TIME-SENSITIVE CONSUMERS' PREFERENCE FOR CONCEPT CLUSTERING:

An Investigation of Mall Tenant Placement Strategy

Melody L. Adkins LeHew, Ph.D.,
Assistant Professor, and

Linda M. Cushman, Ph.D.,
Assistant Professor,
Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas

Overview

The shopping mall industry has been confronted with an increasingly competitive and complex marketplace. New shopping center formats and a changing consumer environment have contributed to a recent decline in the productivity of enclosed malls. Innovative strategies have been proposed in trade literature and academic publications, suggesting mall management should target minority ethnic groups, the elderly and even teenagers. Empirical investigation of the motivations and shopping preferences of these groups has been completed. Less information and research has focused on time-sensitive consumers as a potentially profitable segment to be targeted by enclosed malls. The main purpose of this study was to determine the preference of time-sensitive consumers for store placement within the malls. It was proposed that consumers with higher levels of time sensitivity would prefer concept clustering strategies, since these consumers tend to seek convenience and easy access to shopping. A secondary purpose was to obtain descriptive information that would better identify the time-sensitive consumer. Highly time-

sensitive consumers did prefer concept clustering strategies, but the relationship between time sensitivity and tenant placement preferences of consumers was not strong. Time-pressured respondents also indicated that the various concept clustering strategies would increase their shopping satisfaction. The highly time-sensitive consumer can be described as a baby boomer, between the ages of 35 and 54 years, with children.

Background

In recent years enclosed shopping malls have been confronted with an increasingly complex market environment that has led to declining profits and productivity for many U.S. malls. Factors influencing this decline include increased competition and a changing consumer environment. Successful malls will be those that meet these current challenges by adjusting traditional shopping mall strategies in favor of innovative and customer-oriented approaches (Turchiano, 1990b).

Competition in the past decade has been especially fierce for enclosed malls. Consumers are spending less time shopping and the U.S. marketplace is currently overstored (Carn, Rabianski, and Vernor, 1995; Macdonald, 1993; Turchiano, 1990a), making the fight for the consumer's dollar more fervent. However, the crucial element has been the emergence of new retail and shopping center formats which gives consumers more choice in their shopping destination. These innovative formats include power centers, outlet malls and warehouse clubs. Enclosed malls are losing market share to these new competitors, especially power centers (Carn, Rabianski, and Vernor, 1995).

Power centers, with big box retailers such as Home Depot and Old Navy, are attracting the value-conscious and time pressed consumer away from enclosed malls (Carn, Rabianski, and Vernor, 1995; Cavanaugh, 1996; Schneiderman, 1997). They typically house discount or off-price merchants and category killers that provide assortments meeting basic family needs (Carn, Rabianski, and Vernor, 1995). These power centers "emphasize convenience, catering to dual income families that are short on time and energy by allowing shoppers direct access to goods" (Kimball, 1991, p. 387).

The success of these new shopping center formats is due to a changing consumer environment, which is the greatest challenge confronting enclosed malls. Similar to the days when consumers were enticed away from downtown shopping districts to suburban malls better meeting their needs, today consumers are being coaxed away from malls to formats that

better meet their current needs. One important trend that has changed Americans' consumer behavior is the fragmentation of the mass market.

As a result of demographic and socio-economic trends, the U.S. consumer market can no longer be considered a mass market; a fragmentation has occurred (McKenna, 1988; Rosenbloom, 1980). Predominant trends include increasing ethnic diversity and proportion of elderly Americans, smaller households due to lower birth rates and higher divorce rates, and greater incidence of dual-income and single-parent households (Hines, 1988). In order to reach these consumers, retailers and enclosed malls need to replace mass marketing strategies with targeting, positioning and differentiation strategies (Berry, 1996; Doocey, 1993, Turchiano, 1990a, 1990b). All components of a mall's market strategy should be aimed toward satisfying targeted customers, including tenant mix and placement.

Problem Statement

Recent publications have emphasized appropriate strategies for reaching ethnic and elderly segments of the population, and the motivations and preferences of these consumers have been empirically investigated (Balazs, 1994; Herche and Balasubramanian, 1994; Kang, Kim, and Tuan, 1996). There has been less information concerning shopping motivations of and appropriate strategies for the increasing number of dual income families and single parent households.

Two-thirds of married couples in the U.S. have dual incomes (Fram and Axelrod, 1990; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991). This fact, when coupled with the high number of working single parents, suggests that a great number of U.S. consumers have less leisure time, leading to the recent decline in consumer shopping trips and hours spent shopping (Gross, 1987). According to research conducted by Kurt Salmon Associates, "53 percent of all consumers say they're shopping less often to save time . . . 21 percent shop more from home via TV home shopping, catalogs or the Internet" ("Consumers, feeling hassled," 1996, p. 2). Many consumers perceive themselves as time-poor in the 1990s and this perception has changed the shopping habits of Americans. Shopping has become an unpleasant task to be completed as quickly as possible ("Consumers, feeling hassled," 1996; Reynolds, 1993). "Almost half of shoppers in two-earner families and more than one-third of those in single-earner families say that shopping becomes more of a chore each year" (Fram and Axelrod, 1990, p. 45). To combat the decreasing amount of leisure time spent shopping, retailers and shopping center managers must offer convenience and shopping ease as a part of the retail mix (Eure, 1991). "By offering products in a setting that requires very little

time to make purchases, a retailer could better (more profitably) serve time-sensitive consumers" (Umesh, Pettit, and Bozman, 1989, p. 715).

It is interesting to note that shopping centers were created for consumer convenience earlier in this century, designed to cluster an appropriate retail mix together to encourage multi-purpose and comparison shopping. In the high inflationary economy of the late 1970s and 1980s, these benefits stimulated the increased popularity of the shopping center format and phenomenal growth occurred in the development of these centers. Now they are considered to be a less convenient shopping facility by an increasing number of consumers (Cavanaugh, 1996).

Why do consumers view an enclosed mall as less convenient than a power center? Perhaps the answer lies in the increasing importance of time in consumers' busy lifestyles discussed earlier, as well as the increasing size of typical enclosed malls. Shopping malls are becoming so large that perhaps clustering within a mall is needed to re-establish the convenience factor. Just as today's retailers need to pursue micro-marketing strategies, perhaps shopping center management must pursue micro-clustering strategies in order to entice the time-sensitive shopper back into the mall.

Families, even time-sensitive dual-income and single parent households, are an attractive and viable consumer segment for enclosed malls. The consumption patterns of families, when compared with other segments such as teenagers and elderly, are well suited for traditional retailers currently located in malls. Families tend to consume more goods (i.e., housewares; children's, men's and women's apparel; and home furnishings) because they are establishing households and have growing children. Lifestage theory suggests that families consume and spend more than individuals in other lifestages (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991).

Many malls currently target the female member of the household. A majority of shopping mall managers described their target market as female, approximately 25 to 54 years in age, with families (LeHew, 1996). Instead of repositioning to target a new niche market in the hopes of increasing mall productivity, perhaps new strategies that better satisfy the current target market may be a more efficient use of resources.

In the 1990s, female family members fill many roles beyond those of traditional wife and mother. Leisure time of women today, time traditionally used for shopping, is limited. Their days are overflowing with career, family, and household maintenance. These women may be especially sensitive to time constraints. The number of dual-income families and single parent households should continue to increase in the future and "is likely to become a major factor that influences shopping behavior" (Umesh, Pettit and Bozman, 1989, p. 715). Therefore, shopping center owners and managers must respond pro-actively to these trends. "Businesses that ignore the growing importance of time to consumers

may find themselves with more time and fewer customers" (Fram and Axelrod, 1990, p. 45).

Tenant placement considerations within a planned shopping center are typically based on the wisdom and experience of shopping center owners and management (Brown, 1992). A traditional placement method typically spreads complementary tenants throughout the mall in order to expose customers to a maximum number of store fronts as they wander from one end of the mall to the other to complete their shopping (Alexander and Muhlebach, 1992; Rothenberg, 1986). This traditional placement may be causing time-sensitive consumers to find more convenient shopping facilities, and it tends to restrict traffic flow throughout the mall (Rothenberg, 1986). New placement methods may be needed to satisfy convenience-oriented and time-sensitive consumers.

Recent literature reviewed has emphasized the need for placement strategies based on consumer research and customer needs (Alexander and Muhlebach, 1992; Brown, 1992; Hartnett, 1995; Levy and Weitz, 1995). In consideration of time-sensitive consumers, a concept clustering format has been recommended. Concept clustering can be described as creating "zones of specialty stores that appeal to specific groups" (Hartnett, 1995, p. 69). These placement strategies group tenants by similar types of merchandise, by similar price points (Alexander and Muhlebach, 1992; Hartnett, 1995), or by appeal to specific targeted segments (Hartnett, 1995; Levy and Weitz, 1995; Shermach, 1996). Such placement patterns may facilitate comparison and cross-shopping. Ideally, placement decisions are made in consideration of target market preferences. The concept clustering method may be one approach that will satisfy the wants and needs of time-sensitive consumers.

Retail researchers can provide guidance in this period of market turbulence by investigating the motivations and preferences of major consumer segments. The purpose of this study was to examine time-sensitive consumers, especially focusing on whether concept clustering is a preferred placement strategy. The following research questions guided this study.

1. Do tenant placement preferences of time-sensitive consumers differ from the preferences of consumers not so time-pressured? If so, would a concept clustering approach increase their shopping satisfaction and patronage intentions?
2. Do shopping facility preferences of time-sensitive consumers differ from the preferences of consumers not so time-pressured?
3. Do shopping motivations of time-sensitive consumers differ from the motivations of consumers not so time-pressured?
4. Do specific demographic characteristics of consumers influence their level of time sensitivity?

The main objective of this study was to determine whether time-sensitive consumers prefer a concept clustering strategy over a more traditional placement approach. A secondary objective was to ascertain additional information about time-sensitive consumers: their shopping facility preferences, basic shopping motivations, as well as demographic characteristics.

Methodology

■ Measures

A survey instrument was developed based on an extensive review of pertinent shopping center and shopping behavior literature. The variables of interest in this study were consumers' time sensitivity, tenant placement preferences, shopping facility preferences, shopping motivations, future shopping behaviors and demographics.

Time Sensitivity

Items measuring the perceived level of consumers' sensitivity to time were borrowed from Reilly's (1982) role overload measure. Reilly's (1982) index of role overload was previously validated as a reliable indicator of perceived time-pressure, with a Chronbach's alpha of 0.88. Role overload was defined as the "conflict that occurs when the sheer volume of behavior demanded by the (role) positions in the (role) position set exceeds available time and energy" (Reilly, 1982, p. 408).

In this study, consumers responded to the role overload index on a five-point agreement scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Ten items were used to assess the respondent's level of time sensitivity. These items were summed and averaged to obtain a quantitative measure of perceived time sensitivity.

The present study assumed that as consumers experience increased role overload (e.g., too many demands on their time) they become more time-sensitive. Time sensitivity was defined as a consumer's perception of the amount of leisure time available. High time sensitivity was the perception of very little available leisure time or time-poor; low time sensitivity was the perception of adequate available leisure time.

Tenant Placement Preference

Items measuring the tenant placement preferences of consumers were developed by the researchers, but based on tenant placement literature (Abratt, Fourie, and Pitt, 1985; Alexander and Muhlebach, 1992; Brown,

1992; Hartnett, 1995). Nine statements illustrating four placement strategies were designed so that consumers could respond on a five-point agreement scale based on their level of preference. The four placement approaches were categorized as (1) a traditional strategy, that spreads complementary stores throughout the mall to increase walk through traffic; (2) a product clustering strategy, that groups stores selling similar merchandise together; (3) a price clustering strategy, that groups retailers by their price points offered (i.e., budget or upscale); and (4) a lifestyle clustering strategy, that brings together those stores targeting a similar segment of the population (i.e., working women or college students). Respondents were asked to consider their preference for store placement within an enclosed mall by giving their level of agreement with statements such as "Stores selling high priced merchandise should be grouped together" or "The placement of stores within a mall should encourage shoppers to walk throughout the mall." An overall tenant placement preference score for each placement strategy was obtained by summing and averaging the responses.

Six items were also included to assess perceived changes in consumer satisfaction and patronage intentions if a shopping mall utilized a concept clustering strategy. For each type of concept clustering (merchandise, price, and lifestyle) respondents were asked if their shopping satisfaction would increase, and if they would shop more often if malls grouped stores by that strategy. This construct was also measured with a five-point agreement scale.

Shopping Facility Preference

Consumers' preference for a specific shopping facility type was measured using a five-point agreement scale. Five facility types were included: enclosed malls, strip centers, manufacturers' outlet centers, downtown shopping districts and mail order catalogues. One indicator was used for each shopping facility type. Instructions directed respondents to consider statements such as "I prefer to shop within an enclosed mall" or "I prefer to shop at home, using mail order catalogues" and indicate their level of agreement.

Shopping Motivation

Multiple indicators were used to assess shopping motivations. Twenty-one items were derived from previous research on shopping motivations (Dawson, Bloch, and Ridgway, 1990; Kang, Kim and Tuan, 1996; McDonald, 1994; Mooradian and Olver, 1996; Roy, 1994; Westbrook and Black, 1985). Basic shopping incentives were the focus of this measure, and included social, economic, pleasure and sensory stimulation

motives. A five-point scale was used to measure consumers' level of agreement with such statements as "I enjoy hunting for bargains," "I prefer to shop with friends and family," or "I find shopping to be a hassle." These items measured consumers' general reasons for shopping.

Demographic Information

Specific demographic information was obtained in order to provide a description of highly time-sensitive consumers. Demographic variables that may influence time sensitivity and shopping behavior were measured and consisted of: ethnic origin, age, size of household, marital status, household type (i.e., married, with children, dual-income), education level, occupation and income.

■ Data Collection

A self-administered mail survey was utilized to investigate the tenant placement preferences of time-sensitive consumers. Surveys were mailed to a random sample of 3,000 female consumers residing within the continental United States. Names and addresses of the sample were obtained from a commercial consumer list broker.

Several techniques were employed to ensure an adequate response rate. First, a monetary incentive was available to those returning the questionnaire. Respondents had up to 10 chances to win a $100 gift certificate from select national retailers. Second, return postage was pre-paid by including a business reply envelope in the mailing. Finally, a second survey was mailed to non-respondents four weeks after the first mailing, encouraging a response from sample members who might have misplaced or discarded the original questionnaire. A new cover letter was included in the second mailing highlighting the importance of the respondent to the study and reminding them of the chance to win a gift certificate.

There were 590 completed questionnaires returned from U.S. consumers, and 324 were returned as non-deliverable. Subtracting the non-deliverables when calculating the percent of response, this study yielded a 22% rate of return.

Findings

■ Description of Sample

General demographic characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 1. The ethnic distribution of respondents corresponds to U.S. population

statistics, where white Americans make up 79.5%, African Americans 12.2%, and Asian Americans 3.5% of the total population (Applied Geographic Solutions, Inc., 1998). The ethnic background of the sample in this study was 83% white Americans, 12.1% African Americans and 1.9% Asian Americans. Overall, the sample was representative of the general ethnicity of the U.S. population.

The age distribution of the sample also coincides with the general population. As Table 1 indicates, the largest percentage of respondents fell into the age range 35 to 54 years. This is the baby boom segment, the largest adult segment of the U.S. population. The presence of a large contingent of baby boomers was welcome in this study for several reasons. Consumers in that lifestage are generally in their peak earning years; they tend to be well established in the workforce. They are also typically in their child-bearing years, and busy raising a family. It was assumed that these individuals might be more likely to experience high levels of time sensitivity, the focus of this study.

Other demographic characteristics used to profile the sample included marital status, education and household income level. Respondents were typically married or divorced, with a post-secondary degree

TABLE 1. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SAMPLE

	N (%)		N (%)
Ethnic Origin		**Education**	
White	479 (83)	Less than 9th grade	7 (1.2)
Black	70 (12.1)	9th–12th, no degree	29 (5)
Am. Indian	1 (0.2)	High school graduate	109 (18.9)
Asian/Pacific Isle	11 (1.9)	Some college	136 (23.6)
Other	12 (2.1)	Associate degree	43 (7.5)
Age		Bachelor's degree	96 (16.6)
Under 25 years	17 (3)	Graduate/professional degree	88 (15.3)
25–34 years	86 (14.9)	**Household Income**	
35–44 years	135 (23.4)	Less than $10,000	37 (6.4)
45–54 years	127 (22)	$10,000–$19,999	71 (12.3)
55–64 years	89 (15.4)	$20,000–$29,999	93 (16.1)
65–74 years	66 (11.4)	$30,000–$39,999	75 (13)
75 years or over	54 (9.4)	$40,000–$49,999	53 (9.2)
Marital Status		$50,000–$59,999	42 (7.3)
Never married	120 (20.8)	$60,000–$99,999	67 (11.6)
Married	172 (29.8)	$100,000–$149,999	15 (2.6)
Separated	14 (2.4)	$150,000 or more	14 (2.4)
Divorced	155 (26.9)		
Widowed	114 (19.8)		

Note: Due to missing data, the sum of the percentages may not equal 100%.

or at least some college, and household income levels ranging from $10,000 to $40,000.

■ Placement Preferences of Time-Sensitive Consumers

The research question guiding this study was whether consumers at different levels of time sensitivity (higher vs. lower) have divergent preferences for retail store placement within an enclosed mall. Literature reviewed proposed that individuals perceiving increased time-pressure (e.g., high time sensitivity) would be more purposive in their shopping behavior, and would therefore prefer a clustering strategy. Regression analysis was used to test this relationship, with time sensitivity as the independent variable and the four placement strategies (merchandise, price, lifestyle clustering and traditional), as the dependent variables. Findings provided limited support for the proposed linear relationship (Table 2). The preferred placement of retail stores within an enclosed mall was significantly different (statistically) due to a consumer's level of time sensitivity, but the amount of variance explained by time sensitivity was very low.

Results indicated an inverse relationship between time sensitivity and a traditional strategy ($F=10.05$, $R^2=.02$, $p<.01$). Respondents who reported lower levels of sensitivity generally had a higher preference for a traditional placement pattern, that is, stores spread throughout the mall to increase traffic between anchor stores. On the other hand, those in the sample reporting greater time-pressures tended to have a greater preference for concept clustering strategies: price clustering ($F=13.86$, $R^2=.03$, $p<.01$), merchandise clustering ($F=16.83$, $R^2=.03$, $p<.01$), and lifestyle clustering ($F=24.91$, $R^2=.05$, $p<.01$). Preferences for all three clustering types were statistically significant and were positively influ-

TABLE 2. REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR TENANT PLACEMENT PREFERENCE AND TIME SENSITIVITY

Variable	F-Statistic	R-Square	p-value
Traditional Placement Strategy	10.05	0.02	0.0016
Concept Clustering Strategy	22.28	0.04	0.0001
Price Clustering	13.86	0.03	0.0002
Merchandise Clustering	16.83	0.03	0.0001
Lifestyle Clustering	24.91	0.05	0.0001

enced by time sensitivity; however, due to the low variance explained by time sensitivity, it may not be the only variable influencing tenant placement preference. Utilizing time sensitivity as a predictor of tenant placement preference would not be advisable. In addition to analyzing consumers' preference for these zonal merchandising strategies, the impact of such strategies on future shopping behavior was tested utilizing a chi-square contingency table (Table 3). Of interest to the researchers was whether the level of time sensitivity and the presence of clustering methods were related to a consumer's level of shopping satisfaction and patronage behavior. The findings were encouraging for malls utilizing concept clustering.

As indicated in Table 3, chi-square analysis resulted in statistically significant findings for all relationships tested except increased patronage due to a price clustering method. A greater number (than expected by chance) of highly time-sensitive respondents reported agreement with the statement "My shopping satisfaction would increase if malls grouped stores by similar merchandise categories." Out of the respondents strongly agreeing with this statement, 68% were classified as having high time sensitivity, whereas only 32% were classified as having low sensitivity. A price clustering and lifestyle clustering placement approach would also increase highly time-sensitive respondents' satisfaction (refer to Table 3).

Respondents' patronage behavior was also related (statistically significantly) to their level of sensitivity and concept clustering. The number of respondents strongly agreeing with the statement "I would shop more often at malls if they grouped stores by their appeal to my lifestyle' was significantly higher than statistically expected by chance. Sixty-three percent of those who "Strongly Agree" were classified as highly time-sensitive; 37% were classified as having lower time sensitivity. Merchandise clustering also would increase time-pressured respondents' patronage behavior: 63% of those choosing "Agree" were categorized as having high sensitivity and 37% as having low sensitivity.

■ Shopping Facility Preferences of Time-Sensitive Consumers

Regression analysis was used to test the influence of time sensitivity (predictor) on consumers' preferences for specific types of retail outlets (dependent variables). As shown in Table 4, there was no significant influence on preferences for enclosed malls, strip centers, and downtown shopping districts. There was a statistically significant and direct influence on preferences for manufacturers' outlet centers and mail order cat-

TABLE 3. FUTURE SHOPPING BEHAVIOR AND TIME SENSITIVITY

Variable	High Sensitivity	Low Sensitivity	N
Merchandise Clustering			
•Increased Satisfaction [$chi^2(4)=16.02$, $p<.01$]			
Strongly Agree	68%	32%	22
Agree	61%	39%	83
Neutral	48%	52%	113
Disagree	31%	68%	58
Strongly Disagree	40%	60%	5
•Increased Patronage [$chi^2(4)=9.07$, $p<.10$]			
Strongly Agree	57%	43%	23
Agree	63%	37%	63
Neutral	47%	52%	112
Disagree	40%	60%	70
Strongly Disagree	33%	67%	9
Price Clustering			
•Increased Satisfaction [$chi^2(4)=13.67$, $p<.01$]			
Strongly Agree	76%	24%	21
Agree	57%	43%	72
Neutral	48%	52%	120
Disagree	35%	65%	62
Strongly Disagree	75%	25%	4
•Increased Patronage [chi^2 not significant]			
Strongly Agree	63%	37%	19
Agree	59%	41%	63
Neutral	47%	53%	122
Disagree	42%	58%	67
Strongly Disagree	44%	56%	9
Lifestyle Clustering			
•Increased Satisfaction [$chi^2(4)=11.10$, $p<.05$]			
Strongly Agree	74%	26%	23
Agree	56%	44%	95
Neutral	44%	56%	115
Disagree	37%	63%	46
Strongly Disagree	50%	50%	4
•Increased Patronage [$chi^2(4)=10.60$, $p<.05$]			
Strongly Agree	63%	37%	19
Agree	64%	36%	74
Neutral	46%	54%	124
Disagree	40%	60%	48
Strongly Disagree	33%	67%	9

alogs. According to the findings, highly time-pressured consumers prefer to shop at manufacturers' outlets and through catalogs; since the variance explained by time sensitivity was very low, the relationship found in this study was not strong. In consideration of the low R-square values,

TABLE 4. REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR SHOPPING FACILITY PREFERENCES AND TIME SENSITIVITY

Variable	F-Statistic	R-Square	p-value
Enclosed Mall	.76	0.00	0.3853
Strip Center	0.31	0.00	0.5796
Manufacturer's Outlet	3.94	0.01	0.0477
Downtown Shopping District	0.25	0.00	0.6165
Mail Order Catalogs	4.22	0.01	0.0405

a post hoc analysis was completed between time sensitivity and shopping facility preferences in an attempt to clarify the relationship. Frequency percentage tables were tabulated by forcing the time sensitivity measure into a High/Low categorical variable (Table 5). Those respondents with a sensitivity score in the mid-range were dropped from the analysis.

Results from the frequency analysis illustrated the lack of a strong relationship. It appears that respondents reporting that they do not prefer manufacturers' outlets tended to have lower levels of time sensitivity. The preference for manufacturers' outlets by highly time-sensitive consumers was not overwhelming; around half of the respondents who prefer this shopping facility type tended to be highly time-sensitive. Likewise, mail order catalogs are not preferred by lower time-sensitive respondents. High time sensitivity does not appear to be a strong predictor of shopping facility preference.

TABLE 5. FREQUENCY PERCENTAGES FOR SHOPPING FACILITY PREFERENCE AND TIME SENSITIVITY

Shopping Facility Preference	High Sensitivity	Low Sensitivity	N
Manufacturer's Outlet			
Strongly Prefer	43%	57%	30
Prefer	57%	43%	116
Neutral	47%	53%	100
Do Not Prefer	39%	61%	36
Strongly Do Not Prefer	33%	67%	6
Mail Order Catalogs			
Strongly Prefer	44%	56%	18
Prefer	58%	42%	64
Neutral	62%	38%	78
Do Not Prefer	43%	57%	77
Strongly Do Not Prefer	32%	68%	50

■ Shopping Motivations of Time-Sensitive Consumers

The 21 items measuring consumers' shopping motivations were reduced to four different motivational behaviors by utilizing an Iterated Principal Factor Analysis, with a varimax rotation. Four factors were generated from the observed relationships among the 21 shopping motivation items (see Table 6 for factor loadings). The method used to interpret and label the rotated factors consisted of identifying and grouping the items most highly correlated, represented by the factor loading. Labels were given after analyzing the predominant motives in the grouped items.

Six motivational items had high loadings on an Economic factor. These items included statements focused on bargain hunting, shopping sales, comparison shopping, and price consciousness. Six items had high loadings on a Hedonic factor. The Hedonic factor represents the benefits and pleasures gained from the activity of shopping. The statements in this factor were focused on motivations such as: browsing enjoyment, shopping for pleasure or to escape boredom, and keeping up with fashion. Three items loaded on an Aesthetic factor, which measured motivations to shop due to enjoyment of sensory stimulations. The Aesthetic factor statements focused on consumers' appreciation for the interior design, store atmosphere, and visual displays. A Social factor had six items loading high. This factor was best measured by statements focusing on people-watching or being around people, shopping with friends, and interaction with salespeople.

Reduction of the 21 items into four factors was necessary to test the relationship between shopping motivations and time sensitivity. Therefore, the four factors, respectively labeled Economic, Hedonic, Aesthetic, and Social, were used as dependent variables in a MANOVA, with time sensitivity as the independent variable. The overall MANOVA was significant with Wilks' Lambda=.94, F=7.98, and $p<.01$. Since the results from the MANOVA indicated that time sensitivity had an influence on shopping motivations, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the relationships further (Table 7).

The Economic motivation factor was significantly (F=16.52, $R^2=.03$, $p<.01$) influenced by time sensitivity. In other words, there was a statistically significant difference in the economic shopping motivations between consumers with higher and lower time-sensitivity scores, but the amount of variance explained by the predictor variable was very low. Shoppers with higher levels of time sensitivity tended to be motivated by economic factors. This relationship was unexpected, because it suggests that time-poor consumers shop for sales, hunt for bargains and comparison shop. The literature reviewed suggested that time-poor consumers

TABLE 6. FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SHOPPING MOTIVATION ITEMS

	Factor Labels and Loadings			
Motivation Items	**Economic**	**Hedonic**	**Aesthetic**	**Social**
• I generally shop for sales.	0.73			
• I enjoy hunting for bargains.	0.68			
• I tend to identify an item to purchase then wait for it to go on sale.	0.58			
• I buy what I like regardless of the price.*	0.45			
• I shop at many stores, looking for the best deal.	0.66			
• I often comparison shop to find the best product for my money.	0.72			
• I go shopping only when I have something specific to buy.*		0.71		
• I often shop to keep up with the latest fashions.		0.46		
• I tend to shop when I am bored.		0.54		
• I enjoy browsing through stores.		0.65		
• I find shopping to be a hassle.*		0.66		
• I shop only to replace worn out products.*		0.54		
• I appreciate the interior design of the store or mall where I shop.			0.72	
• I do not notice the store atmosphere, just the products available.*			0.65	
• I enjoy looking at the store displays while shopping.			0.49	
• I like to watch people when shopping.				0.23
• I prefer salespeople to leave me alone when I shop.*				0.42
• I prefer to shop with friends or family.				0.30
• I do not enjoy shopping when there are crowds.*				0.38
• I enjoy talking with salespeople and other customers when I shop.				0.63
• Sometimes I shop just to be around people.				0.39

*Negative items reversed during data entry.

seek convenience. The endeavors of bargain hunting and comparison shopping take considerable time, time that these consumers perceive they lack.

The Hedonic shopping motivation factor was found to have a statistically significant ($F=5.42$, $R^2=.01$, $p<.05$) and inverse relationship with time sensitivity, but perhaps not meaningful, due to the extremely

TABLE 7. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SHOPPING MOTIVATION BY TIME SENSITIVITY

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio	p-value
Economic Motivation					
Between groups	1	13.26	13.26	16.52	0.0001
Within groups	497	398.99	0.80		
Total	498	412.25			
Hedonic Motivation					
Between groups	1	4.23	4.23	5.42	0.0203
Within groups	497	387.68	0.78		
Total	498	391.90			
Aesthetic Motivation					
Between groups	1	0.86	0.86	1.24	0.2661
Within groups	497	342.68	0.69		
Total	498	344.53			
Social Motivation					
Between groups	1	4.62	4.62	7.61	0.0060
Within groups	497	302.01	0.61		
Total	498	306.64			

low variance attributed to the predictor variable. Those respondents shopping for the benefits and pleasure of the activity tend to have fewer time pressures. On the other hand, time-poor respondents reported less pleasure in shopping.

There was no significant difference in the Aesthetic motivation factor due to time sensitivity. This finding indicates that a person's level of time sensitivity does not influence appreciation or lack of appreciation for visual stimulation.

There was a statistically significant ($F=7.61$, $R^2=.02$, $p<.01$) difference in the Social motivation factor due to the level of time sensitivity reported by the respondents. Once again, caution should be taken when interpreting these results due to a low R-square value. Generally, consumers who reported being socially motivated in their shopping behaviors tended to have lower levels of time sensitivity.

■ Demographic Profile of Time-Sensitive Consumers

Inferential statistics were used to assess the significant demographic characteristics of highly time-sensitive consumers. Regression analysis was used to test the influence of specific quantitative demographic vari-

ables on a respondent's level of time sensitivity, whereas, chi-square contingency tables were used to assess whether a relationship existed between consumer demographics and time sensitivity.

The measures of respondents' age, income, and number of persons in the household were quantitative in nature, therefore a multiple regression was utilized. Time sensitivity was considered the dependent variable and the three demographic variables were predictors. Before running the regression, frequency percentage tables of these variable and time sensitivity were analyzed. After viewing these tables, it was postulated that age may have a curvilinear relationship with time sensitivity, so a quadratic regression statement was used for this variable. The overall regression model was statistically significant ($F=9.03$, $R^2=0.08$, $p<.01$). As expected, the age of respondents did have a significant curvilinear relationship with time sensitivity ($p<.05$). Consumers in the middle age ranges were significantly more sensitive to time pressures. The number of people residing in a respondent's household also significantly influenced their level of sensitivity ($p<.01$). Consumers living in one- and two-person households reported lower levels of time sensitivity than those residing in households with three or more members. Income level of respondents did not have a significant influence on time sensitivity.

The statistically significant findings from the chi-square analysis of the demographic variables and time sensitivity can be found in Table 8. The demographic variables include: ethnic origin, age, household size, marital status, household type and occupation.

A respondent's ethnicity was significantly related to time sensitivity. The proportion of white respondents reporting high levels of time sensitivity was significantly greater than that expected by chance. The number of black respondents reporting low levels of time sensitivity was significantly greater than those reporting high levels. Asians also reported lower levels of time-pressures, but due to the small number of Asian respondents ($N=6$), the difference in the proportion of Asians reporting low levels of time sensitivity (83%) should be viewed with caution.

As mentioned above, the relationship between the age of respondents and time sensitivity was curvilinear. The chi-square analysis also shows this relationship; the younger and older age ranges report lower levels of time sensitivity. An interesting finding related to this demographic variable was the higher proportion of baby boomers (age ranges 35–44 years and 45–54 years) reporting high sensitivity to time. This relationship was hypothesized due to their current lifestage: peak earning years and child-rearing years. The findings support the expected relationship.

Household size significantly influenced level of time sensitivity, as reported in the regression analysis above. The chi-square analysis provides detail to this relationship. The proportion of households with three

TABLE 8. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF TIME-SENSITIVE CONSUMERS

Variable	High Sensitivity	Low Sensitivity	N
Ethnic Origin [$chi^2(3)=11.5$, $p<.01$]*			
White	53%	47%	245
Black	25%	75%	32
Am. Indian	-	-	0
Asian	17%	83%	6
Other	50%	50%	4
Age Range [$chi^2(6)=31.1$, $p<.01$]			
Under 25 years	20%	80%	5
25–34 years	50%	50%	48
35–44 years	60%	40%	65
45–54 years	61%	39%	71
55–64 years	52%	48%	48
65–74 years	12%	88%	26
Over 75 years	21%	79%	24
Number in Household [$chi^2(4)=19.8$, $p<.01$]			
1 person	36%	64%	97
2 persons	45%	55%	98
3 persons	73%	27%	40
4 persons	65%	35%	37
5 persons	53%	47%	15
Marital Status [$chi^2(4)=10.6$, $p<.05$]			
Never married	41%	59%	58
Married	55%	45%	97
Separated	78%	22%	9
Divorced	54%	46%	81
Widowed	33%	67%	42
Household Type [$chi^2(7)=23.1$, $p<.01$]			
Single, no children	33%	67%	75
Single, with children	63%	37%	43
Married couple, no children	53%	47%	15
Married couple, with children	72%	28%	39
Married couple, with grown children	41%	58%	34
Unmarried couple, no children	59%	41%	17
Unmarried couple, with children	67%	33%	9
Occupation Type [$chi^2(5)=17.8$, $p<01$]*			
White collar	56%	44%	181
Blue Collar	20%	80%	5
Service (household & protective)	33%	67%	6
Farming, Forestry, Fishing	0%	100%	1
Not currently in labor force	61%	39%	18
Retired	24%	76%	38

*Cells have expected counts less than 5

and four persons reporting high levels of time sensitivity was significantly higher (73% and 65% respectively) than would be expected due to sampling error. A greater proportion of five-person households (53%) also report that they perceive themselves as time-poor.

The relationship between marital status and time sensitivity was also statistically significant ($p<.05$). Those respondents who had never married or were presently widowed tended to report lower sensitivity to time-pressures (59% and 67%, respectively). Married, divorced, and separated respondents were typically more sensitive (55%, 54% and 78%, respectively).

The next demographic, household type, provided additional explanation regarding respondents' time sensitivity. Initial analysis of the contingency table highlighted the impact of children on perceived time-pressure. The categories of single women with children, married women with children and unmarried women (but living with significant other) with children all have higher percentages of high time sensitivity than could be expected by chance (63%, 72% and 67%, respectively). The group with the greatest percentage of low sensitivity responses was single women with no children (67%).

An additional characteristic, the presence of dual-incomes in the household, was assessed but not found to be significantly ($chi^2=2.55$, $p>.10$) related to time sensitivity. About half (51%) of the total sample ($N=577$) considered their households to be dual-income households. Out of those women classifying their household as dual-income, 58% also classified themselves as highly time-sensitive. Though not statistically significant at $p<.05$, the frequency percentage does provide some indication that women in a dual-income household perceive greater time-pressures.

The occupation of respondents and their level of time sensitivity also were significantly related ($p<.01$). Due to low responses in several of the categories, the 13 original occupation types were collapsed into six categories. The "white collar" category consisted of executive, administrative, or managerial; professional specialty; technician or related support; sales; and administrative support. The "blue collar" category consisted of precision production, craft, or repair; machine operator, assembler or inspector; transportation, or material moving; and handler, equipment cleaner, or laborer. The last category collapsed was titled "service" and included household or protective service.

The proportion of white collar respondents reporting high time sensitivity was significantly (56%) greater than expected if by chance. Surprisingly, those respondents not currently in the work force also reported high levels of time-pressure (61%). Not unexpected was the high proportion of retirees reporting low levels of time sensitivity (76%).

Considering the above analysis and discussion, a highly time-sensitive consumer can be described as typically a Caucasian baby boomer (35 to 54 years old) living in a household with more than two people. This time-sensitive consumer may be part of a married or unmarried couple with children, or a single parent. Occupational status of the highly time-sensitive respondent was typically white collar/professional, or currently not employed.

Implications and Conclusions

In light of the recent challenges confronting enclosed shopping malls, research is needed to discover the appropriate strategies and worthwhile target markets for this mature industry that has suffered recent declines in performance. Strategies that will increase profitability need to be investigated and descriptive data collected concerning viable and profitable consumer segments to target, ones that will increase traffic and sales within malls. The present study was an initial foray to discover such information.

The time-sensitive consumer has received very little attention as a credible target market for enclosed malls. Several assumptions have been made in the trade literature concerning the demographic characteristics and shopping preferences of these time-poor consumers (Fram and Axelrod, 1990; O'Connor, 1994; Richardson, 1993; Shermach, 1996). Although these assumptions are logical, they have not been tested empirically. Some empirical research has been completed assessing time-sensitive consumers' rational economic decision-making (Umesh, Pettit and Bozman, 1989); their consumption of convenience goods (Reilly, 1982); expenditure on services (Bellante and Foster, 1984); and the mediating influence of perceived time-poverty on time spent shopping (Forsythe and Bailey, 1996). However, no research has been conducted exploring the influence of time sensitivity on consumers' preferences toward shopping mall attributes, such as tenant placement strategy.

The main objective of this study was to determine whether time-sensitive consumers prefer a concept clustering strategy over a more traditional placement approach. The question was posed: Do tenant placement preferences of time-sensitive consumers differ from the preferences of consumers not so time-pressured? If so, would a concept clustering approach increase their shopping satisfaction and patronage intentions? The findings indicated that each type of clustering placement strategy: retailers grouped by merchandise category, by price points, or by appeal to target market's lifestyle, was preferred by highly time-sensitive consumers. These time-pressured respondents also agree that utilizing mer-

chandise clustering, price clustering, and lifestyle clustering strategies would increase their satisfaction. Patronage behavior by time-poor respondents would increase (shopping more often at malls) if merchandise clustering and lifestyle clustering approaches were utilized. Although these findings were statistically significant, not enough variance was explained by time sensitivity to imply that current tenant placement strategies should be changed to target this consumer segment. The relationship between time sensitivity and tenant placement preference was not adequately captured in this study. The low R-square value suggests that other factors may be a greater influence on placement preferences. Further research is needed before specific actions are taken by practitioners.

A secondary objective was to ascertain descriptive information about the time-sensitive consumer segment: their shopping facility preferences, basic shopping motivations, as well as demographic characteristics. Three additional questions were posed: (1) Do shopping facility preferences of time-sensitive consumers differ from the preferences of consumers not so time-pressured? (2) Do shopping motivations of time-sensitive consumers differ from the motivations of consumers not so time-pressured? (3) Do specific demographic characteristics of consumers influence their level of time sensitivity?

The first question cannot be answered conclusively. There was some indication of a statistically significant and positive relationship between these variables, but the variance explained was extremely low. A frequency percentage table (Table 5) provided more information about the relationship; lower time-sensitive respondents did not prefer manufacturers' outlet centers or catalog shopping. Highly time-sensitive respondents appeared not to have strong preferences for these facility types. Overall, the results did not support a strong linear relationship between time sensitivity and shopping facility preferences.

The answer to the second question must be that the results were inconclusive. The shopping motivations of respondents with different levels of time sensitivity were significantly different statistically; however, implications for practitioners cannot be made considering the low R-square. There may have been other factors, not considered in this study, influencing shopping motivation. Highly time-sensitive consumers tend to be motivated by economic factors rather than by social or hedonic considerations. This relationship needs to be explored further before conclusions can be drawn.

To answer question three, there were specific demographic characteristics significantly related to time sensitivity. Those that best described the highly time-sensitive consumer were the presence of children in the household, whether married or unmarried, and being within the baby boom generation (35–54 years old).

What should the practitioner do differently in consideration of the current findings? At this time, the researchers suggest maintaining current placement strategies. Even though analyses were statistically significant, there was very little variance explained by time sensitivity. There is not enough known about the relationship to recommend utilization of clustering strategies as an effective way to target the time-sensitive consumer.

The findings are very interesting in that they indicate there is a relationship, but additional variables impacting tenant placement preferences must be isolated and investigated in the future. An intriguing *post hoc* analysis highlights the importance of concept clustering strategies. Some quick calculations using data in Table 3 indicate that only 22% of all respondents report that their shopping satisfaction would not increase if merchandise clustering were utilized: 24% for price clustering and 18% for lifestyle clustering (Figure 1). Likewise, a low percentage of respondents report that their patronage of malls would not increase if a merchandise clustering (29%), price clustering (27%), or lifestyle clustering (21%) approach were used by an enclosed mall (Figure 2). These findings have important implications for the shopping mall industry. There appears to be general support for concept clustering approaches to tenant placement. With additional information obtained through fu-

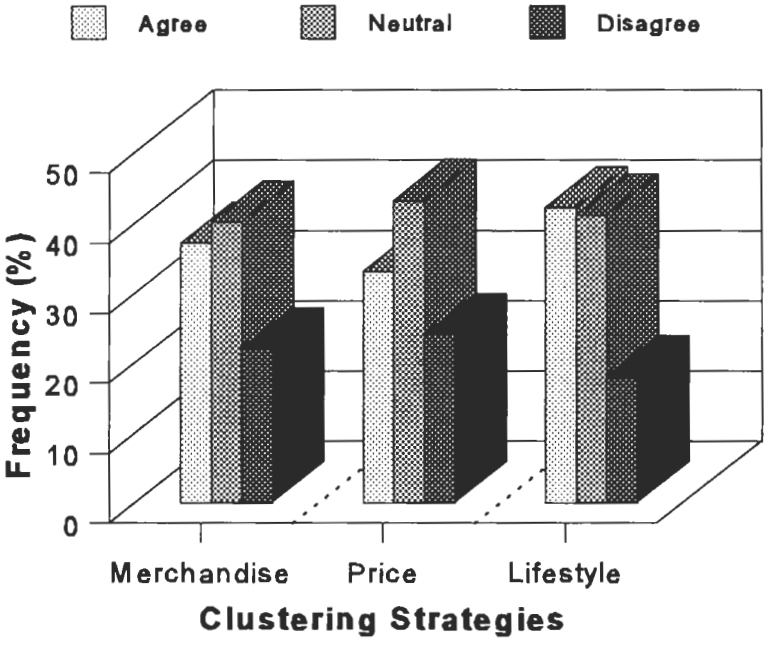

FIGURE 1. RESPONSE TO QUESTION "WOULD CLUSTERING STRATEGIES INCREASE SHOPPING SATISFACTION?"

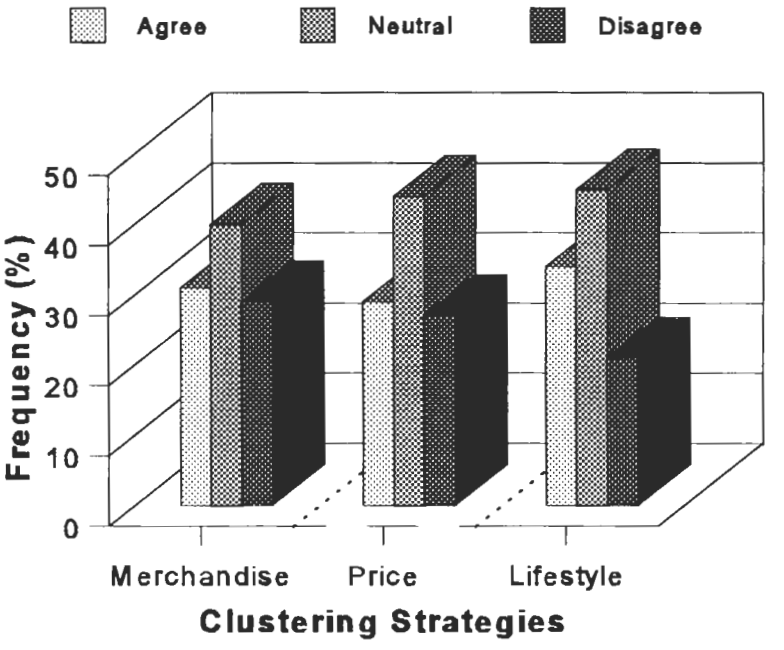

FIGURE 2. RESPONSE TO QUESTION "WOULD CLUSTERING STRATEGIES INCREASE MALL PATRONAGE?"

ture research to assess the strength of clustering preferences in the general population, placement strategies can then be re-evaluated and the feasibility of mini-clusters within the mall considered. Additional research is also required to clarify whether one clustering method is considered to be more satisfactory than another and by whom.

The current study has been an initial investigation of time-sensitive consumers, their preferences and characteristics. Many avenues for further research on this topic are open for investigation. One suggestion would be to refine the time sensitivity measure to get a better, and more detailed, understanding of the time-sensitive consumer. Reilly's (1982) role overload measure may have been too one-dimensional for such a complex variable.

Additionally, a more complete understanding of the impact of a concept clustering strategy on the satisfaction and patronage behavior of time-sensitive consumers is essential. Some questions that need to be answered are: Would a more satisfied time-sensitive customer be increasingly loyal to a mall utilizing a clustering approach? Would a time-sensitive consumer shop less often, but more efficiently, at a clustered mall? Would the dollar amount per shopping trip of the time-poor customer increase? These are areas for future research; they must be deter-

mined before a mall invests time and resources into reconfiguring the current retailers into mini-clusters within the mall.

■ References

Abratt, R., J. Fourie and L. Pitt (1985), "Tenant Mix: The Key to a Successful Shopping Centre, *The Quarterly Review of Marketing,* (Spring), 19–26.

Alexander, A. and R. Muhlebach (1992), *Shopping Center Management,* Chicago: Institute of Real Estate Management.

Balazs, D. (1994), "The Eldermall," *Journal of Shopping Center Research,* 1 (1), 39–63.

Bellante, D. and A. Foster (1984), "Working Wives and Expenditure on Services," *Journal of Consumer Research,* 11 (September), 700–707.

Berry, J. (1996), "American Affection for the Mall Hits the Wall," *Brandweek,* 37 (2), 15.

Brown, S. (1992), "Tenant Mix, Tenant Placement and Shopper Behavior in a Planned Shopping Centre," *The Service Industries Journal,* 12, 384–403.

Carn, N., J. Rabianski and J. Vernor (1995), "Structural Trends Impacting Retail Businesses," *Economic Development Review,* 13 (2), 10–12.

Cavanaugh, T. (1996), "Mall Crawl Palls," *American Demographics,* (September), 14–16.

Dawson, S., P. Bloch, and N. Ridgway (1990), "Shopping Motives, Emotional States, and Retail Outcomes," *Journal of Retailing,* 66, 408–427.

Doocey, P. (1993), "Ethno-Centers," *Stores,* (May), 37–42.

Eure, J. (1991), "Toward the New Century in Retailing: Survival Strategies for an Industry in Turmoil," *Business Forum,* 16 (4), 24–28.

Forsythe, S. and A. Bailey (1996), "Shopping Enjoyment, Perceived Time Poverty, and Time Spent Shopping," *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal,* 14 (3), 185–191.

Fram, E. and J. Axelrod (1990), "The Distressed Shopper," *American Demographics,* (October), 44–45.

Gross, B. (1987), "Time Scarcity: Interdisciplinary Perspectives and Implications for Consumer Behavior," *Research in Consumer Behavior,* 2, 1–54.

Hartnett, M. (1995), "Malls Lure Shoppers With Concept Clusters," *Stores,* (July), 69–70.

Herche, H. and S. Balasubramanian (1994), "Ethnicity and Shopping Behavior," *Journal of Shopping Center Research,* 1 (1), 65–80.

Hines, M. (1988), *Shopping Center Development and Investment,* Second Edition, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Kang, J., Y. Kim and W. Tuan (1996), "Motivational Factors of Mall Shoppers," *Journal of Shopping Center Research,* 3 (1), 7–31.

Kimball, W. (1991), "Recent Trends in the Shopping Center Market," *The Appraisal Journal,* (July), 382–389.

Kurt Salmon Associates (1996), "Consumers, Feeling Hassled and Hustled, are Rewriting Retail Rules," *KSA's Consumer Pulse,* New York: Kurt Salmon Associates.

LeHew, M. (1996), *U.S. Regional and Super-Regional Mall Attributes and Their Relationship to Retail Productivity,* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Levy, M. and B. Weitz (1995), *Retail Management,* Second Edition, Chicago: Irwin.

Lewison, D. (1994), *Retailing,* Fifth Edition, New York: Macmillan College Publishing Company.

Macdonald, R. (1993), "Rising Above the Clutter," *Shopping Center World,* (July), 12–13.

McDonald, W. (1994), "Psychological Associations with Shopping: A Moderator Variable Perspective," *Psychology & Marketing,* 11 (6), 549–568.

McKenna, R. (1988), "Marketing in an Age of Diversity," *Harvard Business Review,* (September/October), 88–124.

Mooradian, T. and J. Olver (1996), "Shopping Motives and the Five Factor Model: An Integration and Preliminary Study," *Psychological Reports,* 78, 579–592.

O'Connor, K. (1994), "Being Something Better," *Shopping Center World,* May, 50, 52, 54.

Reilly, M. (1982), "Working Wives and Convenience Consumption," *Journal of Consumer Research,* 8 (March), 407–418.

Reynolds, M. (1993), "If You Market It, They Will Come," *Shopping Center World,* (September), 75–76.

Richardson, L. (1993), "Consumers in the 1990s: No Time or Money to Burn," *Chain Store Age Executive,* (August), 15A–17A.

Rosenbloom, B. (1980), "Strategic Planning in Retailing: Prospects and Planning," *Journal of Retailing,* 56 (1), 107–119.

Rothenberg, M. (1986), "Mall Marketing Principles That Affect Merchandising," *Retail Control,* (October), 2–37.

Roy, A. (1994), "Correlates of Mall Visit Frequency," *Journal of Retailing,* 70 (2), 139–161.

Schneiderman, I. (1997), "Discounter Snag More Apparel Shoppers," *Women's Wear Daily,* (June 11), 20.

Shermach, K. (1996), "Niche Malls: Innovation for an Industry in Decline," *Marketing News,* 30 (5), 1–2.

Schiffman, L. and L. Kanuk (1991), *Consumer Behavior,* Fourth Edition, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Turchiano, F. (1990a), "Farewell, Field of Dreams," *Retailing Issues Letter,* 2 (9), 1–5.

———. (1990b), "The Un-Malling of America," *American Demographics,* (April), 37–39.

Umesh, U., K. Pettit and C. Bozman (1989), "Shopping Model of The Time-Sensitive Consumer," *Decision Sciences,* 20, 715–729.

Westbrook, R. and W. Black (1985), "A Motivation-Based Shopper Typology," *Journal of Retailing,* 61 (1), 78–103.

■ Acknowledgments

The authors would like to acknowledge the support provided by the International Council of Shopping Centers Educational Foundation; their sponsorship was truly appreciated. The support from the ICSC Research Advisory Task Force member was invaluable. Mr. James Brand, Vice President of Market Research, General Growth Properties, Inc., provided suggestions to enhance the practical applications of the findings. The authors would also like to thank Dr. Dallas Johnson, Department Head of Statistics, Kansas State University, for lending his statistical expertise.