

Knowledge about family purchasing of TSES products and about decision-making processes as well as the role orientations underlying them would be beneficial for marketers in obtaining valid data about family preferences, intentions, or behaviours and persuading the appropriate decision-maker (Davis 1970). This knowledge can be helpful for market information and communication as well as for market segmentation and targeting relative to TSES product marketing.

Market Information and Data Collection. By understanding who does what in the buying process and by investigating both spouses' roles orientations, market data collection will no longer be based on stereotypical assumptions about men's and women's roles. For instance in settings where role interchangeability is substantiated (Scanzoni 1977; Maret and Finlay 1984; McBroom 1987), the 'financial/instrumental' versus the 'social/expressive' purchasing role distribution (Hempel 1974) may no longer be valid. This will lead market researchers and consultants to consider the involvement of previously non-involved informants in the choice of consumer panels (e.g. men in focus groups about diapers and dishwashers, women in in-depth interviews about office equipment and car-maintenance services).

Marketing Communication and Persuasion. Information about role orientations can help marketers adopt marketing strategies and select more effective communication appeals emphasizing such subjective intangible phenomena as identity and self-concept, rather than appeals emphasizing objective tangible attributes of products such as time-saving and effort-sparing. For example, if a certain TSES product is deemed uninstrumental because of its perceived incompatibility with the consumer's self-concept as a caring mother or diligent homemaker, marketers can develop persuasive communication strategies and sales speeches that induce positive attitudes towards it and combat reluctance so as to demonstrate its congruence with the image that the consumer wishes to convey and the identity that s/he wants to preserve. Marketers can mold the product into an image that fits the perceived role expectations and provides congruence between product image and self-image (Belk et al. 1982; Gentry et al. 1995; Schewe 1973).

Market Segmentation and Targeting. The model may serve segmentation and targeting purposes for companies that sell TSES products. Instead of limiting the investigation to the impact of such demographics as income or women's employment status, the role orientations and the PPI constructs can be assessed so as to explain variation in ownership and understand motivation behind families' TSES product acquisition and decision behaviour. For instance, TSES marketers can use such variables as ownership (owners versus non-owners), income level (high versus low), and eventually PPI (high versus low perceived instrumentality) for segmentation

purposes. Hence respondents with high income and high PPI score will constitute hot prospects for selling, say, a dishwasher, and they will thus constitute the prime targets for TSES products marketers.

LIMITATIONS

The limitations lie in the fact that the survey is of the one-shot study type and that it does not involve man-woman interactive processes. In addition to that, some measurement issues deserve attention.

One-Shot Study

In principle, the dependent variables can be measured either each on a given sample, or by use of the same respondents for subsequent administration of one dependent variable each at a time. For instance, product ownership is assessed on a first shot, influence strategies on a second, and purchasing configuration on a third. The latter approach has the advantage of re-administering little pieces to the same respondents while big ones are stored in a data base. Modifications in consumption choices may be equated with one or the other spouse's TSES preferences and be indicative of his/her relative influence in purchasing decisions. For the project in hand, empirical validation of the model was undertaken in a single shot.

Man-Woman Interaction

The study does not investigate the impact of man-woman interaction on TSES purchasing and decision behaviour. For instance, some studies have found that woman's attitudes have an impact on man's involvement in home-chores (Hood 1986; Hall 1987; Walker 1989). Man-woman interaction is an important dimension to investigate, but the present study is only concerned with interactions of variables at the individual level. Man-woman interactions may best be approached via experimental design or participant observation.

Measurement Issues

Several measurement issues deserve attention. The measurement of employment status and income falls short of the ideal. For employment, several researchers used schemes that outperformed the simple dichotomies of employed versus unemployed and high versus low status (Schaninger and Allen 1981; Schaninger et al 1993). For income, the 1-8 scale used for both men and women is meant to be non-gender specific. But because about one half of the women

respondents were non-working, many cases had a value of one on the 8-item scale. This penalizes variation and may be a reason why women's income is found to be significant in none of the three tested models.

FURTHER RESEARCH AGENDA

The present research findings provide some clues about the debate on the relationship between women's working status and durables ownership (Oropesa 1993; Reilly 1982; Rubin et al. 1990; Stroberg and Weinberg 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1990). They also open up two important research avenues: the measurement of the impact of the input and the process variables on other dependent variables and the validation of the proposed model in various cultural contexts.

Other Output Variables

Because of time-and delivery constraints, the purchasing role configuration (PRC) and the influence strategies use (PIS) dependent variables have not been investigated. The theoretical development of the model underlines, nonetheless, the relevance of the proposed role orientations system's framework to PRC and PIS. In future projects, PRC can be investigated by taking a sub-sample of cases that happened to purchase a major durable recently and by assessing men's and women's relative influence throughout the purchasing process (Davis 1970 ; Hempell 1974). PIS can be investigated by drawing on real spousal purchasing conflicts relative to specific TSES products, and by assessing the actual strategies adopted by spouses to solve such conflicts.³

Cross-Cultural Validation

The above model draws on theories generated in contexts different from the one in which model testing has been conducted. The context of the investigation and the investigator himself cannot be value-free.⁴ Comparative studies are recommended for ascertaining the applicability of the model in similar as well as different cultural contexts and for pinpointing respondents' specificity. For instance, because of the differences between contexts in egalitarianism, role interchangeability, and home-chore roles distribution, variations in role performance will be more evident, and variability in PPI will be more apparent. Presumably, comparative studies will confirm the same mechanics of the model but may reveal different scales patterns or items salience between respondents from developed and developing countries. For

Main Appendices

Chapter 12 Appendices

Appendix A: Focus-Group Interview Contents

Appendix B: Original Version of Questionnaire

Appendix C: Arabic Version of Questionnaire

Amos Latent Structure Modelling Output

instance, the probability that TSES products help role incumbents attend to other activities may be higher for the former than for the latter. The variations in balancing social, work and family identities may explain such differences.

NOTES

1. According to Glaser and Strauss (1969). Since for generating a theory we are only looking for general relationships of direction - a positive or negative relation between concepts- and not precise measurement of each person in the study or exact magnitude of relationships- it is easier, faster, and considerably more economical to use the crude index. Even when crude indices result in obvious misclassification of some cases, they still yield the information necessary for generating a grounded theory. Crude indices of categories or properties can also be based on either a single questionnaire item or a series of items summated into an index... If the index does not work, then the analyst should question the theoretical relevance of his concept before he questions the method of index formation. (p. 191-3). According to Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998, p. 116-7), in comparison with other types of score aggregation, « a summated rating scale provides two specific benefits. First, it provides a means of overcoming to some extent the measurement error inherent in all measured variables. A second benefit of the summated scale is its ability to represent the multiple aspects of a concept in a single measure ».
2. According to feminist theory, the separation of functions is biased against women and is based upon « the idea that man was made in God's image and woman was made to be a companion for man... We now have a separation of functions backed by a theory of mind. Given an already existing situation of sexual inequality, reason - the godlike, the spark of the divine in man-is assigned to the man. The emotions, the imagination, the sensuous are assigned to women. They are to provide comfort, relief, entertainment and solace for the austerity that being a Man of Reason demands. .. Different training was given to men and women to fit them for different life styles » (Lloyd 1996, p. 155).
3. This can be done via tape-recorded couple discussion contents on the basis of which influence strategies use can be ascertained or by eliciting men's and women's responses on a battery of Likert-type measurement items tapping assertive versus passive influence strategies (Scanzoni 1977), coercive versus reward strategies (Scanzoni and Polonko 1980), or negotiation versus concession modes of conflict resolution (Qualls 1983, 1987). Real life situations are however preferable to hypothetical ones.
4. Concerning the context, one should acknowledge that « 'facts' are always infused with values, and that both facts and values are open to ongoing critical debate. It would be necessary to demonstrate the innocence of descriptions (their derivation from pure data) and to show the perfect congruence of descriptions with 'the described' in order to argue that descriptive theories have no normative force... Only the most starkly positivistic epistemology merged with the instrumental rationality it presupposes could presume the inquirers are accountable to the evidence. Evidence is *selected*, not found.». Concerning the investigator himself, « the phenomenon of the disinterested inquirer is the exception rather than the rule (p.205)... Knowledge, as the tradition defines, is *of* objects ; only by assimilating people to objects can one hope to know them. This long standing assumption is challenged by my claim that knowing other people is an exemplary kind of knowing, and that subjectivity must always be taken into account in making and assessing knowledge claims of any complexity (Lloyd 1996, p. 155). As a matter of fact, there are instances in the present research that reflect the researcher's identity. When the relationship between role ideology and role performance was investigated, the fact that high egalitarianism is expected to be equated with high role involvement implies that the researcher is a man. If the researcher were a woman, the expected relationship could have been hypothesized in the opposite direction whereby orientation towards egalitarianism will reduce, rather than enhance, involvement in home-chore activities. It is only when the data revealed a consistently negative relationship for the women sub-sample and a consistently positive relationship for the men sub-sample throughout the three latent structure models that the researcher resorted to the role theory in order to give meaning to the results (Araji 1977; Hall 1987; Hood 1986).

APPENDIX 12-1

HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

(a=someone living with the family, b= relative living with the family,
c= homeownership, d= dwelling status)

a/ +-----+-----+-----+				
someone living	!	!	!	!
! with the family		Count		Col %
+-----+-----+-----+				
yes		64		13,3%
no		399		83,1%
missing		17		3,5%
+-----+-----+-----+				
b/ +-----+-----+-----+				
relative living	!	!	!	!
! with family		Count		Col %
+-----+-----+-----+				
father/mother		47		78,3%
brother/sister		11		18,3%
somebody else		2		3,3%
+-----+-----+-----+				
c/ +-----+-----+-----+				
Home ownership		Count		Col %
+-----+-----+-----+				
villa or villa level		363		75,8%
apartment		69		14,4%
old dwelling		43		9,0%
other		4		,8%
+-----+-----+-----+				
d/ +-----+-----+-----+				
dwelling status		Count		Col %
+-----+-----+-----+				
own their home		385		80,2%
rent their home		83		17,3%
gratuitous		12		2,5%
+-----+-----+-----+				

APPENDIX 12-2

HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

(a=hired help use, b= hired help frequency,
c= key informant, d= sample distribution by region)

a/			
hired help	Count	Col %	
yes	160	33,5%	
no	318	66,5%	
b/			
hired help frequency	Count	Col %	
daily	35	22,6%	
weekly	63	40,6%	
once a fortnight	20	12,9%	
monthly	37	23,9%	
c/			
key informant	Count	Col %	
husband	76	16,3%	
wife	245	52,7%	
husband and wife	144	31,0%	
d/			
region	Count	Col %	
Tunis&sub	114	23,8%	
CapBon	41	8,5%	
SousseMon	88	18,3%	
Sfax	114	23,8%	
Kairouan	17	3,5%	
Beja/jend	106	22,1%	

APPENDIX 12-3A

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY REGION AND WOMEN'S WORKING STATUS

region							
	Tunis & Suburb		Cap-Bon		Sousse&Monastir		
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	
nonworking	50	45,5%	24	63,2%	50	60,2%	
working	60	54,5%	14	36,8%	33	39,8%	
region							
	Sfax		Kairouan		Béja&Jendouba		Total
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count Col %
nonworking	79	71,8%	7	41,2%	59	57,3%	269 58,4%
working	31	28,2%	10	58,8%	44	42,7%	192 41,6%

APPENDIX 12-3B

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY MEN'S AND WOMEN'S PROFESSIONAL STATUS

job of woman				job of man			
	Count	%		Count	%		
administrator, higher							
professional/business owner	24	5,0%		127	26,6%		
key executive, lower							
professional/business owner	80	16,8%		83	17,4%		
middle level executive,							
blue collar job,							
tradesmen	51	10,7%		85	17,8%		
worker	24	5,0%		63	13,2%		
salesmen	13	2,7%		74	15,5%		
student	3	,6%		1	,2%		
housewife/homechores	269	56,4%		1	,2%		
unemployed	2	,4%		3	,6%		
other unemployed	11	2,3%		40	8,4%		
Total	477	100,0%		477	100,0%		

APPENDIX 12-3C

DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING WOMEN FAMILIES
BY PROFESSIONAL STATUS

job of woman			
	Count	%	
administrator, higher professional/business owner	24	12,5%	
key executive, lower professional/business owner	80	41,7%	
middle level executive, blue collar job, tradesmen	51	26,6%	
worker	24	12,5%	
salesmen	13	6,8%	
Total	192	100,0%	

APPENDIX 12-3D

DISTRIBUTION OF MEN'S AND WOMEN'S INCOME BY CATEGORY

	woman's income		man's income	
	Count	%	Count	%
200 dinars and less	37	16,7%	25	5,3%
201-300 dinars	44	19,9%	62	13,1%
301-400 dinars	71	32,1%	106	22,4%
401-500 dinars	43	19,5%	106	22,4%
501-750 dinars	15	6,8%	91	19,2%
751-1000 dinars	8	3,6%	51	10,8%
1001-2000 dinars	3	1,4%	25	5,3%
2001 dinars and more			7	1,5%
Total	221	100,0%	473	100,0%

Note. The number of women having a monthly income (221) is greater than the number of working women (192) because there are some women (about 30) who have income from resources other than wages.

APPENDIX 12-3E

DISTRIBUTION OF MEN'S AND WOMEN'S AGE

	age of women		age of men	
	Count	%	Count	%
24 and less	19	4,0%	1	,2%
25-29	56	11,7%	12	2,5%
30-34	87	18,2%	57	11,9%
35-39	82	17,2%	77	16,1%
40-44	84	17,6%	72	15,1%
45-49	71	14,9%	74	15,5%
50-54	49	10,3%	79	16,5%
55 and more	30	6,3%	106	22,2%
Total	478	100,0%	478	100,0%

APPENDIX 12-3F

DISTRIBUTION OF MEN'S AND WOMEN'S EDUCATION

	education of woman		education of man	
	Count	%	Count	%
none	60	12,6%	19	4,0%
some primary school	37	7,7%	27	5,7%
all primary school				
completed	55	11,5%	39	8,2%
some secondary school				
completed	126	26,4%	122	25,7%
all secondary school				
completed	107	22,4%	100	21,1%
two university years				
completed	51	10,7%	60	12,6%
four university years				
completed	29	6,1%	71	14,9%
more than four				
university years				
completed	13	2,7%	37	7,8%
Total	478	100,0%	475	100,0%

APPENDIX 12-A1
WOMEN'S AND MEN'S SCORES ON THE RI 7-ITEMS SCALE

The Role Ideology Scale	Women			Men		
	Mean	Std Deviation		Mean	Std Deviation	
item#1	1.56	1.05		1.50	1.04	
item#2	2.53	1.59		2.33	1.54	
item#3 ***	2.70	1.68		3.38	1.69	
item#4 ***	1.61	1.03		2.20	1.35	
item#5 ***	2.25	1.52		1.99	1.38	
item#6	2.64	1.64		2.74	1.60	
item#7	1.56	1.02		1.55	.97	
Note1. Significance levels for differences (two-tailed tests)						
* p < .10						
** p < .05						
*** p < .01						

Note2. The Role Ideology Scale

- 1- A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.
- 2- A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife.
- 3- It should not bother the husband if a wife's job sometimes requires her to be outside the home overnight.
- 4- If his wife works full time, a husband should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing.
- 5- If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job.
- 6- A working mother can establish just as good a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.
- 7- Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and children.

APPENDIX 12-A2
WORKING AND NONWORKING WOMEN'S SCORES ON THE RI SCALE

t	absolute value	woman working status				Group Total (461)
		nonworking (269)	Mean	Std Deviation	working (192)	
		Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean
item #1	** 2.12	1.48	1.02	1.69	1.10	1.57
item #2	*** 3.18	2.31	1.50	2.78	1.65	2.51
item #3	* 1.84	2.83	1.70	2.54	1.64	2.71
item #4	1.62	1.01	1.01	1.58	1.07	1.60
item #5	*** 4.40	1.99	1.39	2.61	1.60	2.25
item #6	*** 6.46	3.04	1.68	2.08	1.43	2.64
item #7		1.49	.93	1.60	1.09	1.54

Note1. Significance levels for differences (two-tailed tests): * $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$
Note2. Group total (461) means and standard deviations which are calculated for working (192) and nonworking (269) women are slightly different from those of all women (480) because missing cases (19) are included in the former but not in the latter analysis.

APPENDIX 12-A3
WORKING AND NONWORKING WOMEN'S SCORES ON THE TWO RI DIMENSIONS SCALE

	woman working status				Group Total
	nonworking	Mean	Std Dev	working	
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	Mean
woman's perception of *					
man's and woman's role	7.27	2.82	8.70	3.27	7.87
woman's attitude towards					3.10
woman's labor particip**	7.50	2.97	6.20	2.74	6.96
					2.94

* The smaller the score, the more traditional the attitude.
** The larger the score, the more traditional the attitude.

APPENDIX 12-A4
WOMEN'S SCORES ON THE TWO DIMENSIONS OF THE RI SCALE BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	category of woman education						Group Total	
	low	medium	high	Mean	Std Dev		Mean	Std Dev
woman's perception of man's and woman's role	6.84	8.13	9.18	8.09	3.18		7.92	3.09
woman's attitude towards woman's labor particip	7.62	6.87	6.04	2.85	2.70		6.95	2.92

APPENDIX 12-A5
MEN'S SCORES ON THE TWO DIMENSIONS OF THE RI SCALE BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	category of man education						Group Total	
	low	medium	high	Mean	Std Dev		Mean	Std Dev
man's perception of man's and woman's role	6.52	7.12	8.10	2.63	3.37		7.37	3.12
man's attitude towards woman's labor particip	8.67	8.56	7.83	3.56	3.08		8.32	3.35

APPENDIX 12-A6
WOMEN'S SCORES ON THE TWO DIMENSIONS OF THE RI SCALE BY AGE CATEGORY

	category of woman age							
	young				old			
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
woman's perception of man's and woman's role	8.56	3.14	7.58	3.01	7.48	2.99	7.90	3.09
woman's attitude towards woman's labor particip	6.64	2.77	7.01	2.95	7.40	3.10	6.95	2.92

APPENDIX 12-A7
MEN'S SCORES ON THE TWO DIMENSIONS OF THE RI SCALE BY AGE CATEGORY

	age category of man							
	young				old			
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
man's perception of man's and woman's role	7.91	2.99	7.58	3.41	6.93	2.74	7.38	3.12
man's attitude towards woman's labor particip	8.46	3.06	8.42	3.31	8.11	3.54	8.31	3.36

APPENDIX 12-A8

WOMEN'S SCORES ON THE TWO DIMENSIONS OF THE RI SCALE BY FAMILY INCOME LEVEL

	family income level					
	1=low		2=medium		3=high	
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
woman's perception of man's and woman's role	7.16	2.79	8.40	3.24	8.97	3.02
woman's attitude towards woman's labor particip	7.34	2.81	6.81	2.97	6.14	3.03
					7.95	3.10
					6.94	2.93

APPENDIX 12-A9

MEN'S SCORES ON THE TWO DIMENSIONS OF THE RI SCALE BY INCOME LEVEL

	income level of man					
	low		medium		high	
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
man's perception of man's and woman's role	6.79	2.67	7.39	3.19	8.08	3.20
man's attitude towards woman's labor particip	8.95	3.00	8.03	3.45	8.51	3.35
					7.41	3.12
					8.28	3.37

APPENDIX 12-B1 WOMEN'S AND MEN'S SCORES ON THE ROLE OVERLOAD SCALE

	Women			Men		
	The Role Scale	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation	
item#1 ***		1.71	1.13	2.11	1.32	
item#2		2.14	1.28	2.31	1.38	
item#3 **		2.24	1.38	2.48	1.42	
item#4		3.38	1.44	3.33	1.46	
item#5 *		2.82	1.46	3.03	1.50	
item#6		2.39	1.33	2.45	1.32	
item#7 *		1.90	1.24	2.11	1.26	
item#8 ***		2.53	1.39	2.96	1.44	
item#9 ***		2.31	1.46	2.67	1.49	
item#10 ***		2.67	1.47	3.02	1.46	
item#11		2.87	1.53	2.97	1.51	
item#12 ***		2.93	1.54	3.36	1.49	
item#13 ***		2.85	1.50	3.21	1.51	

Note1. Significance levels for differences (two-tailed tests)

* p < .10

** p < .05

*** p < .01

Note2. The Role Overload Scale is made of the following items :

- 1- I have to do things which I don't really have the time and energy for.
- 2- There are too many demands on my time.
- 4- I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me.
- 5- I don't ever seem to have any time for myself.
- 6- There are times when I cannot meet every one's expectations.
- 7- Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day.
- 8- Many times I have to cancel commitments.
- 9- I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.
- 10- I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the other wives (husbands) I know.
- 11- I find myself having to prepare priority lists (lists which tell me which things I should do first) to get done all the things I have to do. Otherwise I forget because I have so much to do.
- 12- I feel I have to do things hastily and may be less carefully in order to get everything done.
- 13- I just can't find the energy in me to do all the things expected of me.

APPENDIX 12-B2

WORKING AND NONWORKING WOMEN'S SCORES ON THE ROLE OVERLOAD SCALE

The Role Overload Scale	woman working status					
	nonworking (n= 269)			working (n=192)		
	Mean	Std Deviation		Mean	Std Deviation	
item #1	1.78	1.19		1.61	1.04	1.71
item #2 ***	2.35	1.38		1.85	1.08	2.14
item #3 ***	2.42	1.43		1.97	1.27	2.23
item #4 *	3.54	1.40		3.18	1.48	3.39
item #5	2.92	1.45		2.74	1.49	2.85
item #6 *	2.53	1.35		2.19	1.28	2.39
item #7 **	2.00	1.29		1.74	1.15	1.89
item #8	2.59	1.37		2.45	1.42	2.53
item #9	2.40	1.48		2.21	1.42	2.32
item #10 ***	2.89	1.47		2.37	1.44	2.67
item #11 ***	3.12	1.50		2.50	1.52	2.86
item #12 *	3.07	1.54		2.71	1.55	2.92
item #13	2.85	1.49		2.80	1.54	2.83

Significance levels for differences in (one-tailed tests)

* p < .10
** p < .05
*** p < .01

APPENDIX 12-B3

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY OVERLOAD AND BY SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

Woman's Overload	woman working status				Total			
	nonworking		working					
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %				
unloaded	131	48,7%	66	34,4%	197	42,7%		
loaded	138	51,3%	126	65,6%	264	57,3%		
Man's Overload	category of man education							
	low		medium		high			
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
unloaded	33	38,8%	105	47,3%	93	55,4%	231	48,6%
loaded	52	61,2%	117	52,7%	75	44,6%	244	51,4%
woman's overload	category of woman education							
	low		medium		high			
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
unloaded	67	44,1%	98	42,1%	40	43,0%	205	42,9%
loaded	85	55,9%	135	57,9%	53	57,0%	273	57,1%
Woman's Overload	category of woman age							
	young		mature		old			
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
unloaded	70	43,2%	96	40,5%	38	48,1%	204	42,7%
loaded	92	56,8%	141	59,5%	41	51,9%	274	57,3%

APPENDIX 12-3

(CONTINUED)

Man's Overload	category of man age						Total					
	young		mature		old							
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
unloaded	32	45,7%	106	47,5%	95	51,4%	233	48,7%				
loaded	38	54,3%	117	52,5%	90	48,6%	245	51,3%				
Woman's Overload	income category of woman						Total					
	low		medium		high							
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
unloaded	154	46,0%	46	35,7%	4	36,4%	204	42,9%				
loaded	181	54,0%	83	64,3%	7	63,6%	271	57,1%				
Woman's Overload	income category of family						Total					
	1,00		2,00		3,00							
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
unloaded	91	46,2%	81	38,6%	31	49,2%	203	43,2%				
loaded	106	53,8%	129	61,4%	32	50,8%	267	56,8%				

APPENDIX 12-D1
HOUSEHOLD ROLES PERFORMANCE BY WOMEN'S WORKING STATUS

	woman working status		Total	
	nonworking	working	Count	Col %
	Count	Count	Count	Col %
washing clothes				
husband dominant		2	2	.4%
shared	3	8	11	2.4%
wife dominant	266	182	448	97.2%
cooking meals				
husband dominant		2	2	.4%
shared	3	13	16	3.5%
wife dominant	265	176	441	96.1%
washing the dishes				
husband dominant	1	3	4	.9%
shared	2	22	24	5.2%
wife dominant	266	165	431	93.9%
preparing breakfast				
husband dominant	15	25	40	8.7%
shared	17	33	50	10.8%
wife dominant	237	134	371	80.5%
shopping				
husband dominant	78	43	121	26.4%
shared	79	75	154	33.6%
wife dominant	111	73	184	40.1%
cleaning the house				
husband dominant		1	1	.2%
shared	4	12	16	3.5%
wife dominant	265	178	443	96.3%

APPENDIX 12-D2

HOUSEHOLD ROLES PERFORMANCE BY FAMILY INCOME LEVEL

	family income level						Total
	1= low		2= medium		3= high		
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	
washing clothes							
husband dominant			2	1.0%			2 .4%
shared	4	2.0%	4	1.9%	4	6.3%	12 2.6%
wife dominant	193	98.0%	203	97.1%	59	93.7%	455 97.0%
cooking meals							
husband dominant			2	1.0%			2 .4%
shared	4	2.0%	11	5.3%	4	6.5%	19 4.1%
wife dominant	193	98.0%	196	93.8%	58	93.5%	447 95.5%
washing the dishes							
husband dominant	1	.5%	3	1.4%			4 .9%
shared	3	1.5%	14	6.7%	9	14.3%	26 5.6%
wife dominant	192	98.0%	192	91.9%	54	85.7%	438 93.6%
preparing breakfast							
husband dominant	7	3.6%	26	12.4%	9	14.3%	42 9.0%
shared	12	6.1%	32	15.3%	6	9.5%	50 10.7%
wife dominant	178	90.4%	151	72.2%	48	76.2%	377 80.4%
shopping							
husband dominant	66	33.7%	45	21.5%	10	15.9%	121 25.9%
shared	51	26.0%	77	36.8%	28	44.4%	156 33.3%
wife dominant	79	40.3%	87	41.6%	25	39.7%	191 40.8%
cleaning the house							
husband dominant			1	.5%			1 .2%
shared	4	2.0%	11	5.3%	1	1.6%	16 3.4%
wife dominant	193	98.0%	197	94.3%	62	98.4%	452 96.4%

APPENDIX 12-D3
HOUSEHOLD ROLES PERFORMANCE BY WOMEN'S INCOME LEVEL

	income level of women						Total
	1= low		2= medium		3= high		
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	
washing clothes							
husband dominant			2	1.6%			2
shared	4	1.2%	8	6.2%			12
wife dominant	330	98.8%	119	92.2%	11	100.0%	460
cooking meals							
husband dominant			2	1.6%			2
shared	8	2.4%	10	7.8%	1	10.0%	19
wife dominant	327	97.6%	116	90.6%	9	90.0%	452
washing the dishes							
husband dominant	1	.3%	3	2.3%			4
shared	8	2.4%	17	13.3%	1	9.1%	26
wife dominant	325	97.3%	108	84.4%	10	90.9%	443
preparing breakfast							
husband dominant	23	6.9%	18	14.0%	1	9.1%	42
shared	23	6.9%	26	20.2%	1	9.1%	50
wife dominant	288	86.2%	85	65.9%	9	81.8%	382
shopping							
husband dominant	94	28.2%	28	21.7%	1	9.1%	123
shared	99	29.7%	55	42.6%	4	36.4%	158
wife dominant	140	42.0%	46	35.7%	6	54.5%	192
cleaning the house							
husband dominant			1	.8%			1
shared	7	2.1%	9	7.0%			16
wife dominant	328	97.9%	118	92.2%	11	100.0%	457

APPENDIX 12-D4
HOUSEHOLD ROLES PERFORMANCE BY MEN'S INCOME LEVEL

	Income Level of men						Total	
	1= low		2= medium		3= high			
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
washing clothes								
husband dominant	1	1.1%	1	.3%			2	.4%
shared	2	2.3%	7	2.3%	3	3.7%	12	2.5%
wife dominant	85	96.6%	295	97.4%	79	96.3%	459	97.0%
cooking meals								
husband dominant			2	.7%			2	.4%
shared	3	3.4%	11	3.6%	5	6.1%	19	4.0%
wife dominant	85	96.6%	289	95.7%	77	93.9%	451	95.6%
washing the dishes								
husband dominant	1	1.1%	3	1.0%			4	.8%
shared	1	1.1%	18	6.0%	8	9.6%	27	5.7%
wife dominant	85	97.7%	281	93.0%	75	90.4%	441	93.4%
preparing breakfast								
husband dominant	2	2.3%	30	9.9%	11	13.3%	43	9.1%
shared	6	6.8%	37	12.3%	7	8.4%	50	10.6%
wife dominant	80	90.9%	235	77.8%	65	78.3%	380	80.3%
shopping								
husband dominant	32	36.4%	78	25.9%	13	15.7%	123	26.1%
shared	21	23.9%	103	34.2%	34	41.0%	158	33.5%
wife dominant	35	39.8%	120	39.9%	36	43.4%	191	40.5%
cleaning the house								
husband dominant			1	.3%			1	.2%
shared	3	3.4%	13	4.3%	1	1.2%	17	3.6%
wife dominant	85	96.6%	288	95.4%	82	98.8%	455	96.2%

APPENDIX 12-D5

HOUSEHOLD ROLES PERFORMANCE BY WOMEN'S EDUCATION LEVEL

women education level								
1= low			2= medium			3= high		
Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Total
washing clothes								
husband dominant		1	.4%	1	1.1%	2	.4%	
shared	1	.7%	6	2.6%	5	5.4%	12	2.5%
wife dominant	151	99.3%	226	97.0%	86	93.5%	463	97.1%
cooking meals								
husband dominant				2	2.2%	2	.4%	
shared	2	1.3%	11	4.7%	6	6.5%	19	4.0%
wife dominant	150	98.7%	221	95.3%	84	91.3%	455	95.6%
washing the dishes								
husband dominant	1	.7%	2	.9%	1	1.1%	4	.8%
shared	1	.7%	11	4.7%	14	15.2%	26	5.5%
wife dominant	149	98.7%	220	94.4%	77	83.7%	446	93.7%
preparing breakfast								
husband dominant	4	2.6%	27	11.6%	12	12.9%	43	9.0%
shared	8	5.3%	26	11.2%	16	17.2%	50	10.5%
wife dominant	139	92.1%	180	77.3%	65	69.9%	384	80.5%
shopping								
husband dominant	51	33.6%	56	24.2%	18	19.4%	125	26.3%
shared	34	22.4%	87	37.7%	39	41.9%	160	33.6%
wife dominant	67	44.1%	88	38.1%	36	38.7%	191	40.1%
cleaning the house								
husband dominant					1	1.1%	1	.2%
shared	2	1.3%	12	5.2%	2	2.2%	16	3.4%
wife dominant	150	98.7%	220	94.8%	90	96.8%	460	96.4%

APPENDIX 12-D6
HOUSEHOLD ROLES PERFORMANCE BY MEN'S EDUCATION LEVEL

men education level								
1= low		2= medium		3= high		Total		
Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	
washing clothes								
1	1.2%			1	.6%	2	.4%	
husband dominant				5	3.0%	12	2.5%	
shared		7	3.2%					
wife dominant	84	98.8%	215	96.8%	161	96.4%	460	97.0%
cooking meals								
				2	1.2%	2	.4%	
husband dominant				7	4.2%	19	4.0%	
shared	3	3.5%	9	4.1%				
wife dominant	82	96.5%	212	95.9%	158	94.6%	452	95.6%
washing the dishes								
				2	.9%	4	.8%	
husband dominant				15	8.9%	26	5.5%	
shared	1	1.2%	10	4.5%				
wife dominant	83	98.8%	209	94.6%	151	89.9%	443	93.7%
preparing breakfast								
husband dominant	2	2.4%	17	7.7%	24	14.3%	43	9.1%
shared	4	4.8%	24	10.8%	22	13.1%	50	10.5%
wife dominant	78	92.9%	181	81.5%	122	72.6%	381	80.4%
shopping								
husband dominant	36	42.4%	56	25.5%	33	19.6%	125	26.4%
shared	15	17.6%	78	35.5%	64	38.1%	157	33.2%
wife dominant	34	40.0%	86	39.1%	71	42.3%	191	40.4%
cleaning the house								
husband dominant				1	.6%	1	.2%	
shared	4	4.7%	8	3.6%	5	3.0%	17	3.6%
wife dominant	81	95.3%	213	96.4%	162	96.4%	456	96.2%

APPENDIX 12-D7

HOUSEHOLD ROLES PERFORMANCE BY MEN'S AGE CATEGORY

	category of man age						Total					
	young		adult		old		Count		Col %		Count	
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
washing clothes												
husband dominant			1	.5%			1	.5%			2	.4%
shared	8	11.4%	3	1.4%			1	.5%			12	2.5%
wife dominant	62	88.6%	218	98.2%			183	98.9%			463	97.1%
cooking meals												
husband dominant			2	.9%							2	.4%
shared	5	7.2%	7	3.2%			7	3.8%			19	4.0%
wife dominant	64	92.8%	213	95.9%			178	96.2%			455	95.6%
washing the dishes												
husband dominant	1	1.4%	1	.5%			2	1.1%			4	.8%
shared	7	10.1%	15	6.8%			5	2.7%			27	5.7%
wife dominant	61	88.4%	206	92.8%			178	96.2%			445	93.5%
preparing breakfast												
husband dominant	10	14.3%	20	9.0%			13	7.1%			43	9.0%
shared	12	17.1%	21	9.4%			17	9.2%			50	10.5%
wife dominant	48	68.6%	182	81.6%			154	83.7%			384	80.5%
shopping												
husband dominant	21	30.0%	47	21.3%			57	30.8%			125	26.3%
shared	33	47.1%	79	35.7%			48	25.9%			160	33.6%
wife dominant	16	22.9%	95	43.0%			80	43.2%			191	40.1%
cleaning the house												
husband dominant			1	.4%							1	.2%
shared	6	8.7%	6	2.7%			5	2.7%			17	3.6%
wife dominant	63	91.3%	216	96.9%			180	97.3%			459	96.2%

APPENDIX 12-D8
HOUSEHOLD ROLES PERFORMANCE BY WOMEN'S AGE CATEGORY

	category of women age						Total					
	young		adult		old							
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
washing clothes												
husband dominant			1	.4%			1	1.3%	2	.4%		
shared	11	6.8%					1	1.3%	12	2.5%		
wife dominant	150	93.2%	236	99.6%			77	97.5%	463	97.1%		
cooking meals												
husband dominant	1	.6%	1	.4%					2	.4%		
shared	8	5.0%	9	3.8%			2	2.5%	19	4.0%		
wife dominant	152	94.4%	226	95.8%			77	97.5%	455	95.6%		
washing the dishes												
husband dominant	2	1.2%	1	.4%			1	1.3%	4	.8%		
shared	14	8.7%	10	4.2%			2	2.5%	26	5.5%		
wife dominant	145	90.1%	225	95.3%			76	96.2%	446	93.7%		
preparing breakfast												
husband dominant	16	9.9%	23	9.7%			4	5.1%	43	9.0%		
shared	21	13.0%	23	9.7%			6	7.7%	50	10.5%		
wife dominant	125	77.2%	191	80.6%			68	87.2%	384	80.5%		
shopping												
husband dominant	42	26.3%	46	19.4%			37	46.8%	125	26.3%		
shared	65	40.6%	82	34.6%			12	15.2%	159	33.4%		
wife dominant	53	33.1%	109	46.0%			30	38.0%	192	40.3%		
cleaning the house												
husband dominant			1	.4%					1	.2%		
shared	9	5.6%	4	1.7%			3	3.8%	16	3.4%		
wife dominant	152	94.4%	232	97.9%			76	96.2%	460	96.4%		

APPENDIX 12-D9 : INHOME ROLES PERFORMANCE BY WOMEN'S WORKING STATUS

inhome role performance	woman working status		Total	
	nonworking	working	Count	Col %
	Count	Count	Count	Col %
shared	6	25	31	6,8%
wife alone	262	163	425	93,2%

APPENDIX 12-D10 : IN-HOME ROLES PERFORMANCE BY FAMILY INCOME LEVEL

in-home role performance	trichotomized family salary		Total	
	1,00	2,00	3,00	Count
	Count	Count	Count	Col %
shared	3	22	8	12,9%
wife alone	193	183	54	87,1%

TABLE 10-D11 : IN-HOME ROLES PERFORMANCE BY WOMEN'S EDUCATION LEVEL

TABLE 10-B11 : IN-HOME ROLES PERFORMANCE BY WOMEN'S EDUCATION LEVEL								
	category of woman education							
	low		medium		high		Total	
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
in-home role performance								
shared	3	2,0%	19	8,2%	11	12,2%	33	7,0%
wife alone	147	98,0%	212	91,8%	79	87,8%	438	93,0%

APPENDIX 12-D12 : IN-HOME ROLES PERFORMANCE BY MEN'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

in-home role performance	category of man education					
	low		medium		high	
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
shared	1	1,2%	14	6,4%	18	10,8%
wife alone	82	98,8%	205	93,6%	148	89,2%
					33	7,1%
					435	92,9%

APPENDIX 12-D13 : IN-HOME ROLES PERFORMANCE BY WOMEN'S AGE CATEGORY

in-home role performance	category of woman age					
	young		adult		old	
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
shared	16	10,1%	14	6,0%	3	3,8%
wife alone	142	89,9%	221	94,0%	75	96,2%
					33	7,0%
					438	93,0%

APPENDIX 12-D14 : IN-HOME ROLES PERFORMANCE BY MEN'S AGE CATEGORY

in-home role performance	category of man age					
	young		adult		old	
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
shared	11	16,4%	12	5,5%	10	5,4%
wife alone	56	83,6%	208	94,5%	174	94,6%
					33	7,0%
					438	93,0%

APPENDIX 12-D16: SHOPPING BY WOMEN'S AGE

APPENDIX 12-D17 : SHOPPING BY MAN'S EDUCATION374

APPENDIX 12-D18 : SHOPPING BY WOMAN'S EDUCATION LEVEL

shopping	category of woman education						Total	
	low		medium		high			
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
husband dominant	51	33,6%	56	24,2%	18	19,4%	125	26,3%
shared	34	22,4%	87	37,7%	39	41,9%	160	33,6%
wife dominant	67	44,1%	88	38,1%	36	38,7%	191	40,1%

APPENDIX 12-D19 : SHOPPING BY MAN'S INCOME LEVEL

shopping	category of man salary							
	low		medium		high		Total	
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
husband dominant	32	36,4%	78	25,9%	13	15,7%	123	26,1%
shared	21	23,9%	103	34,2%	34	41,0%	158	33,5%
wife dominant	35	39,8%	120	39,9%	36	43,4%	191	40,5%

APPENDIX 12-D20 : SHOPPING BY WOMAN'S INCOME LEVEL

shopping	salary category of women						Total	
	low		medium		high			
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
husband dominant	94	28,2%	28	21,7%	1	9,1%	123	26,0%
shared	99	29,7%	55	42,6%	4	36,4%	158	33,4%
wife dominant	140	42,0%	46	35,7%	6	54,5%	192	40,6%

APPENDIX 12-D21 : SHOPPING BY FAMILY INCOME LEVEL

shopping	trichotomized family salary					
	1,00	2,00	3,00	Total		
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
husband dominant	66	33,7%	45	21,5%	10	15,9%
shared	51	26,0%	77	36,8%	28	44,4%
wife dominant	79	40,3%	87	41,6%	25	39,7%
					121	25,9%
					156	33,3%
					191	40,8%

APPENDIX 12-D22 : SHOPPING BY WOMAN'S WORKING STATUS

shopping	woman working status				Total	
	nonworking	working			Count	Col %
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
husband dominant	78	29,1%	43	22,5%	121	26,4%
shared	79	29,5%	75	39,3%	154	33,6%
wife dominant	111	41,4%	73	38,2%	184	40,1%

APPENDIX 12-C1
WOMEN'S AND MEN'S SCORES ON PPI (PRESSURE COOKER)

PPI Scale	Women				Men			
	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation
Pressure-cooker								
item#1	2.13	1.44	2.81	1.64				
item#2	2.32	1.49	2.75	1.62				
item#3	1.80	1.28	2.71	1.65				
item#4	1.72	1.16	2.67	1.62				
item#5	1.98	1.34	2.98	1.57				
item#6	1.63	1.12	2.54	1.61				
item#7	2.16	1.40	3.04	1.59				
item#8	2.88	1.62	3.35	1.61				
item#9	3.12	1.62	3.48	1.55				
item#10	3.01	1.62	3.52	1.55				
item#11	1.78	1.20	2.85	1.60				
item#12	1.63	1.15	2.07	1.42				
item#13	1.91	1.35	2.69	1.59				
item#14	2.40	1.53	3.01	1.54				
item#15	2.50	1.52	2.85	1.56				

Note1. All 15 paired comparisons t tests are significant and all p values <.001 (two-tailed tests)

Note2. The Perceived Product Instrumentality Scale is composed of the following items :

- 1/ It helps me serve my children properly
- 2/ It helps me serve my spouse properly
- 3/ It helps me devote more time for myself
- 4/ It helps me devote more time for my family
- 5/ It helps me get organized
- 6/ It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously
- 7/ It helps me work more efficiently at home
- 8/ It helps me work more efficiently outside the home
- 9/ It makes me feel I am a good parent
- 10/ It makes me feel I am a good spouse
- 11/ It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations
- 12/ It has practical usefulness
- 13/ It allows me to spare time for other activities (reading, sport, etc.)
- 14/ It helps me keep my house clean and tidy
- 15/ It helps me satisfy my family's needs

APPENDIX 12-C2

WOMEN'S AND MEN'S PPI SCORES (WASHER)

Washer		women		men	
		Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation
item#1	***	3.14	1.56	3.54	1.46
item#2		3.29	1.57	3.41	1.53
item#3	***	2.47	1.55	3.15	1.61
item#4	***	2.41	1.53	3.15	1.59
item#5	***	2.62	1.53	3.35	1.52
item#6	***	2.16	1.46	2.92	1.65
item#7	***	2.79	1.55	3.36	1.53
item#8	***	3.35	1.53	3.71	1.44
item#9	***	3.55	1.49	3.78	1.41
item#10	***	3.52	1.49	3.81	1.41
item#11	***	2.38	1.49	3.25	1.56
item#12	***	2.27	1.50	2.58	1.52
item#13	***	2.40	1.52	3.09	1.55
item#14	***	2.72	1.59	3.12	1.56
item#15	*	3.15	1.50	3.28	1.49

Note1. Significance levels for differences in RI measures (one-tailed tests)

- * p < .10
- ** p < .05
- *** p < .01

Note2. All t values are negative. As the difference is calculated as women's minus men's score this means that men's scores are smaller implying higher perceived instrumentality. The reader is reminded that responses are given on a 5-point scale where the first position reflects total agreement about propositions underlying instrumentality.

APPENDIX 12-C3

WOMEN'S AND MEN'S PPI SCORES (MULTIFUNCTION PROCESSOR)

	Women			Men		
	Mean	Std Deviation		Mean	Std Deviation	
Multifunction						
item#1	2.23	1.44		2.89	1.58	
item#2	2.38	1.49		2.80	1.60	
item#3	1.96	1.30		2.81	1.59	
item#4	1.94	1.27		2.78	1.58	
item#5	2.11	1.36		3.00	1.54	
item#6	1.95	1.35		2.66	1.59	
item#7	2.20	1.41		2.97	1.56	
item#8	3.03	1.59		3.47	1.55	
item#9	2.91	1.60		3.55	1.50	
item#10	2.95	1.59		3.56	1.53	
item#11	1.94	1.24		2.97	1.55	
item#12	1.69	1.19		2.07	1.41	
item#13	2.05	1.33		2.75	1.55	
item#14	2.36	1.47		2.96	1.55	
item#15	2.25	1.36		2.76	1.52	

Note. All 15 paired differences are significant and all p values < .001 (two-tailed tests)

APPENDIX 12-C4

WORKING AND NONWORKING WOMEN'S SCORES ON PPI (PRESSURE-COOKER)

PPI	woman working status				Group Total (n=461)			
	nonworking (n= 269)		working (n=192)		Mean		Std Deviation	
Pressure cooker	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean	Std Deviation
item#1	2.14	1.45	2.08	1.41	2.12	1.43	2.12	1.43
item#2	2.35	1.48	2.24	1.50	2.30	1.49	2.30	1.49
item#3	1.85	1.32	1.76	1.26	1.81	1.30	1.81	1.30
item#4	1.79	1.22	1.63	1.07	1.72	1.16	1.72	1.16
item#5	1.97	1.38	1.97	1.29	1.97	1.34	1.97	1.34
item#6	1.67	1.13	1.59	1.14	1.64	1.13	1.64	1.13
item#7	2.13	1.41	2.19	1.38	2.15	1.40	2.15	1.40
item#8 ***	3.14	1.59	2.54	1.60	2.89	1.62	2.89	1.62
item#9	3.09	1.64	3.10	1.60	3.09	1.62	3.09	1.62
item#10	3.02	1.64	2.94	1.59	2.98	1.62	2.98	1.62
item#11	1.81	1.21	1.73	1.19	1.78	1.20	1.78	1.20
item#12	1.68	1.15	1.56	1.14	1.63	1.14	1.63	1.14
item#13 **	2.01	1.39	1.76	1.30	1.90	1.35	1.90	1.35
item#14	2.32	1.51	2.48	1.57	2.38	1.53	2.38	1.53
item#15	2.53	1.49	2.44	1.55	2.49	1.51	2.49	1.51

Significance levels for differences in RI measures (one-tailed tests)

* p < .10

** p < .05

*** p < .01

APPENDIX 12-C5

WORKING AND NONWORKING WOMEN'S SCORES ON PPI (WASHER)

PPI Washer	woman working status						Group Total	
	nonworking			working				
	Mean	Std Deviation		Mean	Std Deviation		Mean	Std Deviation
item#1	3.15	1.61		3.11	1.50		3.13	1.56
item#2	3.29	1.61		3.28	1.53		3.29	1.57
item#3	2.55	1.57		2.36	1.54		2.47	1.56
item#4	2.42	1.55		2.38	1.51		2.40	1.53
item#5	2.61	1.54		2.62	1.56		2.61	1.55
item#6	2.19	1.50		2.09	1.43		2.15	1.47
item#7	2.76	1.58		2.80	1.54		2.78	1.56
item#8	3.49	1.48		3.15	1.58		3.35	1.53
item#9	3.51	1.52		3.59	1.46		3.54	1.49
item#10	3.51	1.51		3.50	1.50		3.51	1.50
item#11	2.39	1.51		2.38	1.49		2.38	1.50
item#12	2.28	1.51		2.26	1.51		2.27	1.51
item#13	2.46	1.53		2.31	1.53		2.39	1.53
item#14	2.58	1.57		2.88	1.61		2.70	1.60
item#15	3.14	1.51		3.16	1.51		3.14	1.51

Significance levels for differences in PPI measures (one-tailed tests)

* p < .10

APPENDIX 12-C6

WORKING AND NONWORKING WOMEN'S SCORES ON PPI (MULTIFUNCTION PROCESSOR)

PPI Multifunction Processor	woman working status					
	nonworking			working		
	Mean	Std Deviation		Mean	Std Deviation	Group Total
item#1	2.34	1.52		2.08	1.32	2.23
item#2	2.44	1.50		2.28	1.46	2.37
item#3	2.05	1.36		1.84	1.24	1.96
item#4	2.00	1.31		1.86	1.21	1.94
item#5	2.19	1.42		1.99	1.27	2.10
item#6	2.09	1.43		1.74	1.23	1.95
item#7	2.28	1.48		2.10	1.33	2.21
item#8	3.27	1.54		2.73	1.61	3.04
item#9	2.91	1.58		2.88	1.62	2.90
item#10	2.98	1.59		2.87	1.60	2.93
item#11	1.96	1.27		1.91	1.22	1.93
item#12	1.79	1.25		1.54	1.08	1.69
item#13	2.18	1.40		1.88	1.22	2.05
item#14	2.37	1.48		2.34	1.47	2.36
item#15	2.27	1.34		2.21	1.37	2.25

Note. Significance levels for differences (one-tailed tests)

* p < .10

** p < .05

*** p < .01

APPENDIX 12-F1
WOMEN'S AND MEN'S PREFERENCES FOR TSES VS NON TSES DURABLES

	Women			Men		
	Count	Col %		Count	Col %	
cooking meals, prefer						
pressure cooker to pot	270	56.6%		204	42.9%	
pot to pressure cooker	170	35.6%		211	44.3%	
indifferent	37	7.8%		61	12.8%	
meat grinding, prefer						
electrical to manual	420	89.0%		348	73.7%	
manual to electrical	29	6.1%		66	14.0%	
indifferent	23	4.9%		58	12.3%	
roasting beef, prefer						
microwave to oven	124	26.1%		113	23.8%	
oven to microwave	295	62.1%		292	61.6%	
indifferent	56	11.8%		69	14.6%	
preparing coffee, prefer						
electrical to manual	227	47.9%		204	43.1%	
manual to electrical	208	43.9%		219	46.3%	
indifferent	39	8.2%		50	10.6%	
washing clothes, prefer						
automatic to semi	365	76.7%		303	63.9%	
semi to automatic	85	17.9%		104	21.9%	
indifferent	26	5.5%		67	14.1%	
dishwashing, prefer						
machine to hand washing	186	39.3%		139	29.2%	
hand washing to machine	248	52.4%		253	53.2%	
indifferent	39	8.2%		84	17.6%	
housecleaning, prefer						
vacuuming to dusting	290	61.1%		254	53.4%	
dusting to vacuuming	158	33.3%		157	33.0%	
indifferent	27	5.7%		65	13.7%	

APPENDIX 12-F2
TSES PREFERENCE PATTERNS FOR WOMEN VERSUS MEN

	woman working status				Total	
	non-working		working		Count	Col %
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
cooking meals, prefer						
prefer pressure cooker						
to pot	150	55,8%	111	58,4%	261	56,9%
prefer pot to pressure						
cooker	98	36,4%	63	33,2%	161	35,1%
indifferent	21	7,8%	16	8,4%	37	8,1%
meat grinding, prefer						
electrical to manual	233	87,6%	171	91,0%	404	89,0%
manual to electrical	21	7,9%	7	3,7%	28	6,2%
indifferent	12	4,5%	10	5,3%	22	4,8%
roasting beef, prefer						
prefer microwave to oven	67	25,0%	52	27,5%	119	26,0%
prefer oven to microwave	167	62,3%	118	62,4%	285	62,4%
indifferent	34	12,7%	19	10,1%	53	11,6%
preparing coffee, prefer						
electrical to manual	121	45,3%	99	52,4%	220	48,2%
manual to electrical	121	45,3%	78	41,3%	199	43,6%
indifferent	25	9,4%	12	6,3%	37	8,1%
washing clothes, prefer						
prefer automatic to semi	198	74,2%	154	80,6%	352	76,9%
prefer semi to automatic	52	19,5%	28	14,7%	80	17,5%
indifferent	17	6,4%	9	4,7%	26	5,7%
dishwashing, prefer						
machine to hand washing	96	36,1%	85	45,0%	181	39,8%
hand washing to machine	152	57,1%	85	45,0%	237	52,1%
indifferent	18	6,8%	19	10,1%	37	8,1%
housecleaning, prefer						
vacuuming to dusting	158	59,0%	121	64,0%	279	61,1%
dusting to vacuuming	91	34,0%	61	32,3%	152	33,3%
indifferent	19	7,1%	7	3,7%	26	5,7%

APPENDIX 12-E1

PURCHASING ROLE PATTERNS FOR MAJOR AND MINOR DURABLES

	Major Durable		Minor Durable	
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
need identification				
husband alone	47	10,1%	47	11,2%
husband mostly	9	1,9%	6	1,4%
husband and wife	142	30,6%	84	20,0%
wife mostly	34	7,3%	26	6,2%
wife alone	232	50,0%	258	61,3%
Total	464	100,0%	421	100,0%
information search				
husband alone	163	35,2%	108	25,8%
husband mostly	39	8,4%	32	7,7%
husband and wife	135	29,2%	72	17,2%
wife mostly	24	5,2%	27	6,5%
wife alone	102	22,0%	179	42,8%
Total	463	100,0%	418	100,0%
final decision				
husband alone	143	30,8%	112	26,7%
husband mostly	29	6,3%	12	2,9%
husband and wife	184	39,7%	110	26,2%
wife mostly	17	3,7%	23	5,5%
wife alone	91	19,6%	163	38,8%
Total	464	100,0%	420	100,0%
purchasing act				
husband alone	271	58,4%	171	40,8%
husband mostly	22	4,7%	14	3,3%
husband and wife	89	19,2%	76	18,1%
wife mostly	9	1,9%	10	2,4%
wife alone	73	15,7%	148	35,3%
Total	464	100,0%	419	100,0%

APPENDIX 12-E2

FAMILY PURCHASING ROLE STRUCTURE

role structure	Count	Col %
husband dominant	100	22,1%
shared	240	53,1%
		! autonomic 193 80,4%
		! syncratic 47 19,6%
wife dominant	112	24,8%
Total	452	100,0%

APPENDIX 12-E3

CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR MINOR AND MAJOR DURABLES

Minor Durable	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	10,25773	4	,03630
Likelihood Ratio	10,17364	4	,03760
Linear-by-Linear Association	7,67722	1	,00559
Major Durable			
Pearson	30,40698	4	,00000
Likelihood Ratio	30,28911	4	,00000
Linear-by-Linear Association	26,15974	1	,00000

APPENDIX 12-E4
PURCHASING ROLE STRUCTURE BY WOMEN'S WORKING STATUS

	woman working status						Total
	nonworking			working			
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	
purchasing role							
structure for minor							
husband dominant	93	34,6%	33	17,2%	126	27,3%	
shared	92	34,2%	68	35,4%	160	34,7%	
wife dominant	84	31,2%	91	47,4%	175	38,0%	
purchasing role							
structure for major							
husband dominant	104	38,7%	43	22,4%	147	31,9%	
shared	119	44,2%	97	50,5%	216	46,9%	
wife dominant	46	17,1%	52	27,1%	98	21,3%	

APPENDIX 12-E5

PURCHASING ROLE STRUCTURE BY MEN'S EDUCATION LEVEL

	category of man education						Total	
	low		medium		high		Count	Col %
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
purchasing role								
structure for minor								
husband dominant	29	34,1%	59	26,6%	39	23,2%	127	26,7%
shared	26	30,6%	88	39,6%	48	28,6%	162	34,1%
wife dominant	30	35,3%	75	33,8%	81	48,2%	186	39,2%
role structure for major								
husband dominant	38	44,7%	79	35,6%	34	20,2%	151	31,8%
shared	33	38,8%	104	46,8%	84	50,0%	221	46,5%
wife dominant	14	16,5%	39	17,6%	50	29,8%	103	21,7%

APPENDIX 12-E6
PURCHASING ROLE STRUCTURE BY WOMEN'S EDUCATION LEVEL

	category of woman education						Total	
	low			medium			high	
	Count	Col %		Count	Col %		Count	Col %
purchasing role								
structure for minor								
husband dominant	52	34,2%		61	26,2%	15	128	26,8%
shared	54	35,5%		79	33,9%	31	164	34,3%
wife dominant	46	30,3%		93	39,9%	47	186	38,9%
role structure for major								
husband dominant	65	42,8%		69	29,6%	16	150	31,4%
shared	60	39,5%		115	49,4%	50	225	47,1%
wife dominant	27	17,8%		49	21,0%	27	103	21,5%

APPENDIX 12-E7
PURCHASING ROLE STRUCTURE BY MEN'S INCOME LEVEL

	category of man income						Total	
	1= low			2= medium			3= high	
	Count	Col %		Count	Col %		Count	Col %
purchasing role								
structure for minor								
husband dominant	31	35,2%		81	26,7%	16	128	27,0%
shared	32	36,4%		104	34,3%	28	164	34,6%
wife dominant	25	28,4%		118	38,9%	39	182	38,4%
role structure for major								
husband dominant	39	44,3%		99	32,7%	13	151	31,9%
shared	36	40,9%		141	46,5%	45	222	46,8%
wife dominant	13	14,8%		63	20,8%	25	101	21,3%

APPENDIX 12-E8
PURCHASING ROLE STRUCTURE BY WOMEN'S AGE CATEGORY

	category of woman age						Total	
	young		mature		old		Count	Col %
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
purchasing role								
structure for minor								
husband dominant	43	26,5%	67	28,3%	19	24,1%	129	27,0%
shared	57	35,2%	79	33,3%	27	34,2%	163	34,1%
wife dominant	62	38,3%	91	38,4%	33	41,8%	186	38,9%
role structure for major								
husband dominant	51	31,5%	73	30,8%	27	34,2%	151	31,6%
shared	74	45,7%	121	51,1%	29	36,7%	224	46,9%
wife dominant	37	22,8%	43	18,1%	23	29,1%	103	21,5%

APPENDIX 12-E9
PURCHASING ROLE STRUCTURE BY MEN'S AGE CATEGORY

	category of man age						Total	
	young		mature		old		Count	Col %
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
role structure for minor								
husband dominant	26	37,1%	58	26,0%	44	23,8%	128	26,8%
shared	22	31,4%	78	35,0%	64	34,6%	164	34,3%
wife dominant	22	31,4%	87	39,0%	77	41,6%	186	38,9%
role structure for major								
husband dominant	26	37,1%	65	29,1%	60	32,4%	151	31,6%
shared	34	48,6%	112	50,2%	78	42,2%	224	46,9%
wife dominant	10	14,3%	46	20,6%	47	25,4%	103	21,5%

APPENDIX 12-E10
PURCHASING ROLE STRUCTURE BY WOMEN'S AGE CATEGORY

	salary category of women						Total	
	1=low		2=medium		3=high		Count	Col %
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
purchasing role (minor)								
husband dominant	104	31,0%	19	14,7%	3	27,3%	126	26,5%
shared	111	33,1%	50	38,8%	3	27,3%	164	34,5%
wife dominant	120	35,8%	60	46,5%	5	45,5%	185	38,9%
purchasing role(major)								
husband dominant	122	36,4%	24	18,6%	2	18,2%	148	31,2%
shared	148	44,2%	72	55,8%	5	45,5%	225	47,4%
wife dominant	65	19,4%	33	25,6%	4	36,4%	102	21,5%

APPENDIX 12-E11
PURCHASING PATTERNS BY POOLED FAMILY INCOME LEVEL

	family income level						Total	
	1=low		2=medium		3=high		Count	Col %
	Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %		
role for minor								
husband dominant	67	34,0%	46	21,9%	12	19,0%	125	26,6%
shared	63	32,0%	79	37,6%	22	34,9%	164	34,9%
wife dominant	67	34,0%	85	40,5%	29	46,0%	181	38,5%
role for major								
husband dominant	87	44,2%	49	23,3%	11	17,5%	147	31,3%
shared	81	41,1%	110	52,4%	31	49,2%	222	47,2%
wife dominant	29	14,7%	51	24,3%	21	33,3%	101	21,5%

Focus-Group Interviews Contents

WOMEN-GROUP ONE: LOWER MIDDLE CLASS

I- Welcome. This is a research about durables carried out by Mr Abdelfattah Triki and myself, Maya Jribi from Lamouri Institute. First of all, I would appreciate it very much if you could introduce yourselves.

Rm- I am retired from the administration.

Rj- I am an executive in a public institution.

Rl- I am a housewife.

Rr- I am a primary school instructor.

Rs- I am a housewife.

Rh- I am a secretary.

I- Nice to meet you all. Our discussion will be about household appliances. When we say household appliances, what comes to your mind ?

Rr- All that concerns the house from the bedroom to the kitchen. But the kitchen is something particularly important.

I- Why do you mention the kitchen and say it's very important ?

Rj- Because we begin with it in the morning and finish with it in the evening. The woman spends half or three quarters of her time in the kitchen. The kitchen is the core of the house.

I- Why is the kitchen the core of the house ?

Rj- Can we spend one day without food ?

Rl- We must go to the kitchen and prepare something for ourselves, for our children and for our husbands. The kitchen provides the means for food preparation ; and it's mainly women's responsibility.

I- Why is it mainly women's responsibility?

Rl- Because the husband - even if he happens to help- spends only little time in the kitchen. Although women's life has changed, the kitchen remains their principal domain. There's no kitchen without a woman. The husband, at most, washes the dishes or prepares the table, that's all.

I- Since you've mentioned the kitchen, can you tell us what it contains ?

Rs- Everything : machines, electrical equipment, cleaning products, food and so on.

Ru- I am really against these electrical machines. We receive the bill and we have to pay costly bills, so what have we gained then ?

Rr- But we cannot live without electric machines.

Rm- Ok, but we mustn't exaggerate

I- Samira, Why do you say that the electrical equipment is so necessary ?

Rs- Because in the past, people used to live in traditional houses but nowadays people live in flats so electric appliances are essential because we're all the time in a hurry everything is done with machines, refrigerators, pressure-cookers, dishwashers, etc.

I- You've talked about the refrigerator, the TV set, the pressure cooker, the washing machine and the dish washer ; can you tell me which are the most important among these?

Rj- **The refrigerator is a luxury.** It's not really necessary especially for women who don't work. For a working woman, it can be necessary to keep her weekly shopping. Even the washing machine was a luxury but nowadays it's become a necessity.

Rl- Some people think that the refrigerator is a luxury but others think it's economical. The mother can save many things in it.

I- What about you Lilia ? What's your point of view ?

Rl- I think it's economical because we can keep food for a long time. We can buy things at a lower price and keep them in the refrigerator for later use. It's much cheaper than buying canned food.

Rm- **I' don't think that the refrigerator is really necessary, the washing machine is more useful and necessary** than the refrigerator; but the refrigerator is more useful than the dish-washer. There are things which are more necessary than others.

I- You've mentioned the cooker, the refrigerator the washing machine, the dish washer, the pressure-cooker, etc. What are the three most necessary machines according to you?

Rl- The cooker, the refrigerator and the washing machine and in the forth place, the processor.

I- let's talk a little bit about the pressure-cooker. Why is it important. Why have you mentioned it in the first place?

Rs- Because we cannot cook without it. Can we use the traditional pot ? We don't have time to use these traditional things. In fact, food cooked on slow fire is more delicious but the pressure-cooker is much faster. Can a woman who gets home late in the evening cook her dinner using a traditional pot ? In this case, she can have dinner ready at midnight. Moreover, working mothers must cook their lunch one night before. **The pressure-cooker helps them a lot.** Nonetheless, there are things that should be cooked on a slow fire. Many Tunisian dishes taste better when they are cooked on slow fire.

I- Tell me a bit about your cookers, have you got an oven in it? If someone asks you. Why you have bought a cooker with an oven in it, what will your answer be?

Rs- It's good for roasting chicken and making cakes.

I- Why cakes?

Rs- Of course we like cakes. **Our children like cakes.** Besides, **when we have guests** we must either make cakes at home or buy them ready made? Can you make cakes otherwise?

Ru- Yes, there are some cakes that can be done without oven like the cake with biscuits but 90% of the cakes are cooked in ovens.

I- Is there any one among you who had a cooker without an oven and then decided to buy one with an oven in it?

Rs- No, from the beginning I decided to buy a cooker with an oven

I- If you didn't have the oven, what would you do ?

Rl- We would cook as our mothers used to ; we would follow our traditional customs.

I- Does the woman who owns a cooker with an oven in it change her way of life?

Ru- You can ask a woman who hasn't got one !

Ru- I Think there are many dishes that can't be cooked without an oven. **The oven really facilitates our tasks and saves us a lot of time.**

I- What kind of women don't own a cooker with oven nowadays?

Ru- I don't think there are any now. For instance, when we go to the beach, we can take a cooker without an oven just for a few days.

I- What kind of people have got microwave ovens?

Ru- Perhaps those who have cookers without oven and there are some people who possess both of them.

I- What about people who have « microwave ovens »

Ru- They are fortunate.

I- Why are they fortunate?

R- I am talking about the rich families. They're lucky because they can keep things for a long time. They can buy large quantities of fish or meat. When a guest arrives unexpectedly, they take meat or fish from the freezer and put it in the oven and it's quickly done. Of course it consumes a lot but I think it's not a problem because those who own them are generally rich.

I- How did you have the idea of buying a microwave oven ?

Ru- When I renewed my kitchen, I changed all the equipment and I decided to buy a microwave among the other pieces of equipment. In fact, I've had the idea from the kitchen I'd seen in a magazine.

I- Has anyone in the family been against buying it?

Ru- No, since my husband agrees there's no problem.

I- And now do you think it is really necessary?

Rh- Yes, I find it practical. I put cakes, meat , everything then I just cut it and put it in the oven. **It's fast and practical.**

I- Apart from Hajer, are there any other people who think of buying a microwave ?

Rl- Yes, it's part of my plans.

I- Why is it part of your plans ?

Rl- Because **it's useful and practical.**

I- Why is practicality important for you?

Rl- A piece of equipment is appreciated as long as **it saves much time and helps a lot and you can do many other things while it is functioning. I can even take children to school while cooking the meal.**

I- So is it very necessary according to you?

Rl- It's not very necessary, but **it's very helpful.**

Rh- I think **the oven is a luxury.** We don't use it every day.

I- You've said that it's in your plans and that you are going to buy it. Have you ever said that you should have bought it and that you cannot do without it?

Rl- Yes, sometimes I need it but there are some things which are more important than others.

I- Why sometimes? In which case did you think that it would be better if you had a microwave oven?

Rl- It's only faster. Instead of lighting the oven and waiting for an hour or so, you just put the microwave oven on and your meal is ready in a few minutes.

I - If we describe the microwave in a proverb what would you say?

Rl- **It's like a spare-wheel.**

I- If we compare it to a person, which name would suit the microwave ?

Ru- It's like someone **who helps when we are busy or in a hurry** ; it's a saver.

I- Let's move to the other pieces of equipment. you've mentioned the refrigerator. Why is it important according to you?

Ru- It gives cold water and keeps the milk, eggs, yogurts, butter, cheese, everything fresh.

Ru- It keeps things cool. **We don't throw food, fruit, and vegetables away.**

I- Who are the people who haven't got a refrigerator?

Rh- There is no family without a refrigerator now, I think.

I- do you think there are still some families who don't possess one ?

Rl- It's a minority, may be those who still haven't got electricity. There are even families who haven't got running water yet.

I- So, you all agree that the refrigerator is nowadays available in most houses. Now what do you think about « the two-door refrigerator », or the refrigerator with freezer in it?

Rl- **It's useful.** For example vegetables can be kept from season to season. Sometimes it's difficult to decide what to cook; we can take some peas, or whatever vegetables are available, and you would have solved your problem.

Rj- I think **it's more useful for large families because they buy large quantities** since they consume more than small families.

Rh- I think that women who work are all obliged to buy in large quantities because **they can't do the shopping every day.** They do the shopping once a week or so.

Rl- I personally do the shopping once a week, once a fortnight, or sometimes once a month. I think **it's a waste of time to do the shopping daily. I'd better do something else instead.**

I- What kind of things do you do for instance?

Rl- I tidy up my house, I iron clothes; of course I find many things to do.

Rr- I agree with her because we'd better not do the shopping every day. It's good to have everything at home.

I- Besides this, what other things does the two-door refrigerator provide for working mothers and for the family?

Rl- Apart from meat, fish, chicken you can keep lunch or dinner and find it ready. Even bread can be kept in the freezer. All you need to do is just heat it up whenever you need it.

I- So what does the two-door refrigerator add to what you have?

Ru- It can conserve things for a longer period and in larger quantities.

Ru- When we make defreezing we have to use meat within that day or throw it but with a two-door refrigerator it's not the case.

I- Can those who own a two-door refrigerator tell me how you have decided to make such a buying?

Rr- **I'm always in a hurry because I work, so I buy everything in big quantities :** meat vegetables, everything. I buy for instance over five kilos of meat. Then I put them in bags and use them during the whole week.

I- So you decided to buy it and your family agreed with the decision.

Rr- No one was against the idea because I personally paid for it.

I- I've asked this question to know if you alone felt the necessity to buy it or if any other member of the family felt the necessity for it as well ?

Rr- The husband doesn't really feel such a need because the kitchen is not his business. He isn't aware of these problems.

I- Which problems are you talking about?

Rr- **You have everything at home. When you go back home after work at any time, you find all that you need for cooking within reach.**

I- So what are its basic advantages according to you?

Rr- It is mainly **time saving** for people who live in areas a long way from the greengrocer, the butcher, the market... Instead of doing the shopping daily, you can look after your children, help the grown ups do their homework, knit, and you name it.

I- Who hasn't got a two-door refrigerator?

Ru- My refrigerator is out of order. So instead of repairing it, I've planned to buy a two-door refrigerator. Instead of paying the repair price , I think it's much better for me to

buy a new one. It's more profitable. Moreover, I'm not obliged to pay it cash. I can pay it in instalments.

I- Who generally decides to buy the two-door refrigerator the husband or the wife?

Ru- It is generally the wife because she's responsible for managing all the equipment needed in the house.

I- What about the washing machine?

Rr- **It saves time**, instead of spending three or four hours washing clothes, you just put them in the machine and turn the button. If you ask a woman to help you and wash clothes she consumes a large quantity of soap, or detergent, but the machine has a certain determined quantity and that's all. I think it's more expensive to ask a maid to wash clothes for you. **The washing machine is economical, time -saving and less tiresome** - you just put clothes and soap and let it work.

Rl- But don't forget that **it consumes electricity**.

Rr- Electricity is not as expensive as the maid. The maid is paid at least 10 Dinars a day.

I- Has your way of life changed since you bought the washing machine?

Rr- Yes, it's become easier. Before I bought the washing machine, if I washed clothes I didn't cook lunch or sometimes I cooked it one night before so that I could concentrate on washing clothes, but now I put clothes in the machine, do the house work and cook at the same time. In addition to that, the machine does a very good job. I think that it cleans clothes much better than I do and dries them much faster. Without the machine, clothes don't dry easily. They need two days or so.

Rr- I don't agree with you. Personally, if I don't stop the machine and wash some of the spots with my own hands, the clothes won't be as clean as I want them to be.

I- How do you feel when the machine breaks down?

Ru- I feel sick. I have to wash with my hands. All the time, I wash jeans and socks with my hands because **the machine can't clean them as properly**.

I- Who hasn't got a washing machine?

Ru- Poor people !

I- Since you've bought a machine, does your husband help you with washing the clothes?

R4- Yes, he can for instance put clothes in the machine and turn it on and lies clothes on the rope for drying. The husband wants the house to be tidy all the time. If he gets back tired and finds the house upside down, he will not be happy. I think that the husband would get nervous if he didn't find lunch and the table ready. Sometimes when I have too much housework, I tell my husband to have lunch in a restaurant and not to come at midday.

Rl- When my husband finds the house untidy, he shuts the door back and returns to work. Personally, I don't like to wash clothes when my husband is at home because of the mess it makes. Husbands don't like to see the home messy. All the husbands are the same.

Ru- I sometimes wonder whether the French use as much water as we do. I think they're not like us. Every thing is done with the vacuum cleaner.

I- Which proverb can be suitable for the vacuum cleaner?

Ru- There's no proverb.

I- So what would you call it?

Rr- May be a modern broom.

I- You've talked about cookers, refrigerators, washing machines and vacuum cleaners. Do you think all people in Tunisia own these machines or do you feel there are

differences in such ownership? When I asked you about vacuum cleaner, you said that you all have one. Do you think there are differences between people living in the capital and those living in other regions?

Ru- Which regions are you talking about exactly?

I- My question is general. You're going to tell me.

Ru- If you talk about big cities I think that all the people have vacuum cleaners, refrigerators...

Ru- For instance the refrigerator is more necessary in southern areas than in northern areas because the south is very hot and therefore the refrigerator is very badly needed for the whole year whereas in the north, the weather is much colder. The refrigerator isn't as necessary as in the south. So the climate plays an important role.

Rh- I think that rich families generally live in big cities and all of them own all these kinds of equipment. Such equipment is available in every house but in rural areas it's not available. In many rural areas, many families don't have a cooker with oven. Even in big cities there are some differences. Families living in Tunis have more equipment than those living in other regions like Sfax, Sousse, Bizerte....

I- Why do you think so?

Rh- Because all new products and equipment first appear in Tunis.

Rr- Those who live in Sfax may say the same thing. Every time there's a new machine, all the people will see it thanks to advertisements. Television makes people aware of everything and tries to encourage people to buy, consume and try everything that has just been created.

I- Are there any machines or products that you bought after you saw them on television and read advertisements about them in magazines?

Ru- For example Batam household equipment wasn't well known and thanks to advertisements, more and more people are attracted to it. For household equipment « the brand name » is very important. When the brand name is famous, people don't hesitate to buy it. I think that advertisements play a very important role. On the cable TV, there are advertisement for new machines « Moulinex », « Teflon » and many other articles in the kitchen.

I- Let's go back to the vacuum cleaner; those who have the vacuum cleaner, can you tell me if you use it all the time or at particular periods?

Rh- Sometimes we use it daily. Sometimes we use it every other day. It depends.

I- Where do you put the vacuum cleaner? has it got a special place in your house?

Rh- It can be placed in the kitchen, in the bathroom, anywhere.

I- Where have you put it?

Rh- I've personally put it near the bathroom, there's a little corner there

I- Have you prepared this corner for the electric cleaner?

Rh- No it has its place by chance. It's hidden and protected from water. It's clean.

I- And you Mrs R have you got a vacuum cleaner.

Rr- Yes, I have one. I put it in the outroom along with the broom and all the other cleaning products.

I- What about the other machines? Where do you put them?

Rr- In the kitchen, in the cupboard, it depends.

I- Where do you put your washing machine?

Rr- In the kitchen.

I- Mrs Samira has just mentioned the processor. What does it include?

Rh- It includes many things : mixer, blender, squeezer, juice-maker, etc.

I- Among all these, which one do you think is the most important in your daily life?

Rh- The blender, the meat processor.

I- Why is the blender the first one?

Rh- Because **I always make cakes, shakes, etc. children like these things** we used to mix them with our hands but now **the blender makes it easier. It's much faster** - we **save time and it's less tiresome**; we used to spend one hour mixing with the traditional mixer; now it doesn't take more than ten minutes.

Rr- I think that the meat processor is the first if we classify them by order. It's very practical. We don't use it only for meat. We use it for salad, onion, garlic, we used to spend two or three hours to process food whereas now we spend no more than half an hour. Children are using it all the time to squeeze carrots, bananas... Even my husband sometimes uses it. He makes banana juice. Personally, I think that **the meat - processor is the most helpful of all the household pieces of equipment**.

Rh- As for me, my husband never touches these types of equipment; he buys everything but doesn't help at all.

I- So he buys the machines and that's all. What about the others? what about you Mrs H?

Rh- He helps me a lot.

I- Does he? Which machine does he use?

Rh- He uses the coffee-maker to prepare coffee, makes juice or even fries meat. He sometimes uses the washing machine as well.

I- Does he help from the beginning till the end?

Rh- No, but he usually turns the machine on and off or dries clothes for me.

I- So he helps you. Are there any machines that your husband never uses?

Rh- For example the vacuum cleaner, or meat processor.

I- Why? Have you ever asked him to use the vacuum cleaner and got a refusal?

Rh- Yes, he refuses. He fears dust. It's not good for his health.

I- Do you think there are machines that are not suitable for men to use or cannot be used by men?

Rh- As far as my husband is concerned, he can do nothing in the kitchen and I personally don't like him to be with me in the kitchen because he keeps asking me « Is lunch ready? Have you finished? ». **He'd better find everything ready on the table**.

I- Are there other things that you don't like your husband to interfere with?

Rh- I personally don't like my husband to use the vacuum cleaner. It's not a man's task. When he happens to use it, it is as if he were using a broom.

I- What about you Sarra?

Rs- I think that the washing machine is not man's business. I don't like to see my husband wash clothes.

I- So your husband never helps with cloth-washing?

Rs- Never. The only thing that he does is preparing coffee or squeezing fruit. He never cooks or washes the dishes.

I- Do you think there are other household piece of equipment that are important but haven't been mentioned so far?

Rs- For example the yogurt-maker. I think **it's necessary mainly for mothers who have children and especially babies**. Yogurts are becoming more and more expensive so we can save money. In fact, **it's economical** if we have 3 or 4 children who consume yogurt daily.

Rr- I used to use it when my children were young, but later I hid it. I no longer use it. To name another unnecessary utensil, I can also mention the electrical knife. I wonder what's its role? Cutting bread into pieces? Does any one of you have it?

R- No we don't have it.

Rj There's another machine of great importance which I find really **helpful and necessary** : it's the **dish washer**.

I- What's its role? why is it important?

Rj- It helps a lot mainly if we have a big family and use a lot of dishes.

Rr- But don't forget that before putting dishes in the machine, you must clean them. So I can finish this with my hands and that's all. **I don't find the dish washer really necessary.**

Rh- On the contrary, I find it helpful. It cleans the dishes by itself. I don't have to clean them but I mustn't put them completely dirty. I just remove leftover foods and put the plate in the right place. There's a special place for plates, another for glasses, forks, spoons....

Rm- That's the last thing to buy. Washing the dishes isn't a problem for me. The other thing that I don't find really necessary is the pressure cooker. I rarely use it.

I- **Who uses the pressure cooker?**

Rm- **Mainly working women.**

Rr- **My mother doesn't work and yet, she uses it a lot.**

I- Let's talk again about the dish washer.

Rm- You've said that you use it when you have guests. Why have you said so?

Rj- **Because when I have guests, I have many dishes to wash. I can put the dishes in the machine and stay with my guests.**

Rr- For example in Ramadan you can put all the dishes in the machine and watch TV.

I- In which circumstances do you think the dishwasher is really necessary?

Rm- It isn't really necessary because washing dishes doesn't take too much time.

Rr- For me it's necessary because I usually spend an hour washing the dishes after meals.

Rm- I personally prefer washing dishes to washing clothes. **The dishwasher is very easy to use and it's not time consuming** ; it's not as tiresome as washing clothes.

I- What is the equipment that you don't have and which you feel you are in need of ?

Rr- **The chip fryer and the food processor, I think these are very practical and time - saving.**

WOMEN GROUP TWO: HIGHER/MIDDLE CLASS

- Interviewer : Would you please introduce yourselves ? Let's begin with Mrs Lilia. What do you do?

- Mrs Lilia : I'm a student in medical sciences. I'm married. I have no children.

- Mrs Amel : I work in my own shop. I'm married. I have no children yet. I'm pregnant.

- Mrs Monia : I'm a secretary. I'm married. I've got three children.

- Mrs Souad : I'm married I've got four children.

- Mrs Najoua : I've got 2 children ; I'm a housewife.

- Mrs Radia : I work in the ministry of education. I've got 2 daughters

- Mr Sahli : I work in a university hostel and I have a little commercial project, a private phone booth. I've got 3 children.

- Interviewer : Welcome. Nice to meet you all. I am Maya Jribi from Lamouri Institute, and here is my colleague Mr Abdelfattah Triki. Our discussion today is about house equipment . When I say house equipment what do you think of? which equipment comes to your mind?
- Mrs Lilia : The bedroom, the dining room, the living room and all the household appliances like cooker, refrigerator, TV and so on.
- Interviewer : What about you Mrs Mounira?
- Mmrs Mounira : Everything we find at home : furniture, carpets..
- Interviewer : And you Mrs Souad, do you have any thing to add?
- Mrs Souad : Curtains, carpets, dishes, machines...
- Interviewer : Which machines do you use?
- Mrs Souad : The robot, the coffee maker...
- Interviewer : If we focus on things that last for long that is to say machines.
- Mrs Souad : TV, refrigerator, dishes... all these things last for long.
- Interviewer : There are things related to furniture « bedroom, living room, carpets... and others related to the kitchen, Mrs Lilia has called them « the kitchen » appliances, others have called them « machines » like robot, coffee maker, washing machine, refrigerator, and all the household appliances.
- Mrs Radia : **These machines are necessary now.** For instance **the washing machine is really necessary especially for women who work. They help them save time.**
- Mrs Lilia : **They're necessary even for those who don't work; we can't do without them.**
- Mrs Souad : I don't agree with you when you say we can't do without them because in the past we didn't have these machines. **We lived without machines but now since they are available, we are obliged to buy them.**
- Mrs Lilia : They're both **economical and helpful** ; instead of spending one hour or so washing clothes, we can do it rapidly.
- Mrs Amel : I think **that the washing machine is economical and time saving.** If you do it with your hands, you spend much time and waste a lot of water and detergent, and if you ask a maid to do it for you, it will be very expensive. Moreover, the washing machine can be used for a long time. **All the machines that were considered luxurious** like the processor, coffee maker, washing machine, cooker, refrigerator **have become necessities nowadays. They save time and help us with the housework.**
- Interviewer : Mrs Amel you have used the terms « now » and « then »: Is there really a big difference between the past and the present as far as household appliances are concerned?
- Mrs Amel : In the past no one had a coffee maker, a washing machine, a pressure cooker and yet people were happy. They never complained ; but now people say why don't we buy these machines since they help a lot. They are necessary in every house now .
- Mrs Radia : If we talk about the pressure cooker, we can say that it's necessary now. **When we arrive home late, it's the only solution. It's a necessity not a luxury. It's faster and time saving.**
- Interviewer : What other machines haven't been mentioned so far and that you find really important and necessary.

- Mrs Radia : The iron, the vacuum cleaner, and the telephone. Thanks to the telephone **you can do your shopping while you are at work**. You can ask about your children and see what they are doing while you are in your office. I find the telephone very necessary.
- Interviewer : If everyone tells me what are the 3 machines that are most important of all?
- Mrs Radia : The refrigerator, the cooker, and the TV
- Mrs Lilia : For me, the refrigerator, the cooker and the washing machine,
- Interviewer : What about you Mrs Monia?
- Mrs Monia : The cooker is necessary; of course the refrigerator, the TV and the iron.
- Mrs Lilia : We don't find time to watch TV now.
- Mrs Radia : I can't live without TV. If I don't watch TV, I feel there's something missing in my life.
- Mrs Lilia : When I watch TV, I keep dozing off. It helps me fall asleep
- Mrs Radia : I watch it even in the kitchen .
- Interviewer : And you Mrs Amel what are the 3 most important machines according to you?
- Mrs Amel : **The vacuum cleaner, the refrigerator and the cooker.**
- Interviewer : What about you Mrs Mounira?
- Mr Mounira : **The cooker, the refrigerator and the TV.**
- Interviewer : It depends on the season, are there machines which are important in winter and not important in summer or vice versa?
- Mrs Mounira : The washing machine is vital in winter because we wear woollen and heavy clothes whereas in summer it's easy to wash light clothes. In summer the refrigerator is necessary for drinks, for cold water and keeping food fresh mainly for women who work. In winter, the refrigerator isn't very necessary we can consume what we buy within the same day .
- Mrs Lilia : **We cannot do the shopping daily**, we've got used to it. TV isn't important in summer.
- Mrs Mounira : Yes, in the summer we don't watch TV as usual because the weather is hot, we always go out in hot weather. We always want to change places. The same thing for the vacuum cleaner, we don't need it in summer. I don't lie carpets so I don't need it in summer.
- Interviewer : So you all agree that it depends on the season. We've moved from the general to the specific. We've started talking in general and you've raised the question of winter and summer. In which other circumstances do you need these machines?
- Mr Radia : **For example the washing machine isn't very necessary for the small family.** In this case, we can wash clothes once a week with our hands ; on the contrary, when we have children we must wash clothes daily so it's necessary for a large family.
- Mrs Lilia : **But the washing machine cannot wash everything** ; cotton and woollen clothes should be washed with the hands.
- Mrs Radia : **The washing machine can wash all kinds of clothes.** I use it every day even for baby's clothes ; it's necessary.
- Interviewer : What do you mean by « necessary »?

- Mrs Radia : **The woman who works is always in a hurry ; she's rushing so as to save time. That's helpful even for housewives.** Is the housewife going to spend all the day doing housework? It's boring.
- Mrs Lilia : **Although I work, I rarely use machines**
- Interviewer : Why not?
- Mrs Lilia : I don't know, it's my character.
- Mrs Radia : Do you do everything alone?
- Mrs Lilia : Yes, of course. For example, I never use the processor. In the processor I grind meat in the traditional way ; **I prefer wasting time to using such machines. It's a question of pleasure. I enjoy doing it with my hands.**
- Interviewer : Don't you find pleasure when you use the machine ?
- Mr Lilia : **Meat looks and tastes different when it's done by the machine and food cooked with the pressure cooker isn't that delicious.** I don't cook with the pressure cooker.
- Mrs Radia : Personally, I don't use the pressure cooker either.
- Mrs Mounira : **I rarely use it . I use it only when I'm in a hurry.**
- Interviewer : So you all agree that the cooker and the refrigerator are the most important of all.
- Mrs Radia : Yes, they are quite necessary.
- Interviewer : So far, you've mentioned the cooker, the refrigerator, the washing machine, the vacuum cleaner, the iron. If we take them one by one. For example the refrigerator is put first on the list. What's its importance in your daily life?
- Mrs Lilia : **It's clean, secure and economical.** We can cook dinner and lunch for the following day when we are at work, our lunch is ready in the refrigerator. It's better than putting food in the cupboard. It's cleaner and more secure. Even for women who don't work. They can put everything in it; they can open a tomato tin, use what they need, then put it in the refrigerator. They can keep it for a long time. We can put butter, cheese meat, fish, fruit, vegetables, everything. So the refrigerator is necessary at home. **It's both healthy and economical. It's healthy because it keeps everything fresh and secure, and it's economic because we no longer throw left over food.** Without the refrigerator, food becomes rancid and must be thrown away. I insist on the economical side of it.
- Interviewer : So you feel that the refrigerator is money saving.
- Mrs Lilia : **Of course it is.**
- Interviewer : What about you Mrs Amel what do you think?
- Mrs Amel : In fact, I found the refrigerator since I was born, so I can't do without it now. Everything is put in the refrigerator. I don't think you can buy everyday 50 grams of butter for your breakfast, or 50 g of chilli-sauce for your meal.
- Interviewer : So the main characteristic of the refrigerator is long conservation.
- Mrs Radia : It's also economical. You keep remaining food in the refrigerator. We don't throw food. I wonder how people used to live without the refrigerator what did they do for the sheep of the Aid? Where did they keep meat?
- Mr Amel : They dry meat and keep it in oil ; it must be put in a cold place anyway like the courtyard but it's not like the refrigerator.
- Interviewer : How did you buy the refrigerator?
- Mr Amel : Like all the people when we got married we first bought a refrigerator, a cooker....

- Interviewer : So as Mrs Najoua has said, no one gets married without buying this equipment.
- Mrs Amel : Of course, first we buy the bedroom then we divide the remaining budget among refrigerator, cooker, TV .
- Interviewer : Do you agree Mrs Lilia?
- Mrs Lilia : Yes, it's true, the 3 things are bought first; then the washing machine.
- Mrs Amel : I bought the washing machine 6 months after my wedding but the refrigerator was already in the house ; it was full of things before I got into the house.
- Interviewer : What about the others? When did you buy the refrigerator?
- Mrs Najoua : I bought the refrigerator before buying the (living room), the sofas and the curtains, or the bedroom. I thought that the kitchen had to contain everything ; the bedroom isn't more necessary than the kitchen.
- Mrs Amel : But where are you going to sleep then?
- Mrs Najoua : I can sleep on a sofa. Nobody is going to see the bedroom.
- Mrs Amel : But the bedroom is necessary nowadays.
- Interviewer : So you all agree that the refrigerator is the first thing to buy.
- Mrs Lilia : Yes, we do.
- Interviewer : Does anyone find the refrigerator not that necessary ?
- Mr H : I personally spent one year without a refrigerator because I was eating with my mother in law but it's a particular case.
- Mrs Radia : But if you were eating in your house, you would have bought it immediately after your wedding.
- Mrs H : Yes of course. **It's difficult to live without a refrigerator.**
- Mrs Radia : My refrigerator has been used for 16 years. I don't use it anymore now. Although it's still good I have ordered another one.
- Mrs M : I spent 2 days without a refrigerator and I felt nervous. A person who hasn't got a refrigerator mustn't do the shopping. I feel going backwards. **I feel that the refrigerator is part of development and civilisation** ; it's necessary and vital.
- Interviewer : What other things in your house do you find as important as the refrigerator?
- Mrs H : The cooker and the TV.
- Interviewer : I imagine you're going to give a name to the refrigerator. What will you call it?
- H : It must be a very important name in history, a name that we will never forget. May be « Ibn Khaldoun ».
- Interviewer : And you Mrs Najoua which name is suitable for the refrigerator? Which proverb can show its importance?
- Mrs Amel : « Without the refrigerator I can do nothing »
- Mr H : « It's everything in my life »
- Interviewer : You've considered television as being important. Let's talk about it now. What's its importance in your life?
- Mrs R : First of all it's a means of education , even social education for those who don't go to school. It's also a means of information. It tells you all that happens all over the world at any time. It adds many things. It entertains you in your spare-time.
- Interviewer : What does it add to your life?

- Mrs Radia : It adds everything. Through advertisement you know what is found in the market ; the TV gives a clear picture of everything. It's necessary in our house nowadays.
- Interviewer : So it must be at every home?
- Mrs Radia : Yes it's necessary even when we are in the kitchen, it keeps functioning ; if the light breaks down, we immediately go to bed ; we don't feel lonely or bored when we are in front of the TV. The family is united only in front of the TV.
- Interviewer : Who hasn't got a TV now?
- Mrs Lilia : I think that those who have children shouldn't have a TV set because children may neglect their studies and their homework.
- Mrs Radia : But we must decide when they can watch TV and when they can't; you must control your children. It's a problem now because we have the « satellite dish » and there are many programs which might have bad effects on children mainly adolescents ; parents must be careful.
- Mrs H : Parents who have teenagers had better not buy the satellite dish
- Mrs Lilia : Not only the satellite dish but the TV itself.
- Interviewer : But there are programs like cartoons that are necessary for children ; what about adults? don't you think that the TV is important for them?
- Mrs Monia : I think that TV is necessary for children and adults who spend a long time at home. It's a means of entertainment and education.
- Mrs N : My children like TV very much ; but I rarely watch it. I let them watch TV because they are still very young. So I need TV; it helps me; it's a means to keep children calm.
- Interviewer : Who hasn't got a TV set now?
- Mrs Radia : I don't think there are families without TV.
- Interviewer : Now let's talk about something else; what do you think about the chip fryer ?
- Mrs Malika : **It's practical, it fries everything .**
- Interviewer : What do you mean by everything?
- Mrs Monia : Chicken, potatoes, meat balls, everything, we put everything and close it. It's easy and clean.
- Interviewer : What kind of people own the chip fryer.
- Mrs Monia : In general **people who have children, have money and find pleasure in the kitchen** ; people who like potatoes especially children, if you haven't got children you're not going to need it. If you have children we use it all the time, **it's very practical and fast.**
- Interviewer : Are there any people who say that the chip fryer isn't necessary?
- Mr N : I think the majority of people like it.
- Mrs A : **Personally I want to buy the thing I haven't got at home I want to try it?**
- Interviewer : Give us an example.
- Mrs A : For example I haven't got a chip fryer, I want to buy it ;
- Interviewer : What's the advantage of it?
- Mrs A : **It's practical and clean.** There's no smell in the house. No oil on the kitchen floor, it is clean.
- Mrs Monia : You can even keep potatoes half fried in the freezer then put it directly in the fryer ; if you fry with the usual pan, the kitchen becomes dirty.

- Interviewer : What are the other utensils that you find necessary ?
- Mr Monia : I think we've mentioned all of them, unless we think of a machine that can give us ready food? we hope so !
- Mrs A : We wish there's a machine that can lie clothes on the rope or iron clothes.
- Interviewer : Why is iron important for you?
- Mrs A : No there are simple irons and others with vapour. There are also irons with press systems.
- Mrs N : It helps a lot. Personally, every morning I have to prepare the table and iron my husband's clothes.
- Interviewer : Does your husband ever iron his clothes by himself?
- Mrs A : Yes, he sometimes irons when I'm busy.
- Mrs S : If my husband irons the clothes, he will burn them.
- Mrs R : As for me, my husband makes the table and the iron ready and calls me to iron. He sometimes helps me in the kitchen but he can't iron clothes .
- Mrs M : Whenever I find the table ready when I get up in the morning I understand that I have to iron my husband's clothes before doing anything
- Interviewer : I want to know which machine seems unnecessary in the house.
- Mrs A : **Everything is necessary**
- Mrs M : **Frankly with these machines women have become lazy.** In the past women used to make «couscous» at home ; now they buy it ready. They buy everything ready. We find these machines helpful so we buy this or that machine until they have become all necessary. **I don't talk about women who work but I talk about housewives who can do everything with the machines in 2 hours and then relax.** So machines make of us lazy people.
- Interviewer : What about you Mrs Najoua? Do you agree?
- Mrs Najoua : **I find them necessary even for housewives because they help.** Housework is boring and tiresome. We have to repeat the same tasks every day. It's monotonous.
- Interviewer : Mrs Radia, do you agree that machines make of us lazy people?
- Mrs Radia : I find machines necessary because I work ; if a machine breaks down I become upset, I can do nothing ; I don't know what to do. **I'm accustomed to using them. I can't do without them. Everything in the kitchen is indispensable.**
- Interviewer : Are there machines that you haven't bought and that you think are not necessary for the family?
- Mrs M : But everything becomes important gradually.
- Interviewer : The more you use them the more necessary they become?
- Mrs M : Yes, exactly.
- Interviewer : Are there any machines that you had initially considered necessary, but after buying them you only used them once or twice, then put them in the cupboard for ever?
- Mrs M : For example the machine that cooks eggs; I used it once then I stopped using it.
- Mrs Radia : The one that makes orange juice also. We used it only for a very short period.
- Interviewer : How did you buy the machine that cooks eggs?
- Mrs M : **I was shopping in a store I saw it and bought it .**
- Mrs Radia : **It's missing in the house, so I bought it that's all.**

- Mrs M : Yes, certainly.
- Interviewer : What kind of help can it add to the family?
- Mr M : 15 years ago when my children were young, they wanted boiled eggs for breakfast, I used it for a short time, **but I no longer use it now.**
- Mrs Radia : We can also give another example, the toaster. I used it only 2 or 3 times.
- Interviewer : Why did you buy it? Did you think it was necessary?
- Mrs Radia : **I bought it because it was missing in the kitchen. Maybe just for pleasure or something.**
- Interviewer : How do you feel when you buy a machine?
- Mrs Radia : **I feel happy, of course.**
- Mrs M : There are machines that you put in the kitchen just that people buy for decoration. They don't use them but just decorate their house with them.
- Interviewer : Are there machines put in the kitchen only for pleasure, or that you just use from time to time.
- Mrs M : **The centrifugal machine** I like it in summer and winter. **I put it in the kitchen in front of me, next to the coffee maker. I use it in winter to make orange juice and in summer to make lemonade. It is pretty, and I like having it in front of me all the time.**
- Interviewer : What other machines are put in the kitchen?
- Mrs M : **The washing machine is also nice in the kitchen**
- Interviewer : For whom is it nice?
- Mrs M : For the mother of course; **she feels happy because she has everything in the kitchen, just within reach.**
- Mrs M : There are people who have machines as ornaments.
- Mrs M : **I use my machines in the kitchen. I enjoy cooking. I sometimes cook better than a professional cook in a restaurant.**
- Mrs Radhia : **I don't find time to use them.** The maid uses them. **I'm usually tired after work.**
- Interviewer : Do you sometimes appreciate your kitchen and feel happy while wondering about it?
- Mrs Radia : Yes when we put new staff in it and we painted, it we changed its decoration.
- Mrs M : The only moment I felt happy was when I bought the freezer. I was still working so I felt happy with it. Of course the cooker and the refrigerator were already there.
- Interviewer : Do you put all the household appliances in the kitchen?
- Mrs Radia : No I keep the kitchen neat ; I put a vase of flowers on the buffet.
- Mrs M : I have a little corner for meals. A table on which there's the centrifugal machine and the coffee maker and some other gadgets.
- Interviewer : Have you got anything to add concerning household appliances and their importance in your life?
- Mrs M : We hope all the people can afford these things not only people in urban areas but also those living in rural areas as well.
- Interviewer : Thank you very much for this discussion. Mr Abdelfatteh, have you got anything to ask before we finish ?
- MrAbdelfatteh : Do you know why I haven't intervened in the discussion? Just because I don't like to bias it. You have generously participated in an academic

research. At present I'm carrying out a research which has no relation with specific products or brands; it's mainly about the use of household appliances and their importance in our daily life especially for working women. I haven't intervened in the discussion.

MEN GROUP/MIDDLE CLASS

- Interviewer : Welcome Mr Ahmed. What do you do?
 Mr Ahmed : I'm a civil servant in the Ministry of Commerce
 Interviewer : How many children have you got?
 Mr Ahmed : I've got four children . 2 sons and 2 daughters. The youngest is 14 years old.
 Interviewer : What about you Mr Habib ?
 Mr Habib : I'm a taxi driver. I've got 4 children.
 Interviewer : What does the word house equipment mean to you? What do you think?
 Habib : - House equipment means refrigerator, cooker, iron, machines, furniture, everything we find in the house.
 Mr Ahmed : I want to know what's the purpose of this study and this meeting?
 - Interviewer : Well, the purpose of this study is to know to what extent house equipment is important in our Tunisian houses.
 - Mr Ahmed : How do you choose families?
 - Interviewer : We choose families from all over the country, sometimes we talk to wealthy families and sometimes to middle class families .
 - Mr Ahmed : In fact, equipment possession depends on economic conditions. Some families have one TV set, other families have a TV set in every room and even in the kitchen. Besides, there are necessities and luxuries. For example the cooker and the refrigerator are necessities but video or minitel are luxuries. The radio set and the TV set have also become necessary nowadays.
 - Interviewer : Mr Habib, what are the necessities according to you?
 - Mr Habib : The refrigerator and the cooker are very necessary. There are even families who say that the satellite dish or multi-media-computer is necessary. In such families, a 5- year old child learns multi-media whereas there are families who still haven't got a radio set. These are exceptions of course.
 - Interviewer : Let's talk about families who have more or less the same living standard.
 - Mr Habib : We can buy a washing machine with 150 D as we can buy it with one thousand Dinars; for me the washing machine is in the fourth position. It's after the cooker, the refrigerator and television, I think these are all necessary nowadays.
 - Interviewer : There are some families who have machines for washing the dishes. What do you think?
 - Mr Habib : **Women who work want everything.** They want even ready-made food. I wonder what's their role then? The main role of the partners is to maintain family life. They must share the responsibilities. If both of us work outside the home, we must also share the responsibilities inside the home. If I work outside, I must provide everything for my family and have many duties. **There are situations where a woman doesn't work outside the home and still wants to have all household equipment ;** and all she has to do is prepare food for her children, then stay long hours in front of the

TV set while the husband has to bring everything, even ready food. Sometimes, I think this is not logical. I don't find the dish washer necessary at all. It's not even a luxury. It is a squander of money.

- Interviewer : We started talking about house equipment and we've found ourselves talking about the role of the woman at home.

- Mr Habib : Of course, life has changed so much. Women used to bake bread at home; she didn't use to buy it ready from the bakery. Machines have replaced the hands. **In fact household appliances facilitate every thing for women.**

- Interviewer : Can you speak about your personal experience? Can you give us a particular example of a machine that you didn't use and you've noticed that it is really helpful and has made life easy for women ?

Mr Habib : **Women have both cookers and pressure cookers which help them a lot. They can also watch TV while cooking. They can have a TV set in the kitchen, with the remote control in their hands.** So life has become so easy for them. Development has helped women in the first place. We've given them nothing. Circumstances have helped women. They have imposed nothing upon us. We've bought the pressure cooker, the washing machine to protect the woman's hands. Ever since, she never washes with her hands. We don't blame her, she has not forced us to buy it for her but this is thanks to development. Who knows, in the future, if we find a robot, we buy it for her use in the kitchen. Whenever we find some thing that pleases us we don't hesitate to buy it. Women now are different from women in the past. At present, **women have more responsibilities and tiresome tasks than before.** The mother takes her children to school and goes shopping. She's always in a hurry because she works outside. So we must help them inside. In the past, women used to have two or three tasks at home and that's all : baking bread and cooking food and children used to stay home before school age. Now it's different. We have nurseries and schools ; **she takes her children then brings them back home** ; and soon, she goes home to cook lunch. **She's always busy. We must facilitate the tasks for women especially for working mothers.** Nowadays, TV and radio repeat the same programs. We no longer watch Italian programs ; we are obliged to buy a satellite dish, and subscribe to cable television to watch good films. At 8.30 after the serials there's nothing special on TV. As Mr Ahmed has just said, it has been imposed on us.

- Interviewer : What about you Mr Ahmed?

- Mr Ahmed : The things that I consider more useful than others are the cooker, the refrigerator, the washing machine and the pressure cooker which has been imposed on us because we are all the time rushing and we find that **the pressure cooker consumes less time and gas** than if we cook in a normal pot. Although its food is less delicious, we don't mind that. When I am hungry, I want to find lunch ready and that's all. I don't care about taste. During the whole week no one can find time. Sunday is the only day I become demanding.

- Interviewer : Do all of you have pressure cookers at home?

- Mr Ahmed : We have one but we never use it.

- Interviewer : Why have you decided to buy it then ?

-Mr Salah : I've bought a pressure cooker without having to make a decision in 1974. I went to France I saw people using it so I bought one. Now I have it at home. Because the family has become larger, it is helpful.

- Interviewer : Do you like it?

- Mr Ahmed : Yes, absolutely. When I buy beef it's cooked within 20 minutes. So it's fast and it consumes less gas ; since it is available why don't we buy it?
- Interviewer : What about you Mr Abdelkader? Why did you buy the pressure cooker?
- Mr Abdelkader : I was abroad ; when I returned to Tunisia, I brought it among the other household appliances, that's all.
- Mr Habib : As for me, my wife brought it with her when we got married.
- Interviewer : And you Mr Salah, has your wife asked you to buy a **pressure cooker** for her?
- Mr Salah : **Why will she ask me to buy it since she doesn't work outside, she has plenty of time.**
- Interviewer : Do you think that housewives don't need the pressure cooker?
- Respondent : No I think that **it's more necessary for working mothers.** When children grow up and go to school, the mother must adapt to her children's conditions. **So the pressure cooker helps her a lot.**
- Interviewer : According to you, the pressure cooker helps the mother to plan and arrange her life.
- Mr Habib : Yes, certainly. Time is valuable now ; as we say « time is gold » when children arrive home at midday and have to go back to school at 2 p.m., **they must find lunch ready**; they can't wait; **the pressure cooker plays an important role in the family's everyday life.** The question of time according to me is a question of planning. The mother must plan everything: she must plan reviewing her children's lessons, preparing the meals and so on. However, if she keeps chatting with her neighbour for a long time or sits in front of the TV set for hours and then she cooks with the pressure cooker; it's not acceptable.
- Respondent - I don't think there's a woman who visits her neighbour in the morning now.
- Respondent - Women nowadays don't do the shopping every day. They do the shopping once a week. They used to do the shopping every day; their husbands used to give them every day a certain amount of money and they had to manage the household. Now every thing has changed. **An organised woman can plan her activities the whole week.**
- Interviewer : Mr Ahmed do you think that machines help women better plan their family life ?
- Mr Ahmed : to a certain extent. But planning is more important than machines.
- Interviewer : What about you Mr Lotfi what can you say about the refrigerator? why is it useful at home?
- Mr Lotfi : It's necessary for many reasons. For example for food, drinks, in summer time, we want to drink a cold glass of water or eat an ice cream. So, it **provides cold drinks and keeps food for longer times. It's also economical,** we can buy meat or fish only once a week. We can keep fruit and vegetables for a long time as well. There are 2 kinds of refrigerators. A refrigerator with one door and another one with 2 doors. **The refrigerator keeps every thing fresh and prevents food from getting dirty and polluted.**
- Interviewer - What do you think about the two door refrigerator?
- Respondent : It's better than the other? It conserves meat , fish for a longer period ; even chilli-sauce and green peas.

- Interviewer - Who has got a two door refrigerator?
 - Mr Ahmed : I've got one ?
 - Interviewer : Can you tell me how you have decided to buy it and why?
 - Mr Ahmed : My wife has suggested buying it because she claims that **it can conserve everything for a long duration**, not like the normal one.
 Interviewer : has she convinced you?
 Mr Kamel - Yes , we've never disagreed about any thing . No one imposes ideas on the other.
 Interviewer - What about you Mr Lotfi, you used to have a one door refrigerator and now you have a new one with 2 doors, don't you?
 Mr Lotfi - Yes we used the first one for 3 or 4 years; then when it broke down, we decided to buy another one.
 Interviewer - Why have you bought a two door refrigerator?
 Mr Lotfi - Of course for **providing ice cream to the kids and for keeping meat and fish during a long time**.
 - Interviewer : Has any one among you decided to buy a two door refrigerator because of long conservation? What's the importance of long conservation then?
 Mr Ahmad - It's more economical we can even conserve peas.
 - Interviewer : So every thing depends on the wife. The husband has no idea about this.
 - Mr Kamel : It's only thanks to women that we have reached such a situation. **Women themselves have lost something since they work inside and outside the home**. I'm not against women's work but I'm sure 90% of women work for their make up and their sandwiches. So what's the benefit of her work. Personally, my wife doesn't work. I don't find it beneficial at all. **The wife would better stay home and looks after her children instead of rushing all the time** and cooking with the pressure cooker. **Technology has profited from women's work to sell machines and products and we are all obliged now to buy these**. Everyone buys them. Sometimes, we buy utensils that we use only once a year. Any wife says these are only for guests. but is the guest better than me? I don't know why? There are dishes and machines which are really necessary but there are others which we are obliged to buy like the washing machine or the dish washer. We buy them on the grounds that women don't find enough time. **When she goes back home late or when she is in a hurry she can just press the buttons and relax** but if we think deeply, we realize that we have won nothing by such a change.
 - Interviewer : Mr Kamel, you're right but I don't totally agree with you concerning women's staying at home because you are against women's work ; and this is possible for you but not possible for others. You mustn't forget that there are some people who earn only 150 D or 200 D a month and who still have to pay the rent ! So women's work becomes a necessity. Either the wife or the daughter has to work to help with family expenses. It's not for make-up and so on...
 - Mr Kamel : If the woman works to help her husband financially it's OK, but I'm not talking about these. I' m talking about the majority because what we must take into consideration is that women who work are always talking about their money and this is dangerous because she has her financial independence.
 Interviewer : Mr Kamel let's go back to the equipment which has developed as you've said. Do only women who work ask for this equipment?

- Mr Kamel : **When the working mother arrives home late she's obliged to do what she hasn't done during the whole day. She resorts to machines she turns the washing machine on while cooking dinner etc.** On the contrary, house wives can do everything at their ease. They have enough time.

Respondent - **The mother who works outside has to cook lunch one night before and keep it in the refrigerator for use the day after, although fresh food is better for health.** She is obliged to do so.

Interviewer : Mr Kamel has just talked about the utensils that we buy and we rarely use. We just buy them for decoration. What can you say about this?

Mr Ahmad : These are customs and habits; **normally the utensils and the equipment that we buy must be used everyday, but the idea of keeping them for guests is common** among both illiterate and educated women. They keep all the valuable equipment for guests. Personally, I had problems with my wife about this. I'm against the idea of using nice carpets and valuable services only when a guest arrives. Are these guests dearer than me? I always tell my wife to use this or that carpet but she doesn't want to ; she says it becomes dirty. Why are guests allowed to walk on carpets while I can't. This is her mentality. She wants to show the best things for guests and keep her house tidy and clean. Nowadays **modern women don't imitate their grand mothers** in everything but **sometimes they do it out of habit.**

Mr Kamel : We used to hide many things, like carpets and services, for use in particular circumstances like when receiving guests ; what do we hide today? Do we hide machines for such circumstances? There are machines which are not used during the whole year such as the orange juice maker. It's only during a particular period of time, only when oranges are available. **We buy it for pleasure. We want to buy it because it's something new that's all.** It's not really necessary. I think that the TV set, the refrigerator, the cooker and, in the fourth position, the washing machine, are necessities but all the other appliances are not really necessary.

- Interviewer : What about your cooker, has it got an oven in it?

- Mr Kamel : At first, we started with a small cooker without an oven. It's only got 3 fires in it.

- Interviewer : Why have you decided to buy a new one ?

- Mr Kamel : Development has obliged us.

- Mr Lotfi : I think this is not a question of development ; our Tunisian food is based on pasta as well as grilled lamb and fish. **They need an oven for such dishes.**

- Respondent : : Now fish is not as expensive as last year.

- Mr Kamel : But fish is still expensive, I think.

- Mr Lotfi : No, the kilo of fish which used to cost 7 D now can be bought at 2D400 M.

- Interviewer : What's the relation between this and the oven?

- Mr Lotfi : We used to grill meat using old utensils; but now we don't use them any longer. We use the oven instead. We use the oven for roasts or cakes. When kitchen programs are finished, my wife switches off the TV and asks her children to buy eggs and flour for her. She always wants to try these cakes. **She tries them at my expense of course.**

- Interviewer : Does she try them at your expenses or does she want to provide for her family everything delicious and new?

- Mr Lotfi : In fact there's no difference between my money or hers. It's at the expense of the whole family but we eat delicious cakes, as a matter of fact.
- Interviewer : Mr Kamel you've said that you've bought the oven because you are obliged to, but don't you think it's very necessary in your life?
- Mr Kamel : **It's not very necessary.** I don't think we use it more than once a week.
- Mr Lotfi : But now the oven is very useful. We can bake bread in it.
- Mr Kamel : I think it's necessary for wealthy people because they always eat grilled lamb or beef steak but for us, middle class people, I don't think we can eat these things daily. We use the oven once a week ; for the rest of the week, we eat «couscous», vegetables, spaguetti, and so on. I know there are people who use the oven daily. They eat grilled lamb for lunch and a big roast fish for dinner ; they also eat lots of fruits and cakes.
- Mr Ahmed : I personally use the oven only once a month.
- Interviewer : Let's talk again about the washing machine, what's its importance?
- Mr Lotfi : I personally have a washing machine. I find it helpful for the mother. She can wash her children's clothes, the sheets and so on... There are some people who have the big machines that do the rinsing and the drying ; but I have a small one . It only does the washing. It helps a lot. The mother who has children at school can never use the machine while cleaning the house.
- Mr Kamel : Yes, I agree. It helps a lot ; washing clothes with the machine is less tiresome than washing with the hands. Nowadays the mother has many tasks. She must take her children to school then bring them back home; so **she needs some rest**. In the past, women used to live in difficult conditions; they used to wash blankets and sheets, their husband's and their children's clothes with their hands; they used to spend the whole day washing and cleaning and this is at the expense of their health ; at the age of 40 or 50 they already look very old.
- Interviewer : What about you, Mr Ahmed, what do you think?
- Mr Ahmad : Nowadays children wear jeans during the day and put on suits at night, and so on. So they change clothes so often ; whereas in the past the man used to wear a pair of trousers during the whole week. Now everything has changed. The mother needs a machine to help her. The machine is necessary but we mustn't forget that it consumes a lot of electricity. The bill of electricity is very expensive so these machines help the mother but at the same time the family is deeply affected. If we go into details, we don't talk only about bills of water or electricity. There are other bills. Sometimes we receive all the bills together. I once paid 140 D for electricity.
- Interviewer : Do the bills have a relation with these machines?
- Mr Ahmed : Of course they do ; how do machines function? They function with electricy, gas, etc. Take the example of the refrigerator. Many people stop it in the winter to save electricity but it's a mistake because there's a survey which says that the refrigerator consumes a lot of electricity only at the beginning , but later it doesn't consume so much ; if you stop it then turn it on, it will consume more than if you keep it functioning during the whole year. Compared to the refrigerator, the washing machine consumes too much.
- Interviewer : Do you all have washing machines? Who hasn't got one?
- Mr Lotfi : We all have one
- Mr Kamel : Personally I bought it when I had my first baby.

- Interviewer : Why ? Has your wife asked you to buy it?
- Mr Kamel : **I thought it was necessary.** The child takes a lot of her time ; the small machine costs only 180 D and **it doesn't consume a lot of electricity ;**
- Mr Ahmed : I bought it for 98 D at that time. It's not expensive at all. I've got three children. We need a washing machine at home.
- Interviewer : What about you Mr Lotfi?
- Mr Lotfi : I didn't buy it. My brother in law was in Saudi Arabia. So we asked him to bring one for us.
- Interviewer : Why have you asked him to bring it for you? Have you really felt that it was necessary?
- Mr Lotfi : When my first baby was born, and I'd seen my wife busy all the time because of her work outside, I felt that it was necessary. She could not do all the house work on Sunday. At least the machine can help her. So she asked her brother who worked abroad ; and he sent one for us and the problem was solved.
- Mr Ahmed : There's another machine that no one has mentioned so far : the heater. Most of us live in flats and in houses which are very cold ; so children can't study if the house isn't properly heated. Most of us have a petrol heater. It keeps the house warm. My two twin daughters were born in December and the doctor told me that I had to heat the room for them. So I bought 2 for them and put them near their beds. The following year I bought an electric heater. It's really necessary in winter, especially in cold weather. We need some warmth after being outside in the rain and cold. For me, the electric heater is more necessary than the washing machine ; there are some people who heat their houses with old utensils.
- Interviewer : What about you, when did you buy the washing machine?
- Respondent - My wife had problems with her skin. She could no longer wash clothes with her hands ; so her mother lent us a machine that we kept for a long time. I felt that it was really necessary and I finally bought one. As my friend has just said, I also find the heater necessary in the house. In cold weather, we must heat our houses.
- Interviewer : Do you think that machines help women a lot and avoid tiredness?
- Respondent - Regardless of tiredness, **these machines have imposed themselves on us.** It's normal to find a washing machine, a refrigerator in every house. In 1978, there was the world cup final and Tunisia went to Argentina. A friend of mine who was abroad bought a TV set. It was something relatively new at that time. I went to his house daily. This is something almost unfeasible now .
- Interviewer : Among the machines that we've mentioned, are there any that were unusual and that now seem quite normal ?
- Respondent - In fact, all the machines that we've talked about are usual now. In 1966 in Hammam Lif during the world cup final, there was a café in which there was a TV set. We used to go there to watch football matches and before the match started the waiter asked us to drink something ;then he switched off the TV set and asked us to order another drink, otherwise, we couldn't watch the match.
- Interviewer : He wanted to collect the price of the TV set then !
- Respondent : Now television is found everywhere. I bought the TV set, the refrigerator, the cooker, the washing machine, even the mixer and the telephone.
- Mr Ahmed : He bought all these things before having children. I'm sure if he had children at school at that time, he couldn't have bought all these things, not even half of them; it's very difficult for a salaried man to buy this equipment and provide for

the family. Last week, a woman wanted to sell a satellite dish though it's sophisticated and many people advised me to buy it, I refused. I had 500 D with me but I didn't want to buy it, in my house. Apart from TV I have neither a video nor a satellite dish.

- Interviewer : There are 2 points of view. The first one says that we must keep up with development gradually and buy all these things. The second says that we must buy only the necessities; now I want to ask you another question: Do you help your wives with the house work?

- Mr Ahmed : Of course I do, I sweep the floor , wash the dishes and so on.

- Interviewer : Do you know how to use the washing machine?

- Mr Ahmed : No, I don't. My wife sometimes gives me clothes after washing them and asks me to lie them on the rope . That's all .

- Interviewer : I think that since you have bought the machine you must learn how it works.

- Mr Lotfi : Some tasks are related to men and others are related to women. Personally I never sweep the floor or wash clothes. I'm privileged because I have two twenty-two year old daughters who help their mother at home ; I don't do any thing at home. My sons don't help either ; the only thing I like to do is prepare the table before lunch, that's all.

- Interviewer : Do you help only on special occasions?

- Mr Kamel : Yes, I prepare the table because I enjoy doing it.

- Interviewer : I want to ask those who help their wives if they stop helping them when they buy the machine?

- Mr Kamel : **Whenever I find my wife busy I feel that it's necessary to help her.** It's my duty I do it. I help willingly.

- Mr Lotfi : It depends on the character of the person. When I find my wife busy in the kitchen, I immediately help her. **I don't wash clothes because I've bought her the machine. I have helped her a lot since all she has to do is just turn the machine on.**

- Interviewer : What about you Mr Kamel? What's your point of view.

- Mr Kamel : I help my wife. I prepare the table, I make a salad, I tidy up the house.

- Mr Ahmad : **When my wife asks me to help her, I won't do it ; I want to do it spontaneously.**

- Interviewer : Do you help your wife only because she works outside?

- Mr Lotfi : My wife doesn't work but I help her. I sometimes make coffee for my children. When the occasion presents itself for help, I do it without hesitation. **I don't like orders.** It has become almost a duty. There's a usual question, do you help your wife at home? Now what does this question mean? **Some women are worth helping, others aren't.**

- Interviewer : Let's go back to house hold equipment. I want to know if you buy machines for a particular purpose and which machine would you buy if you had money.

- Mr Kamel : If I had money, I would change my refrigerator and buy a processor for milk shakes, meat grinding and many other things.

- Interviewer : But we can grind meat with the traditional machine.

- Mr Kamel : Oh! I don't think people use it now. We want something automatic.

- Mr Ali : **I'm against robots. I don't find them necessary.** I hope the TV and refrigerator won't break down. That's enough for me.
- Interviewer : What about you Mr Lotfi ?
- Mr Ali : For me, the TV, refrigerator, cooker and washer are enough. These are necessary pieces of equipment; I don't think about others. I'm sure even if I buy them, **they won't be used very often.**
- Interviewer : Do your wives ask you to buy these things because they help them?
- Mr Lotfi : Not only for help, they ask for everything new like the satellite dish. It's required by the family now but it's expensive; many people can't afford it.
- Mr Ahmed : Cable TV is also expensive. If it was priced reasonably, we would accept it ; but those who have cable TV have to pay 30 D a month. Those who have children have to buy everything for them. For example a motor bike is very useful.
- Interviewer : What about you Mr Ahmed?
- Mr Ali : As far as I'm concerned my ambition and the ambition of the whole family is to buy a car. It's really necessary but I can't afford it now. For me, the car is much more important and necessary than the satellite dish.
- Interviewer : Is there a piece of equipment that you see either in shops or in other people's houses and you think you will never need and will never plan to buy?
- Mr Ahmed : When I go to the supermarket, I never look at the department of household equipment.
- Interviewer : Why not?
- Mr Ali : I think that I have all that I need ; it's a waste of time when I go shopping, I go immediately towards the item that I am in need of. For example if I need a suit for my daughter, I go directly and take it. If I want a packet of biscuits, I go directly to the food department and take it. In fact everything in the store can be bought. Shall I spend 100 D or 200 D a day ?
- Interviewer : Do you think that there are machines that seem really unnecessary or and that will never be used?
- Mr Lotfi : **The robot for milk shake or for orange juice is for wealthy people. I make orange juice with my hands.** If I want I can buy it from BATAM (a durables distribution company) and pay it in instalments but I don't like to do it. If you go to courts and prisons, you will find so many cases attracted towards unnecessary equipment. These people become incapable of paying their monthly bills.
- Interviewer : There are people who have everything at home even the dishwashing machine. What do you think?
- Mr Ahmed : Of course there are people who have everything that we can find in the store.
- Interviewer : What do you think about the dish washer ?
- Mr Ali : **When I buy the dish washer I will send my wife to her father's house. The other thing that I find really unnecessary is the vacuum cleaner. The woman becomes a robot herself. She has just to press the buttons, that's all;** she will find nothing to do. She will get bored. She will quarrel with her husband.
- Mr Lotfi : Here I want to mention a story in a serial, a girl got married with a very rich man. Her dream was to have an important account at the bank and to own a luxurious car. She married this man who bought her a very expensive car and put a considerable amount of money on her name at the bank. Later he died and she found

herself alone. She lived in a luxurious comfortable house but lived only with the equipment. She felt really sad and committed suicide.

- Interviewer : What conclusion can we draw then?

- Mr Lotfi : Everything is provided for her but she isn't happy; money doesn't make you happy ; what is important is not money or equipment ; there are people who live with the minimum standard and are extremely happy. They don't need a dish washer or a washing machine to feel happy. Development has imposed these things on us. Some people suffer from financial crisis and cannot buy these machines. They feel frustrated. In Tunisia many people still have financial problems.

- Interviewer : Have you ever decided to buy something but your wife disapproved because she thought that it wasn't necessary.

- Mr Lotfi : Yes, I wanted to buy a cooker with 600 D but my wife said it was too expensive ; she did not like it and said that there are other makes that are cheaper and better.

- Mr Ahmed : So you bought a video instead ?

- Mr Lotfi : I bought the video for my son, because he wants cartoons and goes to his aunt's or uncle's house and they don't let him watch his preferred TV program. So I've decided to buy a video for him.

- Interviewer : Mr Abdelfattah, have you got any thing to add?

- Mr Lotfi : Why don't you participate in this discussion Mr Abdelfattah?

- Mr Abdelfattah : Notice that we haven't mentioned a special brand name of a product or a machine. For example it always happens in an institute of research that some companies want to know what people think about them or about their makes . In fact, this is not my purpose. My purpose is merely scientific. What we want to know is what people think and what are their attitudes towards this equipment and to what extent this equipment can be used to help them in their families and in their daily lives.

- Mr Lotfi : What conclusion can we draw from this discussion? How and where can we read about it?

Mr Ahmed : Does your research have an affect on the products that are sold or on prices?

Mr Abdelfatteh : No, It has nothing to do with this. It has no relation with commerce. It's scientific research about consumer behaviour. Personally, as a researcher in this field I'm interested in some problems and therefore I want to deal with them and write about them. Writing a book on this is one of my projects. I'm not going to say to companies that Tunisians are going to buy such and such products; so give them a discount. Again, thank you very much for your collaboration.

- Interviewer : Excuse me, I haven't asked those of you who came late about their jobs?

- Mr Ali : I work in the ministry Education

- Interviewer : What about your Mr Kamel?

- Mr Kamel : I work in the ministry of Finance

- Interviewer : And you Mr Ahmed?

- Mr Ahmed : I work in a private company.

Dear sir and Madam,

As part of its research activities, the Tunis University of Business, Economics and Law is conducting a study on durable goods and the attitudes of husbands and wives towards them. By filling in this questionnaire, you are helping a researcher prepare a thesis on consumer behaviour. The information given will be viewed by the University and the researcher as highly confidential and shall be used for strictly scientific purposes.

Thank you very much for your collaboration

The University of Law, Economics and Business

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PART ONE - TO BE COMPLETED BY BOTH SPOUSES OR BY ONE OF THEM**SECTION I : DURABLES OWNERSHIP**

Which of the following durables does your family own ?

1 - list number one

Fridge (without Freezer)	/ 1 /
Fridge with Freezer	/ 2 /
Freezer	/ 3 /
Cooker without Stove	/ 4 /
Cooker with Stove	/ 5 /
Electrical Oven	/ 6 /
Microwave Oven	/ 7 /
Washer (semi-automatic)	/ 8 /
Washer with Dryer (automatic)	/ 9 /
Dish-washer	/ 10 /

2 - list number two

Vacuum-cleaner	/ 1 /
Pressure-cooker	/ 2 /
Chip-fryer	/ 3 /
Coffee-maker	/ 4 /
multifunction -processor	/ 5 /
Threshing-machine (moulin)	/ 6 /
Lemon-squeezer	/ 7 /
Juce extractor (presse-fruits ; centrifugeuse)/	/ 8 /
Centrifugal machine	/ 9 /
Electrical coffee-mill	/ 10 /
Mixer	/ 11 /
Toaster	/ 12 /
Electrical tin-opener	/ 13 /
Electrical knife	/ 14 /

as
separate units

3 - list number three

Telephone	/ 1 /
Cassette recorder	/ 2 /
VCR	/ 3 /
CD player	/ 4 /
Color TV set	/ 5 /
Camera	/ 6 /
Parabola	/ 7 /
Personal library	/ 8 /
Personal Car	/ 9 /
Second Car	/ 10 /
Motorcycle	/ 11 /

SECTION II. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE HOUSEHOLD

1/ What is your dwelling type ?

house or house level	/ 1 /
apartment in a building	/ 2 /
old-dwelling	/ 3 /
other (specify)	/ 4 /

2/ Are you?

an owner	/ 1 /
a renter	/ 2 /
free dwelling (government, boss, family)	/ 3 /
other (specify)	/ 4 /

Appendix B: Original Questionnaire

3/ Are there any members of the extended family living with you? Yes /_1_/ No /_2_/

(if yes, specify who : mother, father, mother in-law, father in-law, brother or sister, other)

4/ Number, sex and age of siblings:

Child	Sex				Age in years
1/	Mas	/_/_/	Fem	/_/_/	_____
2/	Mas	/_/_/	Fem	/_/_/	_____
3/	Mas	/_/_/	Fem	/_/_/	_____
4/	Mas	/_/_/	Fem	/_/_/	_____
5/	Mas	/_/_/	Fem	/_/_/	_____
6/	Mas	/_/_/	Fem	/_/_/	_____
7/	Mas	/_/_/	Fem	/_/_/	_____

5/ Does your family use any hired help? /_1_/ yes
/_2_/ no

(If the answer is yes, what kind of help is it)? /_1_/ daily help
/_2_/ once a week
/_3_/ once a fortnight
/_4_/ once a month

SECTION III. ROLE DISTRIBUTION

In your family, who holds responsibility for the following household activities (responsibility for a task includes either actually completing the task oneself or supervising its completion.)?

1 - washing clothes

husband entirely /_1_/
husband more than wife /_2_/
husband and wife equally /_3_/
wife more than husband /_4_/
wife entirely /_5_/

2 - cooking the meals

husband entirely /_1_/
husband more than wife /_2_/
husband and wife equally /_3_/
wife more than husband /_4_/
wife entirely /_5_/

3 - washing the dishes

husband entirely /_1_/
husband more than wife /_2_/
husband and wife equally /_3_/
wife more than husband /_4_/
wife entirely /_5_/

4 - preparing breakfast

husband entirely /_1_/
husband more than wife /_2_/
husband and wife equally /_3_/
wife more than husband /_4_/
wife entirely /_5_/

5 - shopping for groceries

husband entirely /_1_/
husband more than wife /_2_/
husband and wife equally /_3_/
wife more than husband /_4_/
wife entirely /_5_/

6 - cleaning the house

husband entirely /_1_/
husband more than wife /_2_/
husband and wife equally /_3_/
wife more than husband /_4_/
wife entirely /_5_/

SECTION IV. PURCHASING DECISION

Please think for a moment about the last two durables you bought recently (presents should not be considered). Can you tell me how the purchase took place? (The interviewer is to let the respondent think in terms of the main purchasing phases and evaluate influence distribution throughout the process. The process exists in the interviewer's head not in the respondent's). Responsibility includes actually completing the task or supervising its completion.

A. THE LAST PURCHASED DURABLE

Specify the durable (preferably from list number 1) What is it ? ----- It is number ----- in list n°-----.

1 - Who was responsible for initial problem recognition ?

husband entirely / 1 /
 husband more than wife / 2 /
 husband and wife equally / 3 /
 wife more than husband / 4 /
 wife entirely / 5 /

2 - Who was responsible for acquiring information about purchase alternatives ?

husband entirely / 1 /
 husband more than wife / 2 /
 husband and wife equally / 3 /
 wife more than husband / 4 /
 wife entirely / 5 /

3 - Who made the final decision as to which alternative should be purchased ?

husband entirely / 1 /
 husband more than wife / 2 /
 husband and wife equally / 3 /
 wife more than husband / 4 /
 wife entirely / 5 /

4 - Who made the actual purchase of the product ? husband entirely / 1 /

husband more than wife / 2 /
 husband and wife equally / 3 /
 wife more than husband / 4 /
 wife entirely / 5 /

THE LAST BUT ONE PURCHASED DURABLE

Specify the durable (preferably from list number 2) What is it ? ----- It is number ----- in list n°-----.

5 - Who was responsible for initial problem recognition ?

husband entirely / 1 /
 husband more than wife / 2 /
 husband and wife equally / 3 /
 wife more than husband / 4 /
 wife entirely / 5 /

6 - Who was responsible for acquiring information about purchase alternatives ?

husband entirely / 1 /
 husband more than wife / 2 /
 husband and wife equally / 3 /
 wife more than husband / 4 /
 wife entirely / 5 /

7 - Who was responsible for making the final decision as to which alternative should be purchased ?

husband entirely / 1 /
 husband more than wife / 2 /
 husband and wife equally / 3 /
 wife more than husband / 4 /
 wife entirely / 5 /

8 - Who was responsible for making the actual purchase of the product ?

husband entirely / 1 /
 husband more than wife / 2 /
 husband and wife equally / 3 /
 wife more than husband / 4 /
 wife entirely / 5 /

9 - Part I of the questionnaire was completed by ?

Husband	/ 1 /
Wife	/ 2 /
Husband and wife together	/ 3 /

10- Does your family accept to answer another questionnaire for research sake in the same field ?

yes	/ 1 /
No	/ 2 /

(In the case the answer is positive, make sure you have the respondent's address and telephone number)

PART TWO - TO BE COMPLETED BY THE WIFE

SECTION I. DURABLES IMPORTANCE

This section deals with opinions about durable goods. We are going to talk about durables which your family may or may not own presently.

For the following durables, can you please rate the importance of each by crossing the box that best describes your personal feelings (1= very important ; 2= somewhat important, 3= more or less important ; 4= somewhat unimportant ; very unimportant) . Suppose that you had nothing at all and that you were « starting from scratch to acquire possessions » .

	very important	/ 1 /	/ 2 /	/ 3 /	/ 4 /	/ 5 /	very unimportant
a- Pressure-Cooker		/ 1 /	/ 2 /	/ 3 /	/ 4 /	/ 5 /	
b- Dishwasher		/ 1 /	/ 2 /	/ 3 /	/ 4 /	/ 5 /	
c- Multifunction Processor (Robot)		/ 1 /	/ 2 /	/ 3 /	/ 4 /	/ 5 /	

SECTION II. ATTITUDES TOWARDS DURABLES

Now let's consider the three durables mentioned above, can you please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by checking a box under the heading that best describes your judgments about it, irrespective of whether you own the durable in question or not and of the degree of your involvement with the task it is concerned with (1= strongly agree ; 2= somewhat agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree ; 4= somewhat disagree ; 5= strongly disagree).

Pressure-cooker	Dishwasher	Multifunction Processor
1/ It helps me serve my children properly	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
2/ It helps me serve my spouse properly	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
3/ It helps me devote more time for myself	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
4/ It helps me devote more time for my family	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
5/ It helps me get organized	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
6/ It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
7/ It helps me work more efficiently at home	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
8/ It helps me work more efficiently outside the home	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
9/ It makes me feel I am a good parent	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
10/ It makes me feel I am a good spouse	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
11/ It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
12/ It has practical usefulness	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
13/ It allows me to spare time for other activities (reading, sport, etc...)	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
14/ It helps me keep my house clean and tidy	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
15/ It helps me satisfy my family's needs	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /

SECTION III : ATTITUDES TOWARDS ROLES

A. The following statements deal with roles in general. Can you please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each proposition by checking a box under the heading that best describes your feelings? (1= strongly agree ; 2= somewhat agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree ; 4= somewhat disagree ; 5= strongly disagree).

- 1 - A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 2 - A husband should earn a larger salary than his wife. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 3 - It should not bother the husband if a wife's job sometimes requires her to be outside the home overnight / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 4 - If his wife works full time, a husband should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 5 - If jobs are scarce, a woman whose husband can support her ought not to have a job / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 6 - A working mother can establish just as good a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 7 - Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for the home and children. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /

B. Please continue to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by checking a box under the heading that best describes your feelings?

- 1 - I have to do things which I don't really have the time and energy for. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 2 - There are too many demands on my time. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 3 - I need more hours in the day to do all the things which are expected of me. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 4 - I can't ever seem to get caught up / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 5 - I don't ever seem to have any time for myself. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 6 - There are times when I cannot meet every one's expectations. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 7 - Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 8 - Many times I have to cancel commitments / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 9 - I seem to have to over extend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 10 - I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the other wives (husbands) I know. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 11 - I find myself having to prepare priority lists to get done all the things I have to do. Otherwise I forget because I have so much to do. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 12 - I feel I have to do things hastily and may be less carefully in order to get everything done. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 13 - I just can't find the energy in me to do all the things expected of me. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /

SECTION IV. PREFERENCES

For the following activities and products used to perform them, can you please tell which of the two alternatives presented, reflects your preferences, irrespective of whether you own the product in question or not , and irrespective of the degree of your involvement with the task concerned with it.

- 1 - For cooking, I prefer,
 the pressure cooker to the normal pot / 1 /
 the normal pot to the pressure cooker / 2 /
 indifferent / 3 /
- 2 - For meat processing, I prefer,
 the electrical processor to the manual processor / 1 /
 the manual processor to the electrical processor / 2 /
 indifferent / 3 /
- 3 - For roasting, I prefer,
 the microwave to the oven (electrical or gas) / 1 /
 the oven (electrical or gas) to the microwave / 2 /
 indifferent / 3 /
- 4 - For preparing the morning coffee, I prefer,
 the electrical coffee-maker to the manual coffee-maker / 1 /
 the manual coffee-maker to the electrical coffee-maker / 2 /
 indifferent / 3 /

Appendix B: Original Questionnaire

- 5 - For clothewashing, I prefer,
the automatic washer to the semi-automatic washer / 1 /
the semi-automatic washer to the automatic washer / 2 /
indifferent / 3 /
- 6 - For dishwashing, I prefer,
machine dishwashing to manual dishwashing / 1 /
manual dishwashing to machine dishwashing / 2 /
indifferent / 3 /
- 7 - For cleaning, I prefer,
the vacuum cleaner to the normal broom / 1 /
the normal broom to the vacuum cleaner / 2 /
indifferent / 3 /

SECTION V. DEMOGRAPHICS

1 . Which of the following age groups are you in?

- 24- and less / 1 /
25-29 / 2 /
30-34 / 3 /
35-39 / 4 /
40-44 / 5 /
45-49 / 6 /
50-54 / 7 /
55-and plus / 8 /

2. Which of the following education levels describes the best your case?

- None / 1 /
Some primary school / 2 /
All primary school completed / 3 /
Some secondary school completed / 4 /
All secondary school completed / 5 /
Two university years completed / 6 /
Four university years completed / 7 /
Four university years and more completed / 8 /

3 - Present occupational status , you are presently working as _____ at _____ for _____ hours/a week

4 - Which of the following describes the best your employment situation?

- Administrators, higher professionals and business-owners / 1 /
Key executives, lower professionals and business owners / 2 /
Middle level executives, Blue collar jobs, Tradesmen / 3 /
Worker / 4 /
Salesmen / 5 /
Housewife/homechores / 6 /
Students / 7 /
Unemployed / 8 /
Other unemployed (specify : retired,) / 9 /

5. And to help us tabulate your answers, can you tell me what is your approximate net monthly income regardless of whether the source is wage capital or other (only your income should be considered, your spouse's should not be included).

- None / 1 /
200 Dinars and less / 2 /
201-300 Dinars / 3 /
301-400 Dinars / 4 /
401-500 Dinars / 5 /
501-750 Dinars / 6 /
751-1000 Dinars / 7 /
1001-2000 Dinars / 8 /
2001 and more / 9 /

PART THREE - TO BE COMPLETED BY THE HUSBAND**SECTION I. DURABLES IMPORTANCE**

This section deals with opinions about durable goods. We are going to talk about durables which your family may or may not own presently.

For the following durables, can you please rate the importance of each by crossing the box that best describes your personal feelings (1= very important ; 2= somewhat important, 3= more or less important ; 4= somewhat unimportant ; very unimportant) . Suppose that you had nothing at all and that you were « starting from scratch to acquire possessions » .

	very important	/ 1 /	/ 2 /	/ 3 /	/ 4 /	/ 5 /	very unimportant
a- Pressure-Cooker		/ 1 /	/ 2 /	/ 3 /	/ 4 /	/ 5 /	
b- Dishwasher		/ 1 /	/ 2 /	/ 3 /	/ 4 /	/ 5 /	
c- Multifunction Processor (Robot)		/ 1 /	/ 2 /	/ 3 /	/ 4 /	/ 5 /	

SECTION II. ATTITUDES TOWARDS DURABLES

Now let's consider these three durables, can you please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by checking a box under the heading that best describes your judgments about it irrespective of whether you own the durable in question or not and of the degree of your involvement with the task it is concerned with (1= strongly agree ; 2= somewhat agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree ; 4= somewhat disagree ; 5= strongly disagree).

Pressure-cooker	Dishwasher	Multifunction Processor
1/ It helps me serve my children properly / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
2/ It helps me serve my spouse properly / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
3/ It helps me devote more time for myself / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
4/ It helps me devote more time for my family / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
5/ It helps me get organized / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
6/ It helps me carry out other chores simultaneously / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
7/ It helps me work more efficiently at home / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
8/ It helps me work more efficiently outside the home / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
9/ It makes me feel I am a good parent / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
10/ It makes me feel I am a good spouse / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
11/ It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
12/ It has practical usefulness / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
13/ It allows me to spare time for other activities (reading, sport, etc...) / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
14/ It helps me keep my house clean and tidy / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /
15/ It helps me satisfy my family's needs / 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /	/ 1 / / 2 / / 3 / / 4 / / 5 /

SECTION III. ATTITUDES TOWARDS ROLES

A. The following statements deal with roles in general. Can you please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each proposition by checking a box under the heading that best describes your feelings? (1= strongly agree ; 2= somewhat agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree ; 4= somewhat disagree ; 5= strongly disagree).

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- 5 - I don't ever seem to have any time for myself. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
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- 7 - Sometimes I feel there are not enough hours in the day. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 8 - Many times I have to cancel commitments / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
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- 10 - I seem to have more commitments to overcome than some of the husbands I know. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
- 11 - I find myself having to prepare priority lists to get done all the things I have to do. Otherwise I forget because I have so much to do. / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 /
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 the oven (electrical or gaz) to the microwave / 2 /
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- 4 - For preparing the morning coffee, I prefer,
 the electrical coffee-maker to the manual coffee-maker / 1 /
 the manual coffee-maker to the electrical coffee-maker / 2 /
 indifferent / 3 /

- 5 - For clothewashing, I prefer,
 the automatic washer to the semi-automatic washer / 1 /
 the semi-automatic washer to the automatic washer / 2 /
 indifferent / 3 /
- 6 - For dishwashing, I prefer,
 machine dishwashing to manual dishwashing / 1 /
 manual dishwashing to machine dishwashing / 2 /
 indifferent / 3 /
- 7 - For cleaning, I prefer,
 the vacuum cleaner to the normal broom / 1 /
 the normal broom to the vacuum cleaner / 2 /
 indifferent / 3 /

SECTION V. DEMOGRAPHICS

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 30-34 / 3 /
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 45-49 / 6 /
 50-54 / 7 /
 55-and plus / 8 /

2. Which of the following education levels describes the best your case?

- None / 1 /
 Some primary school / 2 /
 All primary school completed / 3 /
 Some secondary school completed (first cycle / 4 /
 All secondary school completed (second cycle) / 5 /
 Two university years completed (lower undergrad) / 6 /
 Four university years completed (higher undergrad) / 7 /
 More than four university years completed (postgrad) / 8 /

3 - Present occupational status , you are presently working as _____ at _____ for _____ hours/a week

4 - Which of the following describes the best your employment situation?

- Administrators, higher professionals and businessowners / 1 /
 Key executives, lower professionals and business owners / 2 /
 Middle level executives, Blue collar jobs, Tradesmen / 3 /
 Worker / 4 /
 salesmen / 5 /
 Housechores / 6 /
 Students / 7 /
 Unemployed / 8 /
 Other unemployed (please specify, retired) / 9 /

5. And to help us tabulate your answers, can you tell me what is your approximate net monthly income regardless of whether the source is wage capital or other (only your income should be considered, your spouse's should not be included).

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 201-300 Dinars / 3 /
 301-400 Dinars / 4 /
 401-500 Dinars / 5 /
 501-750 Dinars / 6 /
 751-1000 Dinars / 7 /
 1001-2000 Dinars / 8 /
 2001 and more / 9 /

القسم الاول يعمره الزوجان معا أو أحدهما

1- التجهيزات

هل تملك عائلتك التجهيزات التالية؟

(ضع علامة حول الرقم المناسب للجهاز الذي تمتلكه عائلتك)

1- القائمة الاولى

3- القائمة الثالثة

1-1	- هاتف	1-1	- جهاز تبريد بدون جهاز تجميد Refrigerateur
1-2	- آلة تسجيل	1-2	- جهاز تبريد وتجميد Ref + Congélateur
1-3	- فيديو	1-3	- جهاز تجميد Congélateur
1-4	- اسطوانة ليزر (lecteur CD)	1-4	- جهاز طبخ بدون فرن Cuisinière sans four
1-5	- جهاز تلفزة بالالوان	1-5	- جهاز طبخ بالفرن Cuisinière avec four
1-6	- آلة تصوير	1-6	- فرن كهربائي Four Electrique
1-7	- هوائي (Parabole)	1-7	- فرن بالأشعة Four micro-ondes
1-8	- مكيف (climatiseur)	1-8	- آلة غسل Machine à laver semi automatique
1-9	- مكتبة خاصة	1-9	- آلة غسل وتجفيف Machine à laver automatique
1-10	- سيارة خاصة	1-10	- آلة غسل الأواني Lave vaisselle
1-11	- سيارة ثانية		
1-12	- دراجة نارية		

2- القائمة الثانية

1-1	- شفافة Aspirateur
1-2	- آلة الطهي السريع Cocotte minute
1-3	- مقلاة بطاطة Friteuse
1-4	- جهاز إعداد القهوة Cafetière électrique
1-5	- آلة ذات وظائف متعددة Robot
1-6	- مفرمة كهربائية Hâche viande électrique
1-7	- ركاضة كهربائية Batteur électrique
1-8	- عصارة حوامض كهربائية Presse agrumes électrique
1-9	- عصارة غلال كهربائية Centrifugeuse
1-10	- رحاية كهربائية Moulin
1-11	- خلاطة كهربائية Mixeur
1-12	- جهاز شي الخبز Grille pain
1-13	- مفتاح كهربائي Ouvre boîte électrique
1-14	- سكين كهربائي Couteau électrique

11- معطيات ديمغرافية

1- نوع المسكن؟

- فيلا أو طابق فيلا
- شقة بعمارة
- دار عربي، برج، حوش
- نوع آخر (حدده)

1-1
2-1
3-1
4-1

2- وضعية السكن

- ملك
- كراء
- مجاني (محل على ملك الدولة،
العرف، الاهل)
- وضعية أخرى (حددها)

1-1
2-1
3-1
4-1

3- هل يعيش معك أحد من أفراد عائلتك الموسعة

نعم 1-1 لا 2-1

(في حالة الإجابة بنعم، حدد من هو: أب، أم، أخ، أخت، شخص آخر)

4- الأبناء: العدد، الجنس، العمر (المقيمون وغير المتزوجين)

العمر (سنة) الجنس

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

5- هل تعتمد عائلتك معينة منزلية؟

نعم 1-1 لا 2-1

(في حالة الإجابة بنعم، اذكر نوع الاعانة:

1-1 إعانة يومية

2-1 إعانة اسبوعية

3-1 إعانة نصف شهرية

4-1 إعانة شهرية

11- توزيع الادوار:

من هو المسؤول عن المهام المنزلية التالية

(يقصد بالمسؤولية هذا انجاز المهمة او الاشراف على انجازها)

1- غسل الاطباش

- 1-1 الزوج بمفرده
2-1 الزوج غالبا
3-1 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي
4-1 الزوجة غالبا
5-1 الزوجة بمفردها

2- طهي الاكل

- 1-1 الزوج بمفرده
2-1 الزوج غالبا
3-1 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي
4-1 الزوجة غالبا
5-1 الزوجة بمفردها

3- غسل الاواني

- 1-1 الزوج بمفرده
2-1 الزوج غالبا
3-1 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي
4-1 الزوجة غالبا
5-1 الزوجة بمفردها

4- تحضير فطور الصباح

- 1-1 الزوج بمفرده
2-1 الزوج غالبا
3-1 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي
4-1 الزوجة غالبا
5-1 الزوجة بمفردها

5- شراء لوازم البيت

- 1-1 الزوج بمفرده
2-1 الزوج غالبا
3-1 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي
4-1 الزوجة غالبا
5-1 الزوجة بمفردها

6- تنظيف المنزل

- 1-1 الزوج بمفرده
2-1 الزوج غالبا
3-1 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي
4-1 الزوجة غالبا
5-1 الزوجة بمفردها

IV- قرار الشراء:

لنأخذ بالدرس التجهيزين الذين اقتنتهما عائلتك مؤخرا (دون اعتبار الهدايا)

* الشراء الاخير (يستحسن أن يكون واحدا من القائمة الاولى)

ما هو؟ ما هو رقمه؟

1- من قرر ضرورة الحاجة لهذا الجهاز؟

1-1 الزوج بمفرده

1-2 الزوج غالبا

1-3 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي

1-4 الزوجة غالبا

1-5 الزوجة بمفردها

2- من قام بالبحث عن المعلومات وبتقييم الاختيارات الممكنة؟

1-1 الزوج بمفرده

1-2 الزوج غالبا

1-3 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي

1-4 الزوجة غالبا

1-5 الزوجة بمفردها

3- من أخذ القرار النهائي لشراء الجهاز؟

1-1 الزوج بمفرده

1-2 الزوج غالبا

1-3 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي

1-4 الزوجة غالبا

1-5 الزوجة بمفردها

4- من قام فعلا بعملية الشراء؟

1-1 الزوج بمفرده

1-2 الزوج غالبا

1-3 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي

1-4 الزوجة غالبا

1-5 الزوجة بمفردها

* الشراء الاخير (يستحسن أن يكون واحدا من القائمة الثانية)
ما هو؟ ما هو رقمه؟

5- من قرر ضرورة الحاجة لهذا الجهاز؟

1-1 الزوج بمفرده

1-2 الزوج غالبا

1-3 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي

1-4 الزوجة غالبا

1-5 الزوجة بمفردها

6- من قام بالبحث عن المعلومات وبتقييم الاختيارات الممكنة؟

1-1 الزوج بمفرده

1-2 الزوج غالبا

1-3 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي

1-4 الزوجة غالبا

1-5 الزوجة بمفردها

7- من أخذ القرار النهائي لشراء الجهاز؟

1-1 الزوج بمفرده

1-2 الزوج غالبا

1-3 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي

1-4 الزوجة غالبا

1-5 الزوجة بمفردها

8- من قام فعلا بعملية الشراء؟

1-1 الزوج بمفرده

1-2 الزوج غالبا

1-3 الزوج والزوجة بالتساوي

1-4 الزوجة غالبا

1-5 الزوجة بمفردها

9- من قام بتعمير هذا القسم من الاستمارة

1-1 الزوج

1-2 الزوجة

1-3 الزوج والزوجة معا

10- هل تقبل عائلتك الاجابة عن استمارة أخرى في إطار

بحوث تكميلية في نفس الميدان؟

1-1 نعم

1-2 لا

(في حالة الاجابة بنعم ، الرجاء ذكر العنوان ورقم الهاتف)

I- القسم الثاني : تعمره الزوجة

I- الأهمية:

هذه الفقرة تخص أراءك إزاء التجهيزات المنزلية بقطع النظر عما إذا كانت هذه التجهيزات بحوزة عائلتك أم لا

بصفة عامة، ما هي أهمية امتلاك الأجهزة التالية افتراضا أنك لا تملك أي منها وانك تتوي تجهيز منزلك منذ البداية. (الرجاء اختيار رقم يعكس درجة هذه الأهمية من وجهة نظرك الشخصي، علما وأن
1= الأهمية القصوى، 2= الأهمية النسبية، 3= بين بين، 4= عدم الأهمية النسبية، 5= عدم الأهمية القصوى)

1- جهاز الطبخ السريع Cocotte minute

الأهمية القصوى 1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5 عدم الأهمية القصوى

2- آلة غسل الأواني Lave vaiselle

الأهمية القصوى 1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5 عدم الأهمية القصوى

3- آلة ذات وظائف متعددة Robot

الأهمية القصوى 1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5 عدم الأهمية القصوى

II- الاتجاهات إزاء الأجهزة

بالنسبة الى هذه الاجهزة، الرجاء منك الادلاء برأيك باختيار الدرجة التي تتناسب قوة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك عليه. (يمكن للمجيب أن يعبر عن رأيه سواء كان يملك او لا يملك الجهاز المعني بالامر ومهما كانت درجة استعماله لهذا الجهاز علما وأن
1= الموافقة التامة، 2= الموافقة النسبية، 3= المحايدة، 4= عدم الموافقة النسبية، 5= عدم الموافقة التامة)

آلة متعددة الوظائف Robot	آلة غسل الاواني lave vaiselle	جهاز الطبخ السريع cocotte minute	
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1- انها تمكنني من خدمة أطفالي كما يجب
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	2- انها تمكنني من خدمة زوجي كما يجب
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	3- انها تمكنني من ربح وقت أخصصه لنفسي
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	4- انها تمكنني من ربح وقت أخصصه لعائلتي
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	5- انها تساعدني على تنظيم شؤوني
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	6- انها تمكنني من القيام بشؤون عديدة في نفس الوقت
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	7- انها تساعدني على القيام بشؤون المنزل بنجاحة
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	8- انها تساعدني على العمل خارج المنزل بنجاحة
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	9- انها تشعرني بأنني أم ناجحة
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	10- انها تشعرني بأنني زوجة ناجحة
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	11- انها تمكنني من التخفيف من ضغوطات مهامي المتعددة
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	12- انها ذات فائدة عملية
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	13- انها تمكنني من ربح الوقت حتى أقوم بنشاطات أخرى (قراءة، رياضة، الخ...)
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	14- انها تساعدني على الحفاظ على منزل نظيف ومنظم
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	15- انها تمكنني من توفير ما تحتاجه عائلتي
1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	1-1 1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5	16- انها تؤدي خدمة أفضل من الأدوات التي سبقتها والتي تؤدي نفس الوظيفة

III- الاتجاهات إزاء الدور

هذا الجزء من الاستمارة يعنى بموضوع الادوار الاجتماعية، فالرجاء منك الادلاء برأيك باختيار الدرجة التي تتناسب قوة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك عليه علما وأن 1= الموافقة التامة ، 2= الموافقة النسبية، 3= المحايدة، 4= عدم الموافقة النسبية، 5= عدم الموافقة التامة)

الموافقة التامة	النسبية	المحايدة	عدم الموافقة النسبية	عدم الموافقة التامة
1- إن دور المرأة الاساسي في الحياة هو الاعتناء بأطفالها	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4
2- يجب على الزوج أن يتقاضى أجرا أوفر من أجر زوجته	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4
3- على الزوج أن يقبل غياب زوجته ليلا استجابة لضرورة عملها	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4
4- إذا كانت الزوجة تعمل كامل الوقت، فمن واجب زوجها أن يتقاسم معها أعباء المنزل من طبخ وتنظيف وغسل	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4
5- إذا كان الشغل نادرا، فعلى المرأة التي يشتغل زوجها والقادر على الاتفاق عليها أن تتخلى عن العمل	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4
6- إن المرأة العاملة يمكنها ربط علاقات طيبة مع أطفالها على غرار الام التي لا تشتغل	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4
7- إن كانت المرأة تعمل خارج البيت، فهذا لا ينفي مسؤولية الرجل الاساسية المتمثلة في الاتفاق ومسؤولية المرأة الاساسية المتمثلة في الاعتناء بالبيت والاطفال	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4

الرجاء مواصلة الادلاء برأيك باختيار الدرجة التي تتناسب قوة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك عليه

الموافقة التامة	الموافقة النسبية	المحايدة	عدم الموافقة النسبية	عدم الموافقة التامة	
1- انني أقوم بعدة واجبات رغم قلة الوقت والطاقة	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
2- إن التزاماتي كثيرة اعتبارا للوقت المتوفر لدي	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
3- اني في حاجة الى ساعات أوفر حتى أتمكن من القيام بكل الاشياء المرتقبة مني	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
4- ليس لي وقت قط لقضاء شؤوني	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
5- قل أن أجد وقتا أخصصه لنفسي	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
6- في بعض الاحيان لا أستطيع القيام بكل ما يرتقبه مني الآخرون	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
7- في بعض الاحيان، أشعر وأن اليوم قصير جدا	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
8- في كثير من الاحيان أجد نفسي مجبرا على الغاء التزاماتي	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
9- يبدو لي أنه لا بد من تجاوز طاقاتي حتى أستطيع القيام بكل واجباتي	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
10- يبدو لي أن التزاماتي هي أكثر من القدرات	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
بعض النساء الاخريات	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
11- أجد نفسي مجبرة على اعداد قائمة أولويات حتى أقوم بكل واجباتي والا فأنني أنسى البعض منها لكثرة مشاغلي	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
12- أشعر اني أقوم بشؤوني بعجالة وأحيانا دون انتباه	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
13- لا أحذف نفس القوائم القائمة على	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5

V- معطيات ديمغرافية

1- ما هو عمرك؟

- 1-أ 24 فما أقل
2-أ 25 - 29 سنة
3-أ 30 - 34 سنة
4-أ 35 - 39 سنة
5-أ 40 - 44 سنة
6-أ 45 - 49 سنة
7-أ 50 - 54 سنة
8-أ 55 فما أكثر

2- ما هو مستواك التعليمي؟

- 1-أ غير متعلم
2-أ بعض السنوات بالابتدائي
3-أ أنهيت الابتدائي
4-أ بعض السنوات بالثانوي
5-أ أنهيت الثانوي
6-أ بعض السنوات بالجامعة
7-أ أنهيت 4 سنوات بالجامعة
8-أ أنهيت أكثر من 4 سنوات بالجامعة

3- اتي اشتغل حاليا ك.....

ب.....

لمدة ساعة أسبوعيا

4- بالنسبة الى الشغل، ما هو الوصف الذي يتماشى مع وضعك الحالي؟

- 1-أ إطار سام/وظيفة حرة
2-أ إطار متوسط
3-أ موظف إداري
4-أ عامل
5-أ تاجر
6-أ تلميذ أو طالب
7-أ شؤون منزلية
8-أ عاطل
9-أ وضع آخر (حدده)

5- ما هو المعدل الصافي لدخلك الشهري؟

(دون اعتبار دخل قرينك ومهما كان مصدر هذا الدخل)

- 1-أ لا شيء
2-أ أقل من 200 دينار شهريا
3-أ من 201 - 300
4-أ من 301 - 400
5-أ من 401 - 500
6-أ من 501 - 750
7-أ من 751 - 1000
8-أ من 1001 - 2000
9-أ من 2001 فما أكثر

IV- الميولات:

بالنسبة الى النشاطات المنزلية وثلاثي التجهيزات التالية

Les couples de produits، الرجاء الادلاء برأيك باختيار

الجملة التي تناسب ميولاتك (يقطع النظر عما إذا كنت تملك الجهاز

المعنى بالامر أم لا، ويقطع النظر عن درجة مساهمتك في الشؤون

المنزلية المعنية وعن مدى استعمالك للأجهزة المرتبطة بها)

1-بالنسبة الى الطبخ

1-أ أفضل جهاز الطبخ السريع (Cocotte minute) على القدر العادي

2-أ أفضل القدر العادي على جهاز الطبخ السريع

3-أ المحايدة

2- بالنسبة الى رحي اللحوم

1-أ أفضل المفرمة الكهربائية على المهراس

2-أ أفضل المهراس على المفرمة الكهربائية

3-أ المحايدة

3- بالنسبة الى صلي الاكل

1-أ أفضل فرن الأشعة على الفرن العادي (غازي أو كهربائي)

2-أ أفضل الفرن العادي على فرن الأشعة

3-أ المحايدة

4- بالنسبة الى طهي قهوة الصباح

1-أ أفضل الجهاز الكهربائي على الجهاز اليدوي

2-أ أفضل الجهاز اليدوي على الجهاز الكهربائي

3-أ المحايدة

5- بالنسبة الى غسل الاطباق

1-أ أفضل آلة الغسل والتجفيف المندمجة (automatique)

على آلة الغسل العادية (semi automatique)

2-أ أفضل آلة الغسل العادية على آلة الغسل والتجفيف المندمجة

3-أ المحايدة

6- بالنسبة الى غسل الاواني

1-أ أفضل استعمال الآلة (lave vaisselle) على الغسل اليدوي

2-أ أفضل الغسل اليدوي على الآلة

3-أ المحايدة

7- بالنسبة الى التنظيف

1-أ أفضل الشفاطة (Aspirateur) على المكينة العادية

2-أ أفضل المكينة العادية على الشفاطة

3-أ المحايدة

١- الأهمية

هذه الفقرة تخص أراءك إزاء التجهيزات المنزلية بقطع النظر عما إذا كانت هذه التجهيزات بحوزة عائلتك أم لا بصفة عامة، ما هي الأهمية التي تكتسبها الأجهزة التالية افتراضا أنك لا تملك أيها منها وأنت تتوي تجهيز منزلك منذ البداية. (الرجاء اختيار رقم يعكس درجة هذه الأهمية من وجهة نظرك الشخصي، علما وأن 1= الأهمية القصوى، 2= الأهمية النسبية، 3= بين بين، 4= عدم الأهمية النسبية، 5= عدم الأهمية القصوى)

1- جهاز الطبخ السريع Cocotte minute

الأهمية القصوى 1- 2- 3- 4- 5- عدم الأهمية القصوى

2- آلة غسل الأواني Lave vaisselle

الأهمية القصوى 1- 2- 3- 4- 5- عدم الأهمية القصوى

3- آلة ذات وظائف متعددة Robot

الأهمية القصوى 1- 2- 3- 4- 5- عدم الأهمية القصوى

١١- الاتجاهات إزاء الأجهزة

بالنسبة الى هذه الاجهزة، الرجاء منك الادلاء برأيك باختيار الدرجة التي تناسب قوة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك عليه. (يمكن للمجيب أن يعبر عن رأيه سواء كان يملك أو لا يملك الجهاز المعني بالامر ومهما كانت درجة استعماله لهذا الجهاز علما وأن 1= الموافقة التامة، 2= الموافقة النسبية، 3= المحايدة، 4= عدم الموافقة النسبية، 5= عدم الموافقة التامة)

آلة متعددة الوظائف Robot	آلة غسل الاواني lave vaisselle	جهاز الطبخ السريع cocotte minute	
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1- انها تمكني من خدمة أطفالي كما يجب
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	2- انها تمكني من خدمة زوجتي كما يجب
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	3- انها تمكني من ربح وقت أخصمه لنفسي
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	4- انها تمكني من ربح وقت أخصمه لعائلتي
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	5- انها تساعدني على تنظيم شؤوني
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	6- انها تمكني من القيام بشؤون عديدة في نفس الوقت
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	7- انها تساعدني على القيام بشؤون المنزل بنجاحة
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	8- انها تساعدني على العمل خارج المنزل بنجاحة
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	9- انها تشعرني بأنني أب ناجح
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	10- انها تشعرني بأنني زوج ناجح
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	11- انها تمكني من التخفيف من ضغوطات مهامي المتعددة
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	12- انها ذات فائدة عملية
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	13- انها تمكني من ربح الوقت حتى أقوم بنشاطات أخرى (قراءة، رياضة، الخ...)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	14- انها تساعدني على الحفاظ على منزل نظيف ومنظم
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	15- انها تمكني من توفير ما تحتاجه عائلتي
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	16- انها تؤدي خدمة أفضل من الأدوات التي سبقها والتي تؤدي نفس الوظيفة

١١١- الاتجاهات إزاء الدور

هذا الجزء من الاستمارة يعنى بموضوع الادوار الاجتماعية، فالرجاء منك الادلاء برأيك باختيار الدرجة التي تناسب قوة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك عليه علماً وأن 1= الموافقة القصوى، 2= الموافقة النسبية، 3= المحايدة، 4= عدم الموافقة النسبية، 5= عدم الموافقة القصوى

الموافقة التامة	الموافقة النسبية	الموافقة المحايدة	عدم الموافقة النسبية	عدم الموافقة التامة	
1- إن دور المرأة الاساسي في الحياة هو الاعتناء بأطفالها	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
2- يجب على الزوج أن يتقاضى أجراً أوفر من أجر زوجته	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
3- على الزوج أن يقبل غياب زوجته ليلاً استجابة لضرورة عملها	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
4- إذا كانت الزوجة تعمل كامل الوقت، فمن واجب زوجها أن يتقاسم معها أعباء المنزل من طبخ وتنظيف وغسل	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
5- إذا كان الشغل نادراً، فعلى المرأة التي يشتغل زوجها والقادر على الاتفاق عليها أن تتخلى عن العمل	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
6- إن المرأة العاملة يمكنها ربط علاقات طيبة مع أطفالها على غرار الأم التي لا تشتغل	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5
7- إن كانت المرأة تعمل خارج البيت، فهذا لا ينفي مسؤولية الرجل الاساسية المتمثلة في الاتفاق ومسؤولية المرأة الاساسية المتمثلة في الاعتناء بالبيت والاطفال	1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5

الرجاء مواصلة الادلاء برأيك باختيار الدرجة التي تناسب قوة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك عليه

الموافقة التامة	الموافقة النسبية	المحايدة	عدم الموافقة النسبية	عدم الموافقة التامة	
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	1- انني أقوم بعدة واجبات رغم قلة الوقت والطاقة
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	2- إن التزاماتي كثيرة اعتبارا للوقت المتوفر لدي
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	3- اني في حاجة الى ساعات أوفر حتى أتمكن من القيام بكل الاشياء المرتقبة مني
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	4- ليس لي وقت قط لقضاء شؤوني
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	5- قل أن أجد وقتا أخصصه لنفسي
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	6- في بعض الاحيان لا استطيع القيام بكل ما يرتقبه مني الآخرون
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	7- في بعض الاحيان، أشعر وأن اليوم قصير جدا
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	8- في كثير من الاحيان أجد نفسي مجبرا على الغاء التزاماتي
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	9- يبدو لي أنه لا بد من تجاوز طاقاتي حتى أستطيع القيام بكل واجباتي
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	10- يبدو لي أن التزاماتي هي أكثر من التزامات بعض الرجال الآخرين
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	11- أجد نفسي مجبرا على اعداد قائمة أولويات حتى أقوم بكل واجباتي والا فأنني أنسى البعض منها لكثرة مشاغلي
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	12- أشعر اني أقوم بشؤوني بعجلة وأحيانا دون انتباه
1-1	2-2	3-3	4-4	5-5	13- لا أجد في نفسي القدرة الكافية للقيام بكل واجباتي

V- معطيات ديمغرافية

1- ما هو عمرك؟

- 1- 24 فما أقل
2- من 25 - 29 سنة
3- من 30 - 34 سنة
4- من 35 - 39 سنة
5- من 40 - 44 سنة
6- من 45 - 49 سنة
7- من 50 - 54 سنة
8- 55 فما أكثر

2- ما هو مستواك التعليمي؟

- 1- غير متعلم
2- بعض السنوات بالابتدائي
3- أنهيت الابتدائي
4- بعض السنوات بالثانوي
5- أنهيت الثانوي
6- بعض السنوات بالجامعة
7- أنهيت 4 سنوات بالجامعة
8- أنهيت أكثر من 4 سنوات بالجامعة

3- اني اشتغل حاليا ك.....

ب.....
لمدة ساعة أسبوعيا

4- بالنسبة الى الشغل، ما هو الوصف

الذي يتماشى مع وضعك الحالي؟

- 1- إطار سام/وظيفة حرة
2- إطار متوسط
3- موظف إداري
4- عامل
5- تاجر
6- تلميذ أو طالب
7- شؤون منزلية
8- عاطل
9- وضع آخر (حدد)

5- ما هو المعدل الصافي لدخلك الشهري؟

(دون اعتبار دخل قرينك ومهما كان مصدر هذا الدخل)

- 1- لا شيء
2- أقل من 200 دينار شهريا
3- من 201 - 300
4- من 301 - 400
5- من 401 - 500
6- من 501 - 750
7- من 751 - 1000
8- من 1001 - 2000

IV- الميولات:

بالنسبة الى النشاطات المنزلية وثاني التجهيزات التالية
Les couples de produits، الرجاء الادلاء برأيك باختيار
الجملة التي تناسب ميولاتك (يقطع النظر عما إذا كنت تملك الجهاز
المعنى بالأمر أم لا، ويقطع النظر عن درجة مساهمتك في الشؤون
المنزلية المعنية وعن مدى استعمالك للجهاز المرتبطة بها)

1- بالنسبة الى الطبخ

1- أفضل جهاز الطبخ السريع (Cocotte minute) على القدر العادي

2- أفضل القدر العادي على جهاز الطبخ السريع

3- المحايدة

2- بالنسبة الى رحي اللحوم

1- أفضل المفرمة الكهربائية على المهراس

2- أفضل المهراس على المفرمة الكهربائية

3- المحايدة

3- بالنسبة الى صلي الاكل

1- أفضل فرن الأشعة على الفرن العادي (غازي أو كهربائي)

2- أفضل الفرن العادي على فرن الأشعة

3- المحايدة

4- بالنسبة الى طهي قهوة الصباح

1- أفضل الجهاز الكهربائي على الجهاز اليدوي

2- أفضل الجهاز اليدوي على الجهاز الكهربائي

3- المحايدة

5- بالنسبة الى غسل الاطباق

1- أفضل آلة الغسل والتجفيف المندمجة (automatique)

على آلة الغسل العادية (semi automatique)

2- أفضل آلة الغسل العادية على آلة الغسل والتجفيف المندمجة

3- المحايدة

6- بالنسبة الى غسل الاواني

1- أفضل استعمال الآلة (lave vaisselle) على الغسل اليدوي

2- أفضل الغسل اليدوي على الآلة

3- المحايدة

7- بالنسبة الى التنظيف

1- أفضل الشفاطة (Aspirateur) على المكينة العادية

2- أفضل المكينة العادية على الشفاطة

3- المحايدة

Amos
Version 3.6 (w32)
by James L. Arbuckle

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Chicago, IL 60615 USA
Fax: 773-667-8635
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Serial number 55501773

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ORIGINAL THESIS

User-selected options

Output:

Maximum Likelihood

Output format options:

Compressed output

Minimization options:

Technical output
Critical ratios for differences between parameters
Squared multiple correlations
Machine-readable output file

Sample size: 946

Your model contains the following variables

washdish	observed	endogenous
instrum1	observed	endogenous
instrum2	observed	endogenous
instrum3	observed	endogenous
instrum4	observed	endogenous
instrum5	observed	endogenous
ideo11	observed	endogenous
ideo12	observed	endogenous
ideo13	observed	endogenous
ideo14	observed	endogenous
roload1	observed	endogenous
roload2	observed	endogenous
roload3	observed	endogenous
roload4	observed	endogenous
roload5	observed	endogenous
instrum6	observed	endogenous
Perceived_Instrumentality	unobserved	endogenous
Dish_Performance	unobserved	exogenous
Role_Ideology	unobserved	exogenous
Role-Overload	unobserved	exogenous
erinstr1	unobserved	exogenous
erinstr2	unobserved	exogenous
erinstr3	unobserved	exogenous
erinstr4	unobserved	exogenous
erinstr5	unobserved	exogenous
erideo1	unobserved	exogenous
erideo2	unobserved	exogenous
erideo3	unobserved	exogenous
erideo4	unobserved	exogenous
erload1	unobserved	exogenous
erload2	unobserved	exogenous
erload3	unobserved	exogenous
erload4	unobserved	exogenous
erload5	unobserved	exogenous
erinstr6	unobserved	exogenous
erppl	unobserved	exogenous

Number of variables in your model: 37
Number of observed variables: 16
Number of unobserved variables: 21
Number of exogenous variables: 20
Number of endogenous variables: 17

Summary of Parameters

Weights	Covariances	Variances	Means	Intercepts	Total
Fixed: 21	0	1	0	0	22
Unlabeled: 15	3	19	0	0	37
Total: 36	3	20	0	0	59

The model is recursive.

Model: Your_model

Computation of Degrees of Freedom

Number of distinct sample moments: 136
Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 37
Degrees of freedom: 99

Minimization History

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Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 354.505
Degrees of freedom = 99
Probability level = 0.000

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights:	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	Label
Perceived_Instrumen	-0.131	0.082	-1.597	par-5
Perceived_Instrumen	0.170	0.063	2.679	par-6

[illegible]

par-36	par-37
0.000	0.000
-1.231	

Summary of models

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
your model	37	354.505	99	0.000	3.581
Saturated model	136	0.000			
Independence model	16	6295.859	120	0.000	52.465

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Your model	0.079	0.955	0.938	0.695
Saturated model	0.000	1.000		
Independence model	0.644	0.437	0.362	0.386

Model	DELTA1 NEI	RHO1 RFI	DELTA2 IFI	RHO2 TLI	CFI
Your model	0.944	0.932	0.959	0.950	0.958
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Model	PRATIO	NFI	PCFI
Your model	0.825	0.779	0.791
Saturated model	0.000	0.000	0.000
Independence model	1.000	0.000	0.000

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Your model	255.505	201.802	316.797
Saturated model	0.000	0.000	0.000
Independence model	6175.859	5919.249	6438.787

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Your model	0.375	0.270	0.214	0.335
Saturated model	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Independence model	6.662	6.535	6.264	6.814

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Your model	0.052	0.046	0.058	0.255

Independence model 0.233 0.228 0.238 0.000

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Your model	428.505	429.861	710.624	645.038
Saturated model	272.000	276.983	1308.977	1067.905
Independence model	6327.859	6328.446	6449.857	6421.495

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Your model	0.453	0.397	0.518	0.455
Saturated model	0.288	0.288	0.288	0.288
Independence model	6.696	6.425	6.974	6.697

Model	HOELTER
-----	-----
Your model	.05
Independence model	329

Execution time summary:

Minimization:	2.283
Miscellaneous:	1.481
Bootstrap:	0.000
Total:	3.764

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PUBLICATIONS

We intend to develop these findings further by examining the validity of this finding across different events. Should these results hold, this work will offer guidance to sponsors and event managers alike to improve their assessment of sponsorship value.

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The Development Of A Scale For PPI Measurement

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ABSTRACT

The following paper proposes the development of a scale for eventual measurement of the PPI construct. PPI is the only non-standard scale to be included in a model of family purchasing behavior. It translates the degree to which a consumer, apprehending as actor, deems the product to be dear, helpful, efficient in performing a particular role, reinforcing a salient identity and conveying a desired image. Taking the case of durable goods, four identical lists of 33 items drawn from focused-group interviews and literature, each corresponding to one durable, are administered to a convenience sample of 46 respondents living within a modern urban tunisian middle class context. An item reduction process guided by preliminary principal axis factoring and reliability analyses result in a scale of 15-items that is proposed as an operationalization for the PPI construct.

Introduction

Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI) is a perceptual construct that aims at providing variation in family preferences, use and ownership of durables. Drawing on focused-group interviews and literature, a 33 items-scale purportedly representing the underlying PPI construct is generated on the basis of this principle: it should be non-gender specific, acultural and general enough to apply to any durable. The list is then narrowed down to a 15-item scale that is proposed as an instrument for PPI measurement.

Subjects

A pilot survey is administered to a convenience sample of 46 married men (1/3) and women (2/3) of a modern tunisian urban middle class background with older and younger, higher and lower class men and women. Respondents are contacted at home, or at their workplace. Women are overrepresented because they seem to be more concerned with durables administration.

Procedures

Respondents, whose participation is solicited for research purposes, are asked to fill in four identical lists of 33 items tapping their attitudes towards the pressure-cooker, oven, washer, and freezer, irrespective of whether they own these or not. In most cases, interviewers assist the respondents in filling in the first set and instruct them to proceed similarly with the remaining sets. Most respondents answered all the questions, but a few skipped some lists or items within lists. This led responses to range from 36 to 46 cases.

The objective is to explore the overall patterns of relationships among the items and reduce their number without lowering their predictive value. An exploratory principal axis factoring is run on each set with a four-factor solution meant to account for potential multidimensionality of PPI. Many of the original items have high loadings with a first and some with a second, a third or a fourth factor, but without meaningful consistency across the sets. Reliability analysis gives alphas of .85 for the pressure-cooker and the freezer, of .83 for the oven, and of .76 for the washer sets (see Table 1). Scale reduction, guided by the percentage of variance explained by the first factor, eigen values, and alphas, yields the results provided in table 1 for the different tryout scale sizes of 33, 28, 15, 13, and 9-items.

TABLE 1
EIGEN VALUE (1), PERCENT OF VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY FIRST FACTOR (2), AND ALPHA COEFFICIENT (3) ACROSS FOUR DATA SETS IN A STEPWISE SCALE REDUCTION PROCESS

Set	(3)	33-item scale			28-item scale			15-item scale			9-item scale		
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1 (pressure-cooker)	.88	11.36	34.4	.85	10.86	38.8		8.17	54.5	.90	6.90	53.1	.92
2 (oven)	.88	9.09	27.5	.83	9.16	32.7		7.04	47.0	.89	6.60	50.8	.92
3 (washer)	.84	11.66	35.3	.76	10.99	39.2		8.50	56.7	.89	7.48	57.5	.93
4 (freezer)	.87	9.33	28.3	.84	8.18	29.2		6.47	43.1	.86	5.29	40.7	.88

The decision rule for reduction is retain items that have correlations with the first factor around and over the absolute value of .5 across the four data sets. Items with such correlations across only three sets and that are deemed theoretically relevant are also retained. Items that load highly with the first factor in none of the four sets are eliminated. The final decision made is to retain 15 items (see underlined items in Appendix).

The process of the PPI scale reduction gives evidence of better results with a limited scale. This is deemed a better instrument because the percentage of the variance accounted for by the first factor is higher in the case of two sets, compared to all the other reduced and non-reduced scales. Besides, it has higher eigen values than the reduced 9- and 13-items scales and higher reliability alphas than the larger 28 and 33-items scales (see table 1 above). A four-factor solution run on the reduced scale shows that all first factors have relatively high eigen values hinging around 6 and 12 and all second, third, and fourth factors have rather low eigen values, hinging around one in the first three sets and two in the last set (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
FACTOR STATISTICS FOR THE 15-ITEM SCALE ACROSS THE FOUR DATA SETS
(1= eigen value, 2= percent of variance, 3= cumulative percent)

Factor	(Pressure-Cooker)			(Oven)			(Washer)			(Freezer)		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1	8.17	54.5	54.5	7.04	47.0	47.0	8.50	56.7	56.7	6.46	43.1	
2	43.1			1.53	10.2	57.2	1.46	9.6	66.4	2.04	13.6	
3	56.8	8.2	62.7				1.06	7.1	73.5	1.65	11.0	
4	67.8	6.6	69.4	.86	5.8	62.9	.78	5.2	78.8	.78	7.5	
	.82	5.5	74.8	.75	5.0	67.9						
	75.3											

These results indicate that PPI is unifactorial: on average, eigen values drop from eight to one, second factors account for no more than an additional 10% for the first three sets and a little bit more for the last set (13.6%). Hence, the one-factor solution accounting, on average, for more than 50% of variance, is deemed appropriate. The corrected item-to-total correlations for the 15-item scale across the four data sets are provided in Table 3. Having all 15 items correlate highly with the first factor throughout the four data sets is unlikely (item 15 in third set).

TABLE 3
CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATIONS ACROSS THE FOUR DATA SETS

Item	Pressure-Cooker	Oven	Washer	Freezer
Item1	.7360	.6238	.7471	.3414
Item2	.8300	.5544	.6968	.4066
Item3	.7279	.7107	.7548	.6722
Item4	.5877	.7895	.7617	.7482
Item5	.7669	.7642	.7620	.5679
Item6	.6677	.6293	.7247	.6623
Item7	.6831	.7478	.6616	.6984
Item8	.6667	.7806	.5204	.6305
Item9	.7118	.7774	.7455	.6630
Item10	.6631	.5991	.7514	.3193
Item11	.7364	.5527	.7416	.6532
Item12	-.6052	-.3864	-.7336	-.5461
Item13	.6836	.5994	.7438	.7650
Item14	.5320	.5536	.7605	.3908
Item15	.7730	.3611	.1996	.5548

Note : item12 is the only item left with negative wording in the reduced set.

A look at the crossed-out items warrants some comments. The fact that durables save time and effort is an evidence (items 1 and 2). Respondents agree to such an extent that no variability is reflected and, consequently, no significant contribution to explaining differences in durables appreciation is expected. What matters, it seems, is the way time and effort gained from durables ownership is used. Items relating to the pleasure or enjoyment (items 19, 23 and 24) as well as to the impression management (items 20, 25 and 26) values seem to be irrelevant. Significant are the utilitarian and identity values. These are so intermingled that they make one construct, thus confirming the author's contention that consumers derive symbols from objects, identity from practicality. This does not mean that the relational value is irrelevant, but it is geared towards the spouse and the children thus reinforcing family roles and home orientation (items 6, 7, 9, 10, 14 and 15) rather than other-orientation. Items reflecting role obligations are not associated with achievement and status value (Richins 1994a) or with what others would think of them (item 25, 26, 27). The recognition they look for, it seems, comes more from self-imposed standards than from expectations emanating from outside observers (Thornton and Nardi 1975). This is again in line with the idea that actors are not that concerned with impression management.

Conclusion

This research confirmed unidimensionality of PPI and permitted its reduction to a manageable size. Its disadvantage is the sample size, but reliance on a small sample is warranted given the exploratory nature of the study. The objective is to come out with a reasonably valid and simple instrument for use in further extensive research (Steenkamp and Trijp 1991). To a large extent, the scale can be taken as acultural. However, empirical validation in contexts different from the one in which the survey was conducted, say Europe or America, is warranted and should draw upon the 33-items list.

This may reveal more or less the same scale structure with different items magnitude or different scale profiles where other items will be more salient and will better account for variations among European or American respondents than the 15-items scale.

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APPENDIX : ORIGINAL SCALE (33 ITEMS)

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1/ It saves time | 17/ It makes me feel I am a good parent |
| 2/ It saves money | 18/ It makes me feel I am a good spouse |
| 3/ It is very helpful (it spares effort) | 19/ I didn't (I won't) buy it for pleasure's sake |
| 4/ It is healthy | 20/ I didn't (I won't) buy it because others have it |
| 5/ It helps me serve my children properly | 21/ It allows me to reduce overhead from my various obligations |
| 6/ It helps me serve my spouse properly | 22/ It doesn't have practical usefulness |
| 7/ It helps me serve my guests properly | 23/ It helps me bring pleasure to others |
| 8/ It helps me devote more time for myself | 24/ It doesn't provide enjoyment for me |
| 9/ It helps me devote more time for my family | 25/ It makes other people think well of me |
| 10/ It helps me get organized | 26/ It gives me social status |
| 11/ It helps me carry out other tasks simultaneously | 27/ I doesn't represent an achievement for me |
| 12/ It does not represent a nice decoration item. | 28/ It allows me to spare time for other activities (reading, sport) |
| 13/ I cannot do without it | 29/ It helps me keep my house clean and tidy |
| 14/ My family doesn't need it very badly | 30/ It helps me satisfy my family's needs |
| 15/ It helps me work more efficiently at home activities | 31/ It helps my spouse be efficient in household |
| 16/ It helps me work more efficiently outside the home | 32/ It helps my spouse be efficient outside the home |
| 33/ It gives a better quality service compared to the means that preceded it and that fulfilled more or less the same function. | |

Note : Items are listed in the order in which they appeared on the questionnaire and are scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from « completely agree » (=1) to « completely disagree » (=5).

Assessing the theoretical relevance for the perceived product instrumentality construct of family purchasing behavior

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The author is very grateful to Doctor David A. Wesson of the Business School of the University of Northumbria at Newcastle for insightfully commenting (during a quick visit to Tunis and over a coffee in Carthage) on the focused-group contents and for generously offering his \$300 honorarium as a contribution to the focused-group discussion expenses.

Abstract

The objective of this paper is twofold, (1) assess the theoretical relevance for the Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI) construct, (2) generate substantive items for its measurement. PPI is a new construct proposed as a key process component of a general model of family purchasing behavior (presented in Appendix A). PPI reflects the degree to which consumers, apprehended as actors of social roles, deem the product to be helpful, meaningful, facilitative of role performance, compatible with role identity, and congruent with self-concept. Focused-group interviews with household members within a modern tunisian middle class context confirm the assumption that possessions, particularly time-saving and effort-sparing (TSES) durables, are appreciated for their utilitarian, interpersonal, pleasure, and identity values. These values are proposed to be the main facets of PPI. On the basis of typical statements made by the participants and on previous literature, a 33-item scale is proposed to serve as an initial instrument for PPI measurement.

Introduction

Perceived Product Instrumentality (PPI) is a perceptual and attitudinal construct that is proposed as a central process component of a comprehensive model of family purchasing behavior (see Appendix A). It is the author's contention that PPI may interact with role orientations (apprehended in terms of Role Ideology, Role Overload, and Role Performance) to moderate the effect of socio-demographics (apprehended in terms of employment status, income, education and age) on households' ownership of Time Saving and Effort Sparing Products (TSES). PPI refers to the degree to which an individual committed to role enactment holds a product to be dear, i. e., the degree to which he invests the product with meaning (Richins 1994a). Taking the specific case of TSES durables, PPI conveys the main idea that products are owned or used to facilitate the quality of role performance, to help the incumbent reduce overload, to reinforce his identity, and to enhance the image that he wishes to convey (Sentis and Markus, 1983; Solomon 1983; Richins 1994a). Hence, products are perceived as instrumental because they satisfy a need (rational or emotional), have meaning (private or public), solve problems (practical or symbolic), are congruent with the self-concept or reinforce an identity (identity value). The more a product is deemed capable of satisfying this range of motives, the more accurately problems it solves, the more it is invested with meaning, the more its compatibility with the self-concept, the more congruence with a salient identity, the more its perceived instrumentality.

It is the author's contention that PPI will account, to a certain extent, for differences among consumers who have more

or less similar objective characteristics but who have different consumption priorities. As a moderator variable, PPI will contribute, for instance, to discriminate between TSES product owners and nonowners. These may have more or less the same employment status or income or educational level but different instrumentality profiles when it comes to evaluating a particular TSES product. For instance, a working woman may experience role overload and still does not buy a particular TSES product for the reason that she does not perceive it as instrumental in meeting her role commitments. The product may objectively represent a helpful device for her as an overloaded worker but she may perceive it as incompatible with her self image as a diligent mother and a caring housewife.

Methodology

In order to assess the theoretical relevance of the PPI construct and generate a scale for its measurement, focused-group interviews are utilized. They are led by a professional lady from a consulting firm. The author, playing in a way the role of « the client », attends some of the sessions as an observer and never intervenes in the debate lest he biases the discussion. After each session, participants are given a little symbolic present. The sessions are tape-recorded with the participants' permission. Before the sessions are held, the following note about objective, instrument and anchors for the study is communicated to the group leader by the researcher.

Objective. Test the theoretical relevance of "Perceived Product Instrumentality" and generate substantive propositions that will constitute the scale. The author is particularly interested in the actors-TSES durables interaction, but does not want the discussion to be directed only to such possessions from the outset lest participants focus totally on the role overload phenomena and on durables as a means utilized to reduce it. Instructions are given so as to encourage the group discussion leader to explore all possible motivations behind TSES ownership and use.

Instrument. Ask participants to think about, list, name one or several possessions deemed important to them whether they presently own them or not. The debate should concentrate on durable goods. Why are these so important, so valuable? How did they happen to acquire them? In what circumstances? (Richins 1994 a; 1994b).

Anchors. To what extent and under what circumstances are TSES durables perceived as means of solving problems? These problems should hinge around the two fundamental dimensions of practicality and symbolism. Practicality is reflected in the fact that products are deemed helpful, useful, efficacious, time-saving, effort sparing, and so on, because they help individuals cope with the multitude of roles they involve in and meet role demands emanating from significant others as well as from the actor himself (Thornton and Nardi 1975). Symbolism is reflected in the fact that products are deemed congruent with the self-concept, compatible with the image the individual wishes to convey of her/himself. The discussion leader is instructed to let the participants talk about

any of the other "private" or "public" meanings they give to products: enjoyment, pleasure, pride, interpersonal relations, competence, achievement, mastery, self-gratification, and so on (Richins 1994b).

Subjects

The collaborating consulting firm took care of recruiting the participants on the basis of the researcher's recommendations. Women are overrepresented because of the intuitive, albeit stereotypical assumption, that they are more concerned with durables administration. Subjects contacted are informed that they are solicited to participate in a discussion about durables for research purposes. The groups were chosen as follows; session1: higher - middle class (8 women, different ages, employment statuses and educational levels); session2: working lower class (9 women, different ages and educational levels); session3: nonworking lower class (9 women, different ages and educational levels); session4: middle class men (8 men, different ages and educational levels).

Analysis

Richins's (1994a) conceptualization of the meanings of possessions is believed to be a useful tool for the analysis of the dynamic interaction between products and individuals apprehended as role players, as reflected in the focused-group discussions contents. According to Richins, products are possessed for the values they are invested with. These are the utilitarian, interpersonal, enjoyment, and identity values. They are proposed here as facets of instrumentality.

The utilitarian value. Utilitarian value refers to the functions and the usefulness of possessions for the individual to lead an efficient life (Richins 1994a). In particular, role performance is thought to be facilitated by the presence or hindered by the absence of products (Solomon 1983). In relation to women's role, the utilitarian value of TSES durables is found to hinge around the following factors: time saving and effort sparing, economy, health, and cleanliness.

Time saving and effort sparing. The focused group interviews revealed that most durables are deemed necessary, important, practical because of their ability to help actors perform their roles more adequately. Most of the time, reference is made to the capacity of durables to provide more time to the housewife, to help her get organized and serve the family more appropriately. Some durables which are meant for certain uses are creatively used as means of saving time and sparing effort. (For instance tomatoes are smashed with the meat processor, chips are fried with the pressure-cooker, and so on). By saving time, durables help women devote spared time to other household chores: do more cleaning, feed the little children, help the grown-ups do their school homeworks, and so on. Most of the time, reference is made to the rational components of buyer behavior. The freezer reduces the frequency of shopping trips, the fridge reduces the frequency of food preparation, the processor helps in the preparation of a drink to whoever needs it in a twinkling of an eye, and the washing machine facilitates the performance of several tasks at a time, like preparing food while washing clothes. "Before I bought my washing machine, I happened to ask my husband not to come for lunch; now I can feed the family and do the washing at the same time" said one participant. "I find the washing machine so helpful and so friendly that I usually cherish it by singing to it as if it were a kid", said another woman.

Economy. Some women assert that certain durables have economical value. The fridge allows them to spare left-over foods, the freezer allows them to buy less frequently and in large quantities thus saving them money and to use out-seasoned vegetables and fruits which they would buy very cheap while abundant. The pressure cooker is deemed economical. "A meal that normally needs an hour cooking needs no more

than fifteen minutes". Even the washing machine is economical. Some housewives contend that "they need no more hired help for such a task." Some participants argue nonetheless that many durables are energy consuming. They attribute the expensiveness of the electricity bill to the TV, the fridge, the iron, and other home appliances.

Health and cleanliness. Most of the time, participants insist on health and cleanliness. Some durables (e.g. vacuum-cleaner) are owned mainly as complements of other goods (e.g. carpets). "Because of all the carpets I have at home, it is necessary to vacuum clean the house every day. Not only do I need to keep my house clean, but also save the children from the health risk of breathing in dust", said one woman. The chip-fryer is also valued for similar reasons. It is not only time-saving in preparing chips compared to other devices, but it is also very clean. "Before I bought the chip-fryer, frying potatoes is a pain in the neck for me; the cooker and the kitchen floor become all wet with oil. Now that I have it, it saves me precious time and spares me unnecessary efforts of cleaning the cooker and the floor after frying potatoes". The cleanliness, time saving, and effort sparing values are usually intermingled in the valuation of many durables and appliances.

The interpersonal value

The interpersonal value refers to the capacity of an object to reinforce relationships (Richins 1994a). This research reveals that TSES durables are mostly appreciated for their practicality and their efficiency in helping women save time for the sake of adequately serving other people, and particularly, the children and the husband. Products are means by which family ties are reinforced. Rarely do women appreciate saving time and effort for the sake of pursuing their own personal goals such as sports, leisure and social activities. Most of the uses they can think of are perceived as parts of their roles as mothers and as homemakers.

The pressure cooker, the processor, the oven, and the coffee maker are significant possessions in this respect. "I cannot imagine my life without a pressure-cooker... When I go back home after work, all I have to do is put in it whatever I have: vegetables, meat or whatever- turn it on, and wait for half an hour until dinner is ready" says one participant. "Before I go to work in the morning, I want to make sure that everybody is properly served. The coffee maker and the processor make it possible for mothers to prepare coffee and juice speedily "lest the children go to school without being adequately fed". The oven is also appreciated and deemed important because it gives them opportunities to satisfy a variety of needs and desires of family members and to decently serve eventual visitors. Many durables are appreciated for the time and effort they can spare. Time is mainly valued for the sake of being reinvested in family relationships and effort is typically spared for the sake of better household management. All participants place high value on warmth and interpersonal ties, and many durables are appreciated for their ability to reinforce them.

The enjoyment and the pleasure value

Enjoyment value refers to the capacity of a product to provide pleasure or to allow some enjoyable activity (Richins 1994a). Some of the ideas evoked by the participants reveal that, in most cases, product ownership is accompanied by psychological experiences and energies which emphasize enjoyment and pleasure (Holbrook and Hirshman 1982). Most of these hinge around the sense of readiness and completeness on the one hand, and the sense of aesthetics and beauty on the other.

The sense of readiness and completeness. This research reveals that most women's pleasure derives from the fact that product ownership gives them the feeling of *readiness* of whatever they feel like doing and the feeling of *completeness* whereby they have everything they need within reach. The sense of readiness is manifested in the fact that having a whole set of durables

gives women the feeling that they can serve the children, the husband and eventual visitors whenever needed. The freezer and the fridge contain enough food, the oven and the processor are ready for use. Women derive pleasure from the availability of such durables and from the resulting opportunity of exercising their imagination and skill of baking a cake, roasting a meat, or frying a fish for whomever needs it. They like preparing palatable meals for their families and for eventual visitors. They also like to be appreciated and complemented for that.

The sense of completeness manifests itself in many ways. Women want to own whatever is deemed or thought to be necessary for eventual needs, just in case occasions for use present themselves. Some participants buy devices not as much out of necessity, as out of an urge of making sure that a complete set of possessions is ready for eventual need. "I like having whatever durables are available in the market. 'Some products - like the egg-cooker - are not really useful for me now. I only used my egg-cooker once ever since I bought it. I sometimes have the feeling that I probably should not have bought it. But I don't think I could have resisted buying it. I like having all that may be of eventual usefulness'. 'I feel I am very happy when I possess all the durables now at my disposal', said another woman. 'When I have at home the products I need, I feel I am living my life properly', another participant adds.

The sense of readiness and completeness imbue women with a predisposition for acquisitiveness, possessiveness, and craving for the ownership of as many durables as possible. In many cases, durables are assembled to achieve material well being (Richins 1994b) and to attain self-confidence. Some buy devices out of curiosity and of a desire to try new things. Some durables are owned but almost never used. It does not matter whether they use the product or not, provided that they own it. Ownership is of paramount importance while use is a secondary issue. They like calling things mine. They appreciate durables because they allow them to hold control over domestic life for which they feel most responsible.

The sense of beauty and aesthetics. Another source of enjoyment for women is that certain products represent items of decoration and symbols laden with meaning (Holbrook and Hirshman 1982). Not only do women want others to think of them as good mothers and diligent homemakers, but they also want to look attractive and to carry an image of tidiness and charm. Some participants note that certain objects possess beauty that is personally appealing to them (Solomon 1983; McCracken 1986). One participant says: "the processor is a pretty device, I love having it in front of me all the time". For several participants, audience reaction to their possession's appearance is an important dimension of meaning. This is reflected in women's attitude towards maintaining a tidy and clean house and by filling it with appliances, some of which are treated as items of decoration. Women seem to carry happily the duty of keeping their homes clean and tidy. They derive pleasure from their possessions and their responsibilities.

The kitchen represents for women a very significant "possession". "I probably don't care much about how my bedroom looks like, but I do care about how my kitchen looks like". It is an open area and women see to it that it looks nice all the time. When their home is messy, they see to it that nobody would come in. "My husband happens to come from work while I am busy with housework, I feel very bothered with this unclean appearance". So, the kitchen is more than just a set of items. The word is laden with meaning: "it is the first place the children and the husband would visit when they would come back home looking for something to eat or to drink". The aesthetics values are particularly salient with products other than home appliances such as carpets, dinner services, and so on. Many of these products are basically owned for impression management, rather than for practical usefulness (These are invoked by men who complain that their wives are obsessed by the aesthetics value to the extent that they deprive the family

from using these products and by limiting the use of them to occasions, like when receiving guests.

The identity value

Identity value reinforces the achievement of an image and expresses personal beliefs (Richins 1994a). As a role player, the consumer relies upon the social information inherent in products to maximize the quality of role performance and to shape self-image (Solomon 1983). The focused-group interviews substantiate the idea that the consuming behavior of the individual is directed toward enhancing and protecting the self-concept (Buskirk and Buskirk 1992).

Enhancing the self concept. The discussions confirm that many durables are used by the social actor as a means of defining identity. The discussion about the importance of owning TSES products confirms the assumption that women balance work and family in a way that gives priority to identification with family roles (Bielby and Bielby 1989; Walker 1989). All that reinforces such an identity is deemed important and valuable. "I cannot go to work before making sure that the children will find something to eat for lunch. When they come back home while I am at work, every thing is in the fridge, and all they need to do is put whatever is available in the oven and help themselves" says one participant. Most of them seem incapable of having an identity of their own apart from their families. They assume the homemaker role to such an extent that role demands and personal needs become one. "I cannot imagine a mother, either working or not working, without a washing machine at home. Cleanliness is the responsibility of women, some participants acquiesce. "I did not really need the washing machine in the very beginning of my married life; but as soon as I had my first child, it became a necessity for me."

Protecting the self concept. For some women, the homemaker sub-identity seems to be so salient that they express reluctance to using products perceived as incongruent with their homemaker role. In certain cases, even if they own the product, they may be reluctant to using it because its incompatibility with their self-concept. It simply does not fit into the role they play in life. Talking about kitchen equipment, one fifty-year-old housewife remarks anecdotally that it is making life so easy for women. "All that is left to do now is just turn a machine on and have whatever food is needed". It seems that too much of such a technology is incompatible with women's self concept as diligent mothers, good cooks and careful homekeepers. This may explain the skepticism of certain participants about the recognition of the utility of certain durable goods. Apparently, they unconsciously deplore the fact that certain durables have robbed some key components of their salient homemaker's identity.

The pressure-cooker, the processor, and the washer represent significant cases to consider. For instance, some women are skeptical about using the pressure-cooker, despite the fact that they own it. "I do have time constraints and do have a pressure-cooker, says a working woman, and yet I don't use it. It seems to me that the food does not taste as good as when prepared without it". Another participant adds "I own a pressure-cooker and I only use it when I have unexpected guests... It seems to me that food cooked on a slow fire tastes much better." When the discussion focuses on food processing, one participant says: "I prefer to smash the meat manually; the processor is not as good; the meat does not conserve its real quality" said another woman. Talking about the automatic washing machine, one participant says: "when I use this kind of washing machine, I don't feel at ease. I have the impression that some clothes are not properly cleaned. In particular, white clothes do not conserve their genuine brightness. But when I use the small machine, I feel comfortable because I can always stop it and intervene to clean remaining spots with my hands. I am quite sure that the machine cannot do every thing for me". So all that women want the machine to do for them

is just help. The machine does no more than the washing, the woman takes care of the cleaning. Cleanliness is the woman's responsibility and skill, not the machine's.

The attitude of women towards TSES durables use and acquisition is not a matter of working or not working, it is a matter of self-concept. Some products, while appealing to some rational motives, may be at odds with an emotional motive. They may solve problems in terms of time and effort; but they may create another problem as they may also imply abandoning the pleasure of exercising imagination and performing skills. They may even hinder the desire to create and to serve and jeopardize the sense of duty and love to others (Buskirk and Buskirk 1992).

Many of these women feel that, to some extent, with the advent of certain household technologies, they are being robbed of some of the core components of the homemaker role identity. When a woman identifies the dishwasher as a durable good she considers for future purchasing, one participant says anecdotally: "If the house is filled with such equipments, what will wives be good at? Why would my husband consider the idea of getting married with me?". To a very large extent, homemaking is their "raison d'être". Their lives hinge around the home and TSES durables should reinforce their homemaker identity rather than jeopardize it.

Most of women's pleasure and enjoyment derives from their ability to perform their role as housewives and mothers and to reinforce interpersonal relations, particularly, family ties. Durables enhance such a state of mind and are means by which role is defined, performance is facilitated, status is maintained, image is elevated and family life is sustained. In a way, the perception process of product instrumentality blends objects with symbols, practicality with identity. Women seem to be in quest of an image of charm by extracting symbols from objects, beauty from practicality. For any particular possession, several if not all of the meaning dimensions may influence its value. For example, the food processor may be valued because it is relied upon to prepare meals promptly and efficiently (utilitarian value), it helps the housewife serve guests and satisfy needs and desires of family members (interpersonal value); it is of such design that it can represent a decoration item and a means of association with aesthetics and beauty (pleasure value); it projects the possessor's desired image as a diligent homemaker and reinforces the concept of herself as a caring mother and a good wife (identity).

Men's concept of women's role

Men's discussion confirms the ideas evoked by women about possession meanings and values and reflects an ambivalent attitude towards women's role in contemporary society. At times, a stereotyped conception of women's role is revealed: their main responsibilities are closely linked with household domestic activities. At other times, women are perceived as occupying a central position in family life and are described as being caught into multiple role demands and obligations that deserve recognition and help.

A stereotyped conception of women's role. According to certain participants, new technology is so helpful that the "so called modern" women tend to fall into idleness. To an extent, durables are perceived as "spoilors" of women in contemporary society. When the dishwasher and the microwave are cited by some participants as eventual purchases to consider in the future, the following typical reaction arises: if all such devices enter homes, then what will the wives be useful for? For some husbands, such products are not only ostentatious, but they are perceived as bad. According to some participants, many women like the idea of not doing lots of things at home, regardless of whether they work outside the home or not. They argue that some women seize the opportunity of such a technology to get rid of their fundamental activities of food preparation. These women like buying ready meals from take away restaurants. "I wonder what is a woman's role in society if she behaves this way". "Modernity is imposing itself on men

and women, whether they like it or not", says one participant. "Science seizes the opportunity of modern life styles to fill homes with technology and modern women seem to be receptive to such a trend. They want to lead a pleasant life. They want to cook food with the pressure cooker and watch the TV at the same time, with the remote control in their hands". A participant says: "I am afraid women themselves will become robots as their role would be limited to turning buttons on and off. 'What will they be doing if their homes are filled with such devices? They will get bored won't they?'" says another participant anecdotally. Some other comments reveal the skepticism of some men about certain durables not from the point of view of their relation with women's role, but from the products' intrinsic benefits. Talking about the pressure cooker, some complain that the food does not taste as good as when cooked on a slow fire. Another participant adds: "who now cares about how food tastes like? We are living in a hurry, in a world where time is a precious resource". He seems to be nostalgic of his parents' life when time and patience were abundant resources.

The centrality of women's role. Some participants recognize that women's role is central to family life and acquiesce that women deserve help from technology and from family members. Many husbands attribute their present standing to their wives' wisdom in managing the household and to their sacrifice by assuming demanding roles. Many participants express gratitude towards their wives because of their "superwomen" role performance, something their mothers and grandmothers never had to face. They believe that there are so many demands on their spouses' new roles of employee, wife, and mother that they don't mind investing large amounts of money in such acquisitions. Others don't mind coming to the aid of their overloaded wives by stepping into such activities as cleaning the house, doing the table for lunch or clearing it after meals.

Many household activities are no longer the only province of the wife, thus heralding departures from traditional role expectations and household role distribution. Most men's involvement however is limited to auxiliary work. They don't like assuming whole responsibilities for any particular task. More than that, they don't like helping their wives as if they had the duty to do so. All they want to do is volunteer out of free will as if it were a favor rather than out of obligations and orders imposed upon them by their wives. Most durables are deemed valuable by men because they are means by which their wives' pressures, not theirs, are alleviated. This negative attitude towards man's involvement in homechores is confirmed in women's discussions. (When man's involvement was evoked, it was limited to very infrequent tasks. Women themselves seem to discourage certain forms of their husbands' involvement in homechores. "Having the husband vacuum-clean the house is like having him use the broom. I don't like to see my husband do such a thing". This seems to be counter to what society deems a positive image of man or husband).

Conclusion

Based on the above focused-group interviews and on previous literature, the statements Appendix B are proposed for eventual PPI measurement. All the 33 items are purportedly representing the underlying construct of PPI. The instrument is constructed on the basis of the following principles: it should be non-gender specific, acultural, and general enough to apply to any TSES product. With these principles in mind, and in an attempt to reflect as many values invoked by the literature (Richins 1994a) and by the discussions as possible, the following areas are believed to be reflective of the PPI facets: utilitarian: time-saving, effort sparing, economy, practicality (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 22, 29); enjoyment/ pleasure (items 12, 19, 23, 24); status/impression management (items 20, 25, 26); family and other orientation: ability to serve the children, the spouse, the guests (items 5, 6, 7, 9, 14, 17, 18);

extra-family orientation : ability to work and involve in outside activities (items 11, 21, 28, 32).

Focused-group interviews confirm the theoretical relevance of the PPI construct. It encompasses or at least has got ramifications with previous consumer behavior theories. On the one hand, possessions are owned and valued for their capacity to help consumers solve rational, utilitarian, and practical problems. They are mostly appreciated for their capacity to help women get organized and save time and effort. On the other hand, products are invested with symbolic meanings that transcend their physical attributes. These meanings hinge around the relational, the symbolic and the identity values. The identification with the homemaker role is so strong that possessions are but means of reinforcing it, reducing overload and sustaining family ties. For the majority of participants, most possession values converge towards enhancing the homemaker, the wife and the mother identities as well as reinforcing role skills.

The PPI construct translates properly the idea that certain products and possessions are deemed important because they help actors perform their roles more skillfully. At times reference is made to the capacity of TSES durables to help them cope with multiple role obligations and, in particular, with work involvement. But most of the time, durables are appreciated because they reinforce women's identity as homemakers and they help them perform their roles as mothers and wives. There are no cases in the study where women cite the importance of durables as means of getting rid of some of their main responsibilities as homemakers. They like the idea of performing tasks more skillfully with the help of technology. Never do they intend to get rid of any of them. On the con-

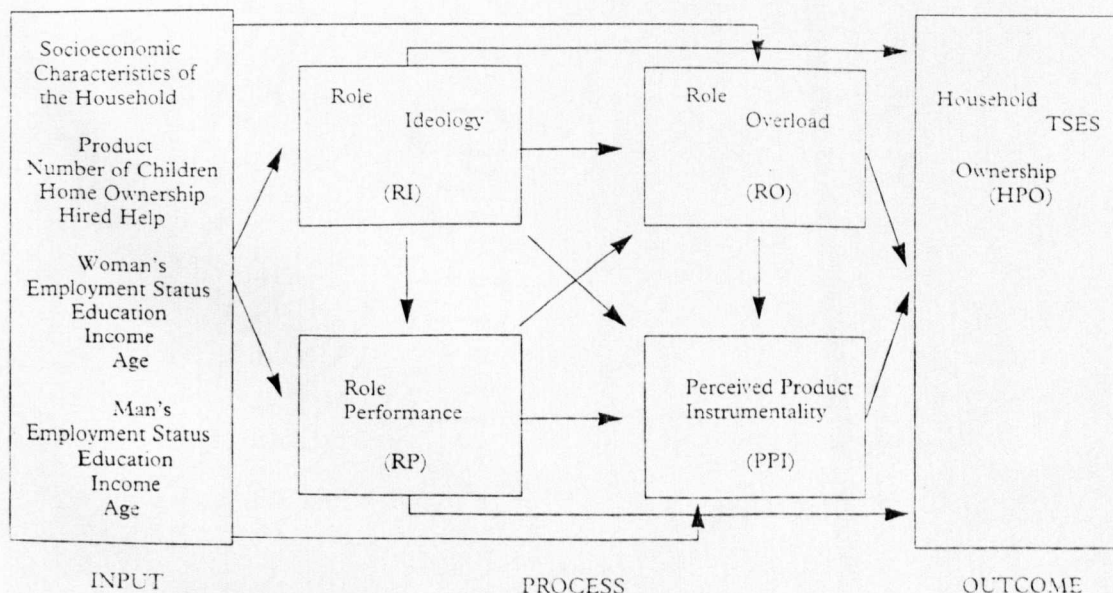
trary, they want to enrich and extend their homemaking skills. They like durables as long as they enhance their self-concept as diligent homemakers and good housewives. However, some of them are reluctant to some specific services rendered by durables on the grounds that they are not as reliable as theirs. A few women seem to reclaim some of the fundamental meanings of their identity as homemakers and diligent mothers and wives.

Men's discussions reveal an ambivalent attitude towards certain durables and an incongruent perception of their usefulness for contemporary family life. At times, men appreciate durables for the help they bring to their wives in order to alleviate their daily pressures. At other times, they are skeptical about the services rendered by new technology. Some appliances are not only thought as giving bad quality services, but they are perceived as spoilers of contemporary women. Despite the apparent interchangeability in men's and women's roles distribution and enactment, durables administration remains typically the wives' business, not the husbands'.

In conclusion, it is the author's contention that, to a very large extent, the PPI conceptualization is an expansion and an adaptation of Richin's (1994a) theory of product meanings to role-based family consumption experiences. Focused-group interviews reveal that durables are appreciated for their utilitarian, interpersonal, pleasure and identity values. The diversity of attitudes in the evaluation of TSES durables among the participants regardless of their socioeconomic backgrounds proves the relevance of the PPI construct and its eventual capacity to account for variations among couples apprehended as role actors in TSES product ownership understanding and prediction.

APPENDIX A

A General Model of Family Purchasing of Time-Saving and Effort-Sparing (TSES) Products



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Appendix B

Typical Statements (33 Items)

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1/ It saves time | 17/ It makes me feel I am a good parent |
| 2/ It saves money | 18/ It makes me feel I am a good spouse |
| 3/ It is very helpful (it spares effort) | 19/ I didn't (I won't) buy it for pleasure's sake |
| 4/ It is healthy | 20/ I didn't (I won't) buy it because others have it |
| 5/ It helps me serve my children properly | 21/ It allows me to reduce overload from my various obligations |
| 6/ It helps me serve my spouse properly | 22/ It doesn't have practical usefulness |
| 7/ It helps me serve my guests properly | 23/ It helps me bring pleasure to others |
| 8/ It helps me devote more time for myself | 24/ It doesn't provide enjoyment for me |
| 9/ It helps me devote more time for my family | 25/ It makes other people think well of me |
| 10/ It helps me get organized | 26/ It gives me social status |
| 11/ It helps me carry out other tasks simultaneously | 27/ It doesn't represent an achievement for me |
| 12/ It does not represent a nice decoration item | 28/ It allows me to spare time for other activities (reading, sport) |
| 13/ I cannot do without it | 29/ It helps me keep my house clean and tidy |
| 14/ My family doesn't need it very badly | 30/ It helps me satisfy my family's needs |
| 15/ It helps me work more efficiently at home | 31/ It helps my spouse be efficient in household activities |
| 16/ It helps me work more efficiently outside the home | 32/ It helps my spouse be efficient outside the home |
| | 33/ It gives a better quality service compared to the means that preceded it and that fulfilled more or less the same function. |