Chapter 4

Findings and Discussion

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter is comprised of empirical findings of the present study as obtained by analysis of the data collected. The working/ non-working women, who were the consumers of selected packaged foods were the key respondents of the present study. The data was collected from 225 consumers of selected packaged foods via personal interviews. The data gathered from the said respondents is tabulated, described and discussed in the ensuing pages. In order to provide meaningful interpretation to the study, the data has been presented under five different sections. Each section is further divided into sub-sections for a systematic frontward of data. The first section caters to the background information of the consumers of selected packaged foods. The second section deals with the information on the food shopping-orientation and psychographics of the consumers of selected packaged foods. The third section provides information on the consumption pattern of selected packaged foods and the problems faced by the consumers on various aspects of the product and their preferences with respect to selected packaged foods. The forth section contains the hypotheses testing and discussion, in which the hypotheses formulated for the investigation are tested and presented with relevant discussion.

SECTION I

1.0 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Findings with respect to background information of the consumers have been presented in Section I. The background information encompassed the personal profile, family profile and pre-purchase profile. The personal profile included the age, educational, and occupational status of the consumers of SPFs. Family profile included the family type, family size, total family income, family life-cycle stage of the consumer of SPFs, and their socio-economic status. The Pre-purchase profile comprised of outlet choice, factors affecting outlet choice, information sources referred and related believability, and evaluation criteria's.

1.1 Personal profile

1.1.1 Age

The product needs and interest often vary with consumer's age. Marketers have found age to be a particularly useful demographic variable for distinguishing segments. In the present study age of the respondents ranged between 22 to 63 years. The mean age was found to be 35.86 years with an S.D of 8.74 (Annexure IIb Table 1). The distribution of the respondents mainly concentrated in the young-middle and young age groups, each constituting one-third of the sample. A little less than one-forth of the respondents were middle-aged falling in the age range of 41 to 50 years (Fig. 5).

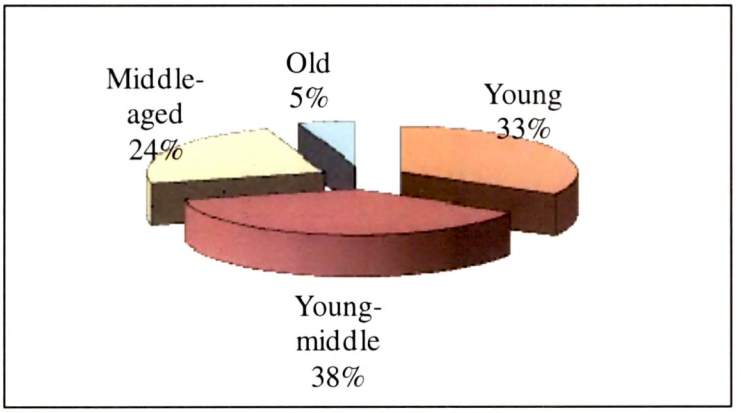

Fig. 5: Distribution of consumers of SPFs by age

1.1.2 Education

The population in any society falls into different education groups. According to Kotler, 1997 higher number of educated people in a country spells the demand for a product. In the current study the respondents were grouped under S.S.C, graduates, P.G diploma/ Post Graduates and Professional degree holders. The data on education level exposed that more than one-half of the respondents were graduates having a B.A. / B.Sc. / B.Com / B.Ed. / L.L.B degree to their credit. One-forth of the respondents were post graduates holding a M.A. / M.Sc. / M.Com / M.Ed. / L.L.M degree and one-tenth of them had a professional degree like MBA, MCA and CA to their acclaim. The remaining were S.S.C. holders (Fig. 6) (Annexure IIb Table 2).

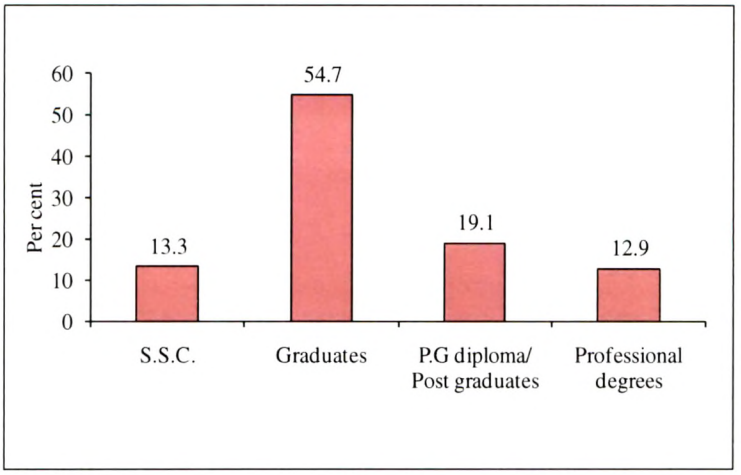

Fig. 6: Distribution of consumers of SPFs by education

1.1.3 Occupational status

A person's occupation influences their consumption pattern. Marketers try to identify the occupational groups that have above-average interest in their products and services (Kotler, 1997). Product chosen for the present study was thought to be relevant to the occupational status of the consumers and thereby was chosen as a variable. A little less than two-third of the consumers in the present study were non-working while, more than one-third of them were working women (Fig. 7) (Annexure IIb Table 3).

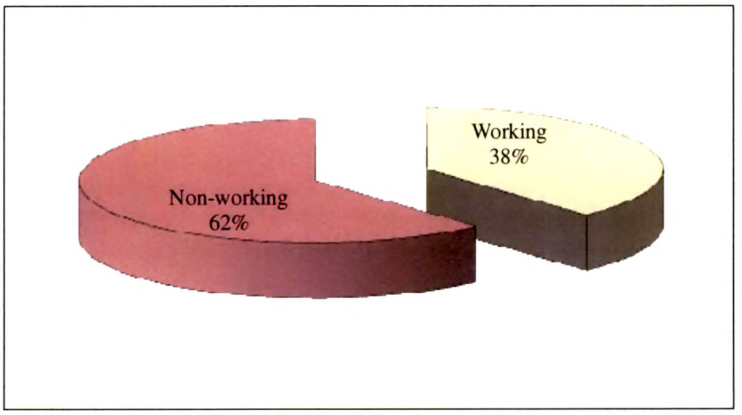

Fig. 7: Distribution of consumers of SPFs by occupational status

1.2 Family profile

1.2.1 Family type

The family is the most important buying organization in a society, and has been extensively researched upon. Considering the consistent change in the family structure in the last four decades, family type was thought to be an important variable. The data reflected prominence of nuclear family system in the present sample (60 per cent) wherein the family comprised of husband, wife and their children. More than 33 per cent of the respondents belonged to the joint family system; where the husbands' parents also resided with the family. Less than 10 per cent of the consumers were not found to be a part of the traditional definition of a family since they were single women, not married and were staying with their parents or in a PG / working women's hostel (Fig. 8) (Annexure IIb Table 4).

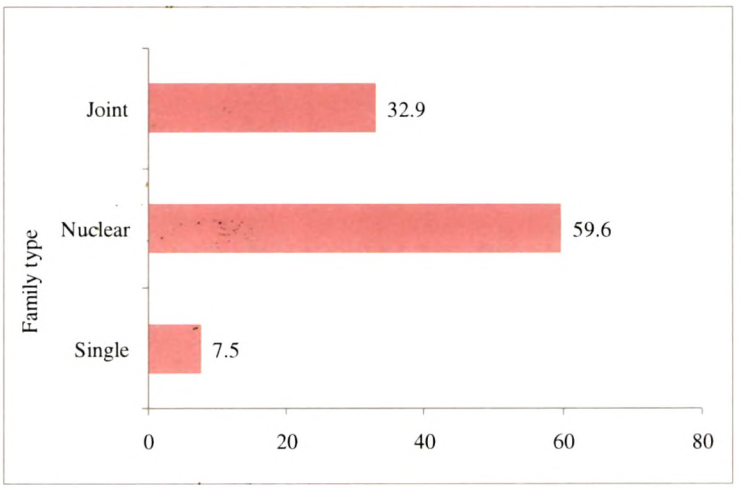

Fig. 8: Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by family type

1.2.2 Family size

The mean family size of the respondents was 4.31 with a S.D of 1.77. The range of size of the family stretched between 1 to 13 members (Annexure II Table 5 and Table 6). The data of the current study show that 60 per cent of the respondents had 4 to 6 members in their family, 30 per cent of them had small families with 1 to 3 members and the remaining 10 per cent had large families with 7 or more members (Fig. 9).

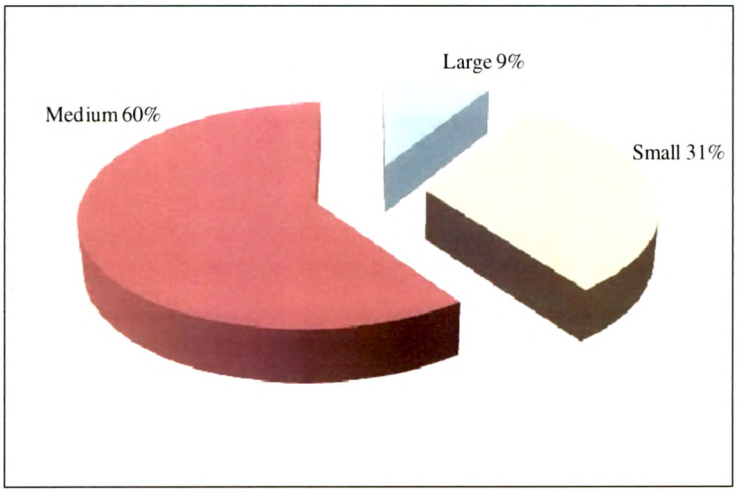

Fig. 9: Distribution of the consumers by family size

1.2.3 Total family income

Income has long been an important variable for distinguishing market segment. But at the same time income does not always predict the best customers for a given product. Nevertheless its importance as a variable can not be subordinated. Thus, the investigator was keen to investigate the strength of this variable in the current study. In the present case, a high S.D. of 67,108 indicated a wide variation in the family income which ranged from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 4,00,000 per month with a mean income of Rs. 85,442.

Forty-five per cent of the respondents had monthly family income less than or equal to Rs. 50,000 and near about 27 per cent of them had income ranging from Rs. 51,001-1,00,000. There were 16 per cent respondents in the income range of Rs. 1,00,001-1,50,000. Twelve per cent of them had their family income above Rs. 1,50,000 (Table 2).

Table 2. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by total family income

Total family income per month (Rs.)	N=225	
	f	%
≥ 50,000	101	44.9
50,001-1,00,000	60	26.7
1,00,001-1,50,000	37	16.4
1,50,001 & Above	27	12.0
Total	225	100
Mean	85,442	
S.D.	67,108	
Max	4,00,000	
Min	10,000	

1.2.4 Family life-cycle stage

Researchers in consumer studies have long been attracted to the concept of family life-cycle as a means of depicting what was once a rather steady and predictable series of stages that most families progressed through. Despite the decline in its predictive precision, the family life-cycle remains a useful marketing tool since it enables marketers to segment families in terms of a series of stages scanning the life course of a family unit (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1998).

For the current research, family life-cycle was used as a composite variable created by systematically combining such commonly used demographic variables as marital status, presence of children, and employment status. Based on the above, the family life-cycle stages were categorized as singles, beginning stage, young parent's stage, teen parent's stage, adulthood parent's stage, and contracting stage. The operational definition for each stage has been mentioned in the methodology chapter. The data demonstrated that the sample of the present study primarily constituted consumers in young and teen parent stage of family life cycle. Forty-one per cent of the respondents were in the young parent's stage having children below the age of 13 years. While, 28 per cent of them were in the teen parent's stage having teen age children. Moreover, almost equal proportions of respondents were in the beginning stage (14 per cent) and adulthood parent's stage (12 per cent) of family life-cycle (Table 3).

Table 3. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by family life-cycle stage

Family life-cycle stage	N=225	
	f	%
Singles	17	7.6
Beginners	31	13.8
Young parent	93	41.3
Teen parent	53	23.6
Adulthood parent	26	11.6
Contracting	5	2.2
Total	225	100

1.2.5 Socio-economic status

The assessment of socio-economic status (S.E.S.) for the current study was modified from the Kalliath S.E.S. inventory, 1999. Selected social class criteria namely family type and size; type and size of accommodation; total monthly family income; literacy level and occupation of the husband and wife; newspaper and magazine readership; club and holiday memberships and holiday habits of the family were included to assess the S.E.S. of the consumers of SPFs (Annexure IIc Table 1 to Table 15).

More than one-half of the consumers of SPFs were identified as belonging to the middle S.E.S., while about one-forth of them were from high S.E.S. Further, one-fifth of the consumers were categorized as those with low S.E.S. (Fig. 10).

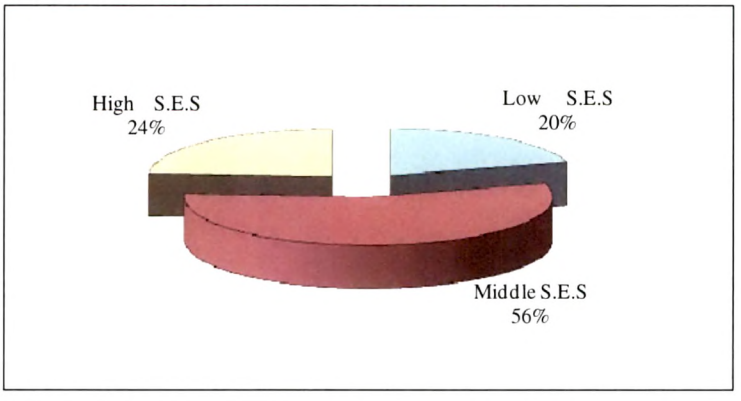

Fig. 10: Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by socio-economic status

1.3 Selected pre-purchase aspects and consumption pattern of selected packaged foods

This part of the section comprised of the findings pertaining to selected pre-purchase aspects, which included; the outlet choice (frequency of visits to an outlet), factors affecting outlet choice, information sources referred and related believability, and evaluation criteria applied in the purchase of SPFs.

1.3.1 Selected pre-purchase aspects

A consumer explores various related aspects before the purchase of any given product. In the present study four pre-purchase aspects were identified as relevant for purchase of SPFs which included the outlet choice, factors affecting outlet choice, information sources referred and believability, and evaluation criteria's.

1.3.1.1 Outlet choice

Almost every product need can be met through multiple channels- from traditional retail stores to direct mail to online services to shopping channels and more. The consumers choice of outlet becomes increasingly difficult for the market to either predict or to influence. Sometimes outlet choice is driven by a brand decision the respondents has already made. At other times, the reverse is true, or the two choices are made in random (Linquist, 2004).

The data on the outlet choice with respect to departmental stores, supermarkets and local kirana stores was identified on the basis of frequency of visits to the respective stores. The possible score range for the frequency of visits to a store was 1 to 3; where a high value indicated that the frequency of visit was high for that respective store. With regard to present study, the data revealed that the mean scores for frequency of visits to departmental stores, supermarkets and local kirana stores was 2.30, 2.23 and 1.8 with an S.D. of 0.66, 0.65 and 0.74 respectively (Table 4).

It was found that more than 85 per cent of the respondents shop at departmental stores and supermarkets, either always or sometimes. Further, 20 per cent of the respondents always visited local kirana stores, 40 per cent sometimes visited local kirana store, while 37 per cent respondents never visited a local kirana

store (Table 4). It implied that the departmental stores and supermarkets were visited more frequently than the local kirana stores by the consumers for the purchase of SPFs.

This data is in line with the report titled 'Retailing in India a Nation of Shopkeepers' by Hofmann, 2004, which stated that the supermarket sales are expanding at a much higher rate than other retailers. This is because greater numbers of higher income Indians prefer to shop at supermarkets because of convenience, higher standards of hygiene and the attractive ambience.

Table 4. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by outlet choice

Frequency of visits	Type of outlet (N= 225)					
	Departmental store		Supermarkets		Local kirana store	
	F	%	f	%	f	%
Always	94	41.8	80	35.6	47	20.9
Sometimes	105	46.7	117	52.0	95	42.2
Never	26	11.6	28	12.4	83	36.9
Total	225	100	225	100	225	100
Mean	2.30		2.23		1.80	
S.D.	0.66		0.65		0.74	

1.3.1.2 Factors affecting outlet choice

There are many factors that affect outlet choice of the consumers. Some are directly related to the consumer's personal requirements, whereas others are related to the way outlets is presented to the consumers by the marketers. In reference to the present study the factors affecting outlet choice of the consumers were categorized into four factors, namely; store features and services, in-store experiences and promotions, personal factors, and additional services.

The possible mean score for the factors affecting outlet choice ranged from 4 to 12. The higher scores indicated that the factor was considered to a greater extent while making an outlet choice. The mean value of 10.23 and S.D of 1.38 on store features and services revealed that it was the most crucial factor that was considered in outlet choice by the respondents of SPFs; followed by personal factors (mean 9.96 and S.D. of 1.65); in-store experiences and promotions (mean 9.54 and S.D. of 8.53) and additional service (mean 9.36 and S.D. of 1.88) respectively (Table 5).

Nearness of the store to the consumer's place and the service speed in the store were identified as the most essential aspects of the store features and services factor. Personal factors like time available for shopping and respondents comfort level with the store were reported as important in making an outlet choice. In-store experience like the past experience with the store was also found to be a crucial aspect considered before making an outlet choice (Annexure III Table 1).

The findings of the present study is in streak with the findings of the study carried out by Sinha, 2004 on store choice behavior in an evolving market. It revealed that the proximity of the store was the most important factor in making outlet choice. The researcher also identified other factors like merchandise in the store, store ambience and a patronized store in making of outlet choice by the consumers.

Table 5. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by factors affecting outlet choice

Factors affecting outlet choice	Mean	S.D.	Max	Min
Additional services	9.37	1.88	12	4
In-store experiences and promotions	9.55	1.85	12	4
Personal factors	9.97	1.65	12	4
Store features and services	10.23	1.38	12	4

1.3.1.3. Information sources referred for the purchase of selected packaged foods and believability

Marketplace information is all around us. One collects information while walking in the mall, watching a television show, while driving so on and so forth. Even when one has no plans to make a purchase, one picks up all kind of marketplace information almost every day. Whether incidental or purposeful, the information we

collect becomes the basis upon which one make buying decisions (Lindquist, 2004). Thus, it becomes important to know which information sources are referred and believed by the respondents of the present study.

The data showed that 99 per cent of the respondents considered their self experience with the product as the primary source of information before making the purchase of SPFs. This can be attributed to the literature which states that memory is the key component of internal search. The first possible subconscious, response upon encountering a problem that may be solved in the marketplace is to scan the information stored in memory for potential solutions (Lindquist, 2004). Therefore, the probability that a consumer will rely on the information stored in their memory, acquired through self experience was high.

Seventy-three per cent of them considered the recommendations from family, friends and relatives before making the purchase of SPFs. With regard to the marketing sources 54 per cent consumers referred television and radio commercials and around 46 per cent consumers considered newspaper and magazine advertisement. Seventy-five per cent respondents also considered the newspaper and magazine articles as source of information to them (Table 6).

Table 6. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by information sources referred for the purchase of selected packaged foods and believability

Information source referred	F	%	Mean	S.D.
Intra sources				
Self experience	223	99.1	1.90	0.09
Inter sources				
Recommendation from family, friends and relatives	164	72.9	1.72	0.45
Market sources				
In store salesperson	83	36.9	1.36	0.48
In store displays and samples	87	38.7	1.38	0.48
Newspaper and magazine advertisements	103	45.8	1.45	0.49
Television and radio commercials	121	53.8	1.53	0.49
Neutral sources				
Newspaper and magazine articles	168	74.7	1.74	0.43
Chefs / Cook books/ Cookery shows	95	42.2	1.42	0.49
Labeling of the product	90	40.0	1.40	0.49

With respect to the believability in the information provided by the various sources, the data brought forth that around 90 per cent of the respondents had high believability in their self experience with the product, followed by the information provided by friends and family (46 per cent). With respect to market sources around 66 per cent of the consumers had low believability and 30 per cent had moderate believability. Further, the data revealed that 53 per cent of the consumers had moderate believability in the neutral sources and around 38 per cent had low believability in the same (Table 7).

The data is in line with a study which examined the importance of four specific information sources on a hypothetical $100 purchase of consumer services; advice from others proved to be more important than the combined impact of sales representatives, advertising and promotion, and other sources (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1998). Similarly, even in the present study the findings have brought forth that even with the enormous amount of marketing efforts made by the product manufacturers, self experience and advice from family and friends played a prominently significant role in any product purchase (Annexure III Table 2).

Table7. Distribution of consumers of SPFs by extent of believability in the information sources referred

Extent of believability	**Information sources (N=225)**							
	Intra		**Inter**		**Market**		**Neutral**	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Low	2	0.9	61	27.1	148	65.8	85	37.8
Moderate	19	8.4	61	27.1	67	29.8	121	53.8
High	204	90.7	103	45.8	10	4.4	19	8.4
Total	225	100	225	100	225	100.0	225	100.0
Mean	2.89		2.18		6.04		5.28	
S.D	0.33		0.84		1.68		1.59	
Max	3		3		12		9	
Min	1		1		4		3	

1.3.1.4. Evaluation criteria's applied in the purchase of selected packaged foods

The tangible and/ or intangible benefits that consumers use to compare product classes, brands, vendors, and so on are called the evaluation criteria's. They vary from respondents to respondents, from product to product, and from situation to situation. Because of this, it is essential for marketers to determine which criteria consumers in the target market use in judging goods or services in various purchase situations (Lindquist, 2004).

In the present study 11 evaluation criteria's considered relevant with respect to SPFs were identified. The assessment of each criterion was carried out based on scores ranging between 1 to 10; wherein, higher scores indicated that the respective evaluation criterion was more important. Analysis of the data brought forth taste and quality as the most important criteria's in selecting the SPFs with a mean value of 8.3 and 8.1 respectively on a rating card of 1-10. The evaluation criteria's of brand name and its reliability, price, ingredients and related health effects, ease of use and quantity in a packet had mean values in between 7 to 7.5. Packaging and appearance and various discount/ gift offers/ advertisements of the selected packaged food were of least importance to the respondents in making a choice with a mean value of 5.9 and 5.4 respectively (Table 8). It implied that consumers made wise choices by giving priority to taste and quality of SPFs and not to their advertisements and packaging.

Table 8. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by evaluation criteria's applied in the purchase of selected packaged foods

Evaluation criteria's priority list	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Taste	8.30	1.45	2.00	10.00
Quality	8.17	1.57	1.00	10.00
Brand name and its reliability	7.45	1.70	2.00	10.00
Price	7.25	2.13	2.00	10.00
Ingredients and related health effects	7.20	2.05	1.00	10.00
Ease of use	7.15	1.45	1.00	10.00
Quantity in one packet	7.07	1.73	2.00	10.00
Available varieties	6.86	1.75	2.00	10.00
Detailed nutritional information	6.85	2.19	1.00	10.00
Packaging and appearance	5.93	1.79	1.00	10.00
Various discount/ gift offers/ advertisements	5.44	2.16	1.00	10.00

SECTION II

2.0 FOOD SHOPPING-ORIENTATION AND PSYCHOGRAPHICS

The findings pertaining to food shopping-orientation of the consumers and their psychographics have been presented in section II. Food shopping-orientation of the consumers was studied with respect to various aspects like price-conscious orientation; quality-conscious orientation; convenience orientation etc. Psychographic included five selected aspects namely lifestyle orientation scale; personality type scale; market beliefs scale; attitude scale and perceived risk scale.

2.1 Food shopping-orientation

A shopping style that puts particular emphasis on certain activities or shopping motivations is called a shopping-orientation. Shopping-orientations are closely related to general lifestyle and are subject to similar influence. Shopping-orientation refers to the general approach one takes to acquire both brands and non purchase satisfactions from various types of retail outlets (Hawkins, 2003). The present study attempted to understand consumers of SPFs for their disposition towards food shopping. For this purpose R-factor analysis was carried out on the 24 items pertaining to food shopping-orientation (FSO) of the consumers of SPFs. Each of the 24 items was considered as an individual variable symbolized as V1, V2, V3, V4....V24. The items of FSO focused on aspects like price consciousness, convenience consciousness, quality-consciousness, planned purchase orientation etc. The basic objective to carry out factor analysis was to derive homogeneous categories of FSO. For the present study, factor analysis was carried out in the following four steps

Firstly, the variables were subjected to correlation matrix (Table 9). The appropriateness of factor analysis was examined by Bartlett's test of sphericity, which measured the presence of co-relations among the variables. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures of sampling adequacy test was adopted to study the degree of inter-correlations among the variables and the appropriateness of factor analysis. High values (between 0.5 to 1) of KMO indicated the factor analysis was appropriate, low values below 0.5 implied that factor analysis may not be appropriate. In the present study, the results of Bartlett's test of sphericity (0.00) and KMO (0.649) indicated that the data was appropriate for factor analysis (Table 10).

Table 10. KMO and Bartlett's Test to measure the presence of co-relations among the variables.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.649
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.
1367.895	276	0.000

Second step, was deriving factors and assessing overall fit, wherein, the number of factors necessary to represent the data and the method of extracting them was determined. Principal component analysis method was used for factor extraction in the present study. Its objective was to summarize most of the original information (variance) in a minimum number of factors for prediction purposes. It transformed a set of correlated variables to a set of uncorrelated variables (principle component) and was used to obtain the initial factor solution. Nine factors were derived from the said method. The proportion of variance accounted by the common factors, or the communality of a variable was 1 for all the variables. The first component had maximum variance. Successive components explained progressively smaller portions of the variance and were all uncorrelated with each other. It used the total variance and derived factor that contained small proportions of unique variance. Percentage of variance criterion approach was followed to achieve a specified cumulative percentage of total variance extracted by successive factors. The total variance is the sum of the variance of each variable. The total variance for the present study was 66.69 per cent (Table 11). It implied that the factor analysis was representative of around sixty seven per cent of the data, wherein, the percentage of variance of the first factor was 14.93, followed by progressively smaller proportions of variance i.e. 10.19, 9.06, 7.72, 6.28, 5.49, 4.55, 4.26 and 4.17 respectively (Table 11). The total variance explained for each factor is listed in the column labeled Eigen values. The next column contains the percentage of the total variance attributable to each factor. The last column of cumulative per cent age indicated the percentage of variance attributed to that factor and those that precede it in the table. The factors are arranged in the descending order of variance explained (Table 12).

Table 9. Correlation matrix

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15	V16	V17	V18	V19	V20	V21	V22	V23	V24
V1	1.000	.696	.437	-.230	-.112	-.043	.032	-.077	-.124	-.099	-.051	-.022	-.014	.093	-.029	.009	-.164	-.066	-.128	-.068	.010	-.060	-.136	-.161
V2	.696	1.000	.469	-.338	-.194	-.106	-.110	-.079	-.154	-.080	-.070	-.014	-.032	.005	-.129	-.151	-.082	-.106	-.135	-.155	.075	.061	-.183	-.103
V3	.437	.469	1.000	-.112	-.002	-.094	.119	.015	.056	-.056	-.076	.132	.098	.082	-.025	.017	-.044	-.076	-.130	-.047	-.024	.111	-.014	.163
V4	-.230	-.338	-.112	1.000	.390	.332	.093	.280	.298	-.006	-.062	.130	.057	.028	.150	.299	.316	.080	.050	.277	-.229	-.181	-.087	.017
V5	-.112	-.194	-.002	.390	1.000	.218	-.008	.258	.249	.027	-.042	.059	.088	.017	.113	.250	.174	-.087	-.034	.194	-.201	-.104	-.069	-.008
V6	-.043	-.106	-.094	.332	.218	1.000	.005	.242	.122	-.046	-.100	-.048	-.007	-.069	.014	.083	-.012	-.055	-.108	.116	-.072	-.032	.027	-.054
V7	.032	-.110	.119	.093	-.008	.005	1.000	-.060	-.150	.095	-.057	.003	-.034	-.113	.022	-.092	-.058	.215	.146	-.057	.057	-.070	.255	.141
V8	-.077	-.079	.015	.280	.258	.242	-.060	1.000	.500	-.011	.200	.189	.225	.019	.063	.297	.321	-.090	-.140	.442	-.191	-.071	-.059	.039
V9	-.124	-.154	.056	.298	.249	.122	-.150	.500	1.000	.068	.353	.169	.099	.056	.102	.253	.249	-.100	-.035	.295	-.054	.024	-.091	.229
V10	-.099	-.080	-.056	-.006	.027	-.046	.095	-.011	.068	1.000	.391	-.007	-.072	-.036	-.084	-.035	-.023	.079	-.007	-.118	.066	.051	.072	.170
V11	-.051	-.070	-.076	-.062	-.042	-.100	-.057	.200	.353	.391	1.000	.111	.085	.081	-.079	.072	.064	.089	.126	.008	.111	.098	.079	.157
V12	-.022	-.014	.132	.130	.059	-.048	.003	.189	.169	-.007	.111	1.000	.606	.531	.296	.099	.218	.015	.040	.202	-.148	.006	.034	.014
V13	-.014	-.032	.098	.057	.088	-.007	-.034	.225	.099	-.072	.085	.606	1.000	.507	.384	.080	.185	.031	-.036	.063	-.159	.028	-.043	-.056
V14	.093	.005	.082	.028	.017	-.069	-.113	.019	.056	-.036	.081	.531	.507	1.000	.349	.166	.066	.087	.197	.041	-.044	-.040	-.021	-.033
V15	-.029	-.129	-.025	.150	.113	.014	.022	.063	.102	-.084	-.079	.296	.384	.349	1.000	.073	.267	.035	.021	.118	-.209	-.092	.045	.053
V16	.009	-.151	.017	.299	.250	.083	-.092	.297	.253	-.035	.072	.099	.080	.166	.073	1.000	.396	-.035	-.023	.202	-.125	-.025	-.129	-.096
V17	-.164	-.082	-.044	.316	.174	-.012	-.058	.321	.249	-.023	.064	.218	.185	.066	.267	.396	1.000	.119	.028	.188	-.328	-.087	-.048	-.087
V18	-.066	-.106	-.076	.080	-.087	-.055	.215	-.090	-.100	.079	.089	.015	.031	.087	.035	-.035	.119	1.000	.398	.070	.060	-.071	.249	.090
V19	-.128	-.135	-.130	.050	-.034	-.108	.146	-.140	-.035	-.007	.126	.040	-.036	.197	.021	-.023	.028	.398	1.000	.035	.019	-.187	.131	.169
V20	-.068	-.155	-.047	.277	.194	.116	-.057	.442	.295	-.118	.008	.202	.063	.041	.118	.202	.188	.070	.035	1.000	-.186	-.172	.077	.060
V21	.010	.075	-.024	-.229	-.201	-.072	.057	-.191	-.054	.066	.111	-.148	-.159	-.044	-.209	-.125	-.328	.060	.019	-.186	1.000	.274	.126	.190
V22	-.060	.061	.111	-.181	-.104	-.032	-.070	-.071	.024	.051	.098	.006	.028	-.040	-.092	-.025	-.087	-.071	-.187	-.172	.274	1.000	.084	.145
V23	-.136	-.183	-.014	-.087	-.069	.027	.255	-.059	-.091	.072	.079	.034	-.043	-.021	.045	-.129	-.048	.249	.131	.077	.126	.084	1.000	.154
V24	-.161	-.103	.163	.017	-.008	-.054	.141	.039	.229	.170	.157	.014	-.056	-.033	.053	-.096	-.087	.090	.169	.060	.190	.145	.154	1.000

Table 11. Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.583	14.930	14.930	3.583	14.930	14.930	2.430	10.126	10.126
2	2.446	10.193	25.123	2.446	10.193	25.123	2.149	8.953	19.079
3	2.176	9.065	34.188	2.176	9.065	34.188	1.905	7.936	27.015
4	1.855	7.728	41.916	1.855	7.728	41.916	1.832	7.632	34.646
5	1.507	6.281	48.197	1.507	6.281	48.197	1.600	6.665	41.312
6	1.319	5.498	53.695	1.319	5.498	53.695	1.559	6.498	47.809
7	1.093	4.554	58.249	1.093	4.554	58.249	1.534	6.391	54.201
8	1.024	4.266	62.515	1.024	4.266	62.515	1.511	6.297	60.498
9	1.003	4.178	66.693	1.003	4.178	66.693	1.487	6.195	66.693
10	.991	4.130	70.823						
11	.782	3.260	74.083						
12	.747	3.112	77.195						
13	.717	2.989	80.184						
14	.645	2.686	82.870						
15	.628	2.616	85.486						
16	.541	2.252	87.739						
17	.523	2.180	89.918						
18	.501	2.088	92.006						
19	.403	1.679	93.685						
20	.365	1.522	95.207						
21	.354	1.475	96.682						
22	.319	1.331	98.013						
23	.277	1.154	99.167						
24	.200	.833	100.000						

Table 12. Principle component analysis

Factor	Communality	Eigen value	Percentage of variance	Cumulative percentage
1	1.0000	3.583	14.93	14.93
2	1.0000	2.446	10.19	25.12
3	1.0000	2.176	9.06	34.18
4	1.0000	1.855	7.72	41.91
5	1.0000	1.507	6.28	48.19
6	1.0000	1.319	5.49	53.69
7	1.0000	1.093	4.55	58.24
8	1.0000	1.024	4.26	62.51
9	1.0000	1.003	4.17	66.69

The third step was interpreting the factors. Two steps were involved in the interpretation of the factors and the selection of the final factor solution. First, the computation of initial un-rotated factor matrix. It assists in obtaining a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract. The second step employed selecting a rotational method to achieve simpler and theoretically more meaningful factor solutions. Different rotation methods may actually result in the identification of somewhat different factors. In the present study varimax method was used because it gave a clearer separation of the factors by minimizing the number of variables that had high loadings on each factor. This method simplifies the interpretation of the factors. The rotated solutions for the factor analysis in the present study displayed the following solution (Table 13). The table contains the coefficients that relate the food shopping-orientation variables to the nine factors. Each row of the table contains the coefficients used to express a standardized variable in terms of the factors. These coefficients are called factor loadings, since they indicate how much weight is assigned to each factor. The matrix of factor loadings is called the factor matrix. The factor matrix contained factor loadings for each variable on each factor. Factor loadings are the means of interpreting the role each variable plays in defining each factor since they are the correlation of each variable and the factor. Loadings indicate

the degree of correspondence between the variable and the factor, with higher loadings making the variable representative of the factor. Factors with large coefficients (in absolute value) for a variable are closely related to the variables. Example Factor 1 is the factor with the highest loadings on V12, V13, V14, and V15. Wherein, the correlation between V13 and factor 1 is (r=0.838). Similarly, the correlation between V3 and factor 2 is (r=0.767) (Table 13) (Annexture III Table 3).

Both, latent root criterion and scree test criterion were used to decide on the number of factors to be extracted. All the factors having a latent root or eigen values greater than 1 were considered significant. The rational for the latent root criterion is that any individual factor should account for the variance of at least a single variable if it is to be retained for interpretation (Table 11). With respect to the present study the eigen values for all the 9 factors were above 1, so all the factors were retained for interpretation. Figure 11 shows the eigen values plot for scree test criterion. The scree test was used to identify the optimum number of factors that can be extracted before the amount of unique variance begins to dominate the common variance structure. In the present study all 9 factors were retained for interpretation because the eigen values were plotted in a gradual slope till the end and there was no cut of point (Fig. 11).

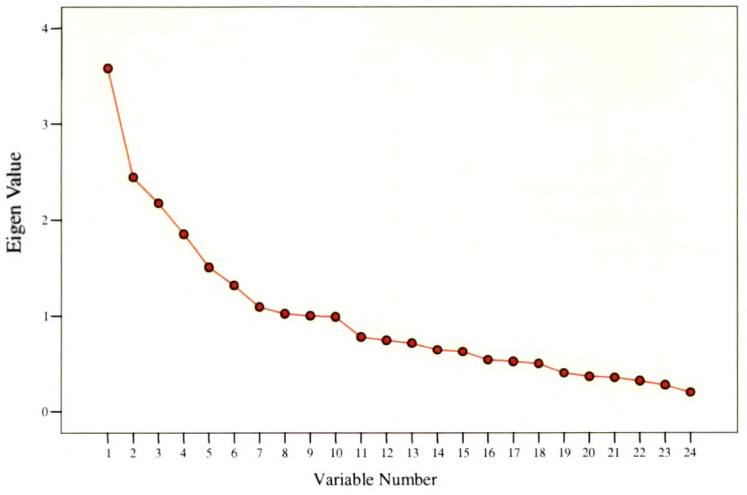

Fig. 11: Scree plot

Table 13. Rotated Component Matrix

Variable	N=225								
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9
V1	-.009	.850	-.038	-.076	.008	-.109	-.151	-.040	-.088
V2	-.057	.820	-.047	-.256	-.094	-.080	-.058	-.036	-.139
V3	.113	.767	.008	.042	-.115	.120	.241	-.051	.196
V4	.059	-.204	.171	.696	.122	.281	-.087	-.044	.047
V5	.065	-.050	.083	.686	-.063	.188	-.038	.038	-.042
V6	-.044	-.079	.206	.610	-.165	-.281	-.061	-.104	.031
V7	-.038	.121	-.183	.210	.164	-.020	.005	.067	.729
V8	.104	.010	.741	.223	-.185	.194	-.062	.143	-.030
V9	.085	-.027	.595	.267	-.038	.222	.271	.284	-.201
V10	-.057	-.064	-.162	.073	-.038	-.019	.001	.837	.160
V11	.060	-.058	.263	-.177	.126	.030	.155	.770	-.113
V12	.802	.048	.182	-.009	.002	.052	-.004	.077	.038
V13	.838	.008	.070	.000	-.107	.037	-.050	.038	-.010
V14	.779	.084	-.058	.017	.283	-.029	.050	.011	-.240
V15	.601	-.103	-.008	.099	-.008	.179	-.095	-.155	.157
V16	.049	.023	.136	.278	.070	.653	.056	-.016	-.262
V17	.161	-.105	.201	.009	.007	.798	-.211	.022	.059
V18	.022	-.071	-.007	-.124	.639	.122	-.007	.040	.347
V19	.049	-.108	-.038	-.015	.849	-.015	.048	.023	.017
V20	.066	-.068	.778	.094	.129	.054	-.118	-.185	.074
V21	-.165	.000	-.130	-.145	.113	-.302	.630	.030	-.085
V22	.032	-.044	-.138	-.208	-.391	.121	.663	.000	.023
V23	.036	-.191	.153	-.209	.087	-.136	.152	-.013	.668
V24	-.008	.012	.159	.104	.190	-.049	.631	.150	.262

Extraction Method Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Lastly, the loadings on the factor matrix were interpreted. The factor loading of 0.4 was used as the cut-off value. Based on the factor loading values, all the 24 variables (V1, V2, V3,...V24) were segregated into the nine factors.

Further, the cronbach's alpha reliability of each of the nine factors was calculated (Table 14). Of the nine factors, the reliability value of two factors i.e. factor 6 and factor 9 was estimated to be less than 0.4 and therefore they were not considered for further analysis. The details on the reliability scores of the remaining seven FSO is presented in Table 14. The seven factors were thereafter meaningfully interpreted and labeled as follows;

Factor 1 : Experimental-loyal FSO;
Factor 2 : Impulsive FSO;
Factor 3 : Value-for-money FSO;
Factor 4 : Price-conscious FSO;
Factor 5 : Convenience FSO;
Factor 7 : Explorative FSO; and
Factor 8 : Quality-conscious FSO

Table 14. Distribution of consumers of SPFs by food shopping-orientation factors

Variable no	Statement	Factor loading	Reliability (Alpha)
	Factor 1: Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation		0.76
V12	I have favorite brands of food products which I buy over and over again	0.802	
V13	I keep on changing my brands of food products as and when new brands are launched.	0.838	
V14	Once I find a food product or brand I like, I stick to it	0.779	
V15	I keep on trying new brands of food products.	0.601	
	Factor 2: Impulsive food shopping-orientation		0.77
V1	I do not prepare a list of items when I go for purchase of food products.	0.856	
V2*	My trip to the ,market for food shopping is well planned	0.820	
V3	I make spontaneous decisions on my food shopping trip.	0.767	

Cont...

Cont.

Variable no	Statement	Factor loading	Reliability (Alpha)
	Factor 3: Value-for-money food shopping-orientation		0.67
V8*	I tend to purchase products at lower prices even if I need to compromise on its quality.	0.741	
V9*	I consider the taste and not the quality of food products while buying for them.	0.595	
V20*	I shop at places which save me money, even if shopping there is inconvenient.	0.778	
	Factor 4: Price-conscious food shopping-orientation		0.58
V4*	I do not watch for the prices when I shop for food products	0.696	
V5	I keep a check on the change in price of the food products that I buy regularly.	0.686	
V6*	I do not use coupons or any price off offers while shopping for food products	0.610	
	Factor 5: Convenience food shopping-orientation		0.56
V18	I try to follow the most convenient and fastest way of food shopping.	0.639	
V19	The quicker I finish my food shopping the better it is.	0.849	
	Factor 6		0.37
V16	If a store has a very long line, I leave without buying anything	0.653	
V17*	In food shopping, time is not a constrain for me.	0.849	
	Factor 7: Explorative food shopping-orientation		0.43
V21	Every time I go for food shopping I pick up one or more new type of food products	0.630	
V22	I keep my kitchen food stock up to date with the changing food fashion	0.663	
V24	I do look for new and different food products in the department stores.	0.631	
	Factor 8: Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation		0.56
V10	I compare labels to select the best quality of foods	0.837	
V11	I stress on the quality of the product even if it's costly.	0.770	
	Factor 9		0.39
V7	I am in a look out to get the best value for the money I spent on food items	0.729	
V23	The lesser the variety of food products in the store the better it is.	0.668	

Note: * denotes a negatively scored statement.

The detail description of each of the factor has been given in the ensuing paragraphs. The flow of description is as per the alphabetical order of the labels of the factors.

Convenience food shopping-orientation (Factor 5)

Explained 6.03 % of the variance. The core concern of the consumers with this orientation was convenience while shopping. For them timeliness' in the shopping process, suitability and appropriateness of the amenities and facilities while shopping were of prime importance. They believed in methodological and efficient ways of shopping; wherein, work could be carried out speedily without any delays. The consumers with convenience orientation preferred that their shopping scheme fitted into their needs and requirements as per their ease (Table 14) (Annexure III Table 4).

Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation (Factor 1)

Explained 14.93 % of the variance. The consumers in this category were found to be loyal towards the brand of SPFs they were using, but at the same time they reflected the inclination to try new brands introduced in the market. They revealed a combination of repeat purchase behavior and an experimental-orientation. They were consumers who were speculative, thus involved in fact finding by trail and testing of the product. At the same time, once they developed their thrust for a product, they devotedly adhered to it (Table 14) (Annexure III Table 4).

Explorative food shopping-orientation (Factor 7)

Explained 4.31 % of the variance. These were the contemporary consumers who were modern and advanced in their shopping approach. They reflected the tendency to buy food products with the changing food fashion. Their food shopping would predominantly include choice for novel and exotic food items. They were the trendy consumers for whom fashion and style quotient was high. They would be quick to identify a 'just-released' food product and would be amongst the first few to try it out. Consumers with explorative FSO were inclined to incorporate the newest ideas and the most up-to-date food products in their kitchen. Their passion to try new food products kept their kitchen stocked with the latest food products in the market (Table 14) (Annexure III Table 4).

Impulsive food shopping-orientation (Factor 2)

Explained 10.26 % of the variance. It comprised of consumers who made impulsive decisions in food shopping. They were not in a habit of preparing the list of items to be purchased. They were characterized of being emotional and passionate while shopping. They took spontaneous and impetuous decisions while shopping for food, and thereby made extemporaneous and unplanned purchases (Table 14) (Annexure III Table 4).

Price-conscious food shopping-orientation (Factor 4)

Explained 7.51 % of the variance. They were the budget-savvy consumers. They were prudent and frugal with respect to the money they spend while shopping for food. They were economic and thrifty while shopping for food. Consumers with price-conscious FSO avoided any unnecessary expenses. They believed in judicious use of money, and had good judgment for it. They were the cautious consumers who managed their monetary resources intelligently by making optimal use of discount coupons and bargains. They were most likely to be watchful of the fluctuating market prices of the product and made efforts to get the lowest possible food bill (Table 14) (Annexure III Table 4).

Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation (Factor 8)

Explained 4.67 % of the variance. Quality of the food product was of prime importance for the consumers with this orientation. They were the consumers who believed in general excellence of standards with regard to the food products. Their efforts were directed towards judging the various attributes of a product / brand etc. and make choices based on their superiority and merit. They prioritized quality and excellence of a product over price and opted for it, even if it was costly (Table 14) (Annexure III Table 4).

Value-for-money food shopping-orientation (Factor 3)

Explained 8.89 % of the variance. They were the consumers for whom getting value for the money they spend on food products was crucial. The consumer with value-for-money FSO had the ability to logically reason out the appropriateness of spending money on food products against its merits. These consumers were ready to spend money for quality, taste and associated convenience; provided they get the worth for the money they would spend (Table 14) (Annexure III Table 4).

2.2 Psychographics

Study of psychographic is an attempt to analyze and measure lifestyle, personality, attitudes, and beliefs of individuals. Through the psychographics marketers seek to describe the human characteristics of consumers that influence their responses to market variables, like; the products, packaging, media, and so on; that demographics or socioeconomic measures alone cannot explain. Psychographics has two important marketing implications. First, analyzing consumers in terms of psychographics helps marketers identify respondent's type of market segment. Such profiles are useful in creating multiple campaigns. Second, it helps uncover attitudes, interests, and opinions (AIO) of segment members (Lindquist, 2004). Various researchers and authors include a combination of variables to make psychographic profile. In the present study lifestyle orientations, personality types, attitude towards the selected packaged foods, market beliefs, and the risk perceived in the purchase and/or consumption of SPFs were identified to make the psychographic profile of the respondents.

2.2.1 Lifestyle orientation

Lifestyle is considered to be an important variable in explaining behavioral pattern in which people live and spend time and money. The purpose of exploring lifestyle of the consumers was to obtain more precise picture of how consumers think and act in the market. Consumers may vary in their attitudes, opinions, and interests i.e., lifestyle; and hence react differently to marketing communications. Thus, with the aim to create an actionable insight for the marketers, lifestyle was considered as a variable in the present study.

For the current study, lifestyle orientation was a constellation of individual characteristics that reflected certain behavioral orientations like green-orientation, innovative-orientation, nutrition-orientation, service-role orientation, socially-outgoing orientation, and trend-consciousness orientation. Based on the scoring pattern, each lifestyle orientation was categorized as high and low; the high category constituting consumers having a stronger inclination towards the respective lifestyle orientation, and vice-versa.

Analysis of data revealed that about three-forth of the consumers scored high on green-orientation and the remaining one-forth of them scored low (Fig. 12). It was found that 77 per cent of the consumers preferred the fresh homemade food over the off-seasonal preserved foods, and even if they consumed packaged foods then around 64 per cent consumers preferred using packaged foods whose use or disposal was less harmful to the environment. Owing to low green-orientation, one-forth of the consumers were less inclined to use natural food products and were not very conscious towards environment safety. Thirty-four per cent of them often consumed frozen or canned food products (Table 15) (Annexure III Table 5).

It was observed that two-third of the consumers scored high on innovative-orientation and the remaining one-third scored low (Fig. 12). The data indicated that around 70 per cent of the consumers enjoyed experimenting new recipes and trying new type of food products. Around 51 per cent also had the inclination to serve unusual meals. However, consumers with low innovative-orientation (32 per cent) revealed that they were not comfortable purchasing any new type of food product from the market (Table 15) (Annexure III Table 5).

With regard to nutrition-orientation, the data brought forth that there were more or less equal number of consumers in the high and low categories, the proportion being 54 and 46 per cent respectively (Fig. 12). It was observed that 78 per cent of the consumers implemented their knowledge on nutrition in their day to day cooking and motivated 57 per cent consumers to regularly read articles on nutrition. On the contrary 32 per cent consumers did not prioritize preserving the nutritional value of food while cooking and 48 per cent were not even keen to do so (Table 15) (Annexure III Table 5).

Table 15. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by lifestyle orientation

Scores	Lifestyle orientations (N=225)											
	Green-orientation		Innovative-orientation		Nutrition-orientation		Service-role orientation		Socially-outgoing orientation		Trend-conscious orientation	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
High	168	74.7	148	65.8	121	53.8	188	83.6	122	54.2	139	61.8
Low	57	25.3	77	34.2	106	46.2	37	16.4	103	45.8	86	38.2
Total	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0
Mean	7.18		9.39		9.15		12.37		6.38		6.67	
S.D.	1.82		2.39		2.35		2.41		1.92		2.04	
Max	9		12		12		15		9		9	
Min	3		4		4		5		3		3	

More than three-forth of the consumers scored high on service-role orientation and the remaining scored low (Fig. 12). The data brought forth that around 90 per cent of the consumers opined that the main aim of their life was to devote themselves for theirs family's happiness. Moreover, inclination of 77 per cent consumers to cook at home and 65 per cent to read articles related to different food ideas and recipes added to the high service-role orientation amongst the consumers. In contrast, it was found that 25 to 35 per cent consumers indicated that they did not believe in exerting themselves over household chores in order to meet their family demands and expectations, and spending lot of time making dinner for their family members (Table 15) (Annexure III Table 5).

Data on socially-outgoing orientation threw light that more than one-half of the respondents scored high, while the remaining scored low (Fig. 12). The inclination of around 54 per cent consumers to spend their leisure time in activities that enabled them to meet a lot of people, and 67 per cent consumers to have get-togethers and parties revealed a high socially-outgoing lifestyle orientation amongst them. However, the preference of around 50 per cent of the consumers to stay at home in the evenings reflected the low socially-outgoing lifestyle orientation amongst the consumers (Table15) (Annexure III Table 5).

With respect to trend-conscious orientation, the data brought forth that two-third of the consumers scored high, and the remaining scored low (Fig. 12). The data revealed that 65 per cent of the consumers shopped in the latest departmental stores. Whereas, 35 to 40 per cent consumers were not inclined towards using products as per the latest trends, nor their lifestyle was inspired by latest fashion trends, reflecting towards low trend-consciousness (Table 15) (Annexure III Table 5).

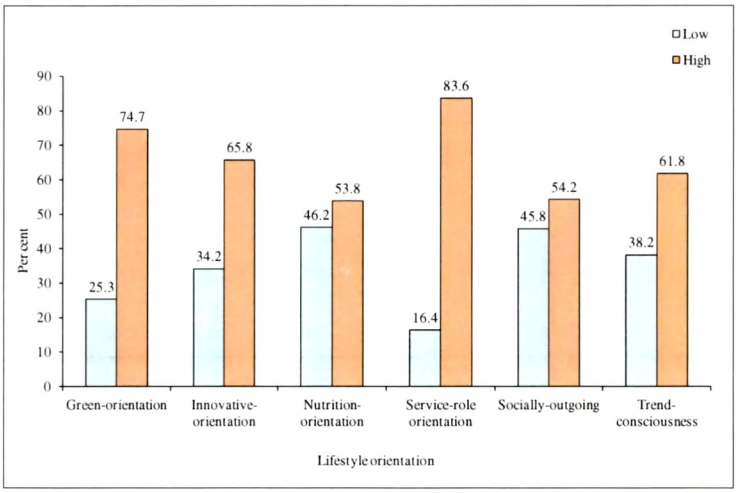

Fig. 12: Distribution of consumers of SPFs by lifestyle orientations

Based on the critical analysis of the above findings, it can be pointed out that majority of the consumers (ranging from two-third to three-forth proportion) revealed a stronger disposition towards green-orientation, innovative-orientation, service-role orientation, and trend-conscious orientation. With regard to nutrition-orientation and socially-outgoing orientation, an equal proportion of consumers were observed in the categories of high and low.

Further, when the mean values of all the 6 lifestyle orientations was brought on a common platform using the mean percentage method (Annexure III Table 6), it was found that the service-role orientation emerged as the strongest lifestyle orientation amongst the others, while socially- outgoing lifestyle was the least prominent. The present finding with respect to lifestyle can be attributed to the deep-rooted cultural background, especially of the Indian women, where they are conditioned to be selflessly committed and dedicated towards their family. The present finding thereby provides a strong direction to the fact that the marketers who design the marketing campaigns of SPFs may plan their strategies focusing on the service-role orientation of the consumers.

2.2.2 Personality traits

Personality refers to an individual's response tendencies across situations and over time. It becomes vital to understand the personality of the consumers in order to understand their responses in a market situation. Personality is useful in consumer studies because it enables segmentation of consumers into different groups on the basis of a single trait or a few traits. By understanding the personality of the consumers of SPFs the marketers would be better equipped to design promotions for their target population and thus boost the sale of their product effectively.

In the current study, a standardized personality scale called the 16 PF (form C) 1969 Edition, developed by The institute for Personality and Ability Testing was used to assess the personality of the respondents. Of the 16 personality traits used in the original scale only five traits found relevant to the study, were included, namely; reasoning, rule-consciousness, vigilance, social-boldness, and openness-to-change. The reasoning trait comprised of 8 items, while the remaining had 6 items each; totaling to 32 items in the scale. The prescribed scoring pattern was followed to obtain the categories of high and low scorers on the 5 personality traits, where high scores indicated the respondents was higher on the respective personality trait.

Analysis of the data revealed that around more than one-half of the consumers scored high on openness-to-change, and the remaining scored low (Fig. 13). High scores implied that these consumers were open-to-change, had readiness to try out and experiment new things which come up in the market, and were flexible in the choices they made. They were open-minded and innovative in their approach towards shopping. Conversely, the low scorers stuck to the conventional ways of doing things and preferred the predictable and routine way of approach towards shopping (Table 16) (Annexure III Table 7).

Less than three-forth of the consumers scored low on reasoning ability, implying a low sense of logical and analytical approach in decision making (Fig. 13). As consumers of SPFs, they were not able to make judicious choice by intelligently evaluating all possible aspects of a decision with respect to a purchase situation (Table 16) (Annexure III Table 7).

Table 16. Distribution of respondents by personality traits

Scores	Personality traits (N= 225)									
	Openness-to-change		Reasoning		Rule-consciousness		Social-boldness		Vigilance	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%
High	131	58.2	66	29.3	150	66.7	101	44.9	70	31.1
Low	94	41.8	158	70.2	75	33.3	124	55.1	155	68.9
Total	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0
Mean	6.62		3.34		7.58		6.13		5.70	
S.D.	1.79		1.80		2.05		2.35		1.95	
Max	11.00		8.00		12.00		12.00		11.00	
Min	2.00		.00		4.00		1.00		1.00	

Two-third of the respondents scored high on rule-consciousness and the remaining scored low (Fig. 13). It implied that the respondents with high scores were well-planned and careful in their shopping behavior. They conformed to conventional standards. They were not accommodating, and complained about the products and services which did not meet their expectations. At the extreme, they can be perceived as inflexible or self-righteous. Contradictorily, the low scorers were expedient and nonconforming consumers who did not worry about conventions, and were more spontaneous in their approach. This may be because they lacked internalized standards in purchase behavior or simply because they followed unconventional values (Table 16) (Annexure III Table 7).

A little more than one-half of the consumers scored low on social-boldness and the remaining one-half scored high on the same (Fig. 13). Consumers with low scores were not extrovert and adventuresome in their shopping approach. They probably were the sensitive consumers, who were more aware of risk involved in the market situations or purchase of an item. They were self-conscious about their shopping decisions and were not communicative about their market experiences. High scorers were enthusiastic individuals looking for pleasure and adventure while shopping (Table 16) (Annexure III Table 7).

More than two-third of the consumers scored low on vigilance; and the remaining scored high (Fig. 13). Low scores implied that the respondents were unsuspecting and accepting. As consumers, they were easy going in their approach towards the market in general. They were not watchful about the changes in the market. However, these consumers can often be taken advantage of, because of their lack of vigilance and alertness towards the market scenario. High scorers were cautious in their approach. They were attentive to marketers' and shopkeepers' motives and intentions, and were sensitive to being taken advantage of. They were unable to relax their vigilance, and at the extreme their mistrust may have an aspect of animosity (Table 16) (Annexure III Table 7).

When the mean values on all the five personality traits were brought on the common platform by using mean percentage method, amongst the five personality traits, the respondents were found to be low on their reasoning as well as vigilance personality traits; while, rule-consciousness evolved as the strongest personality trait (Annexure III Table 8).

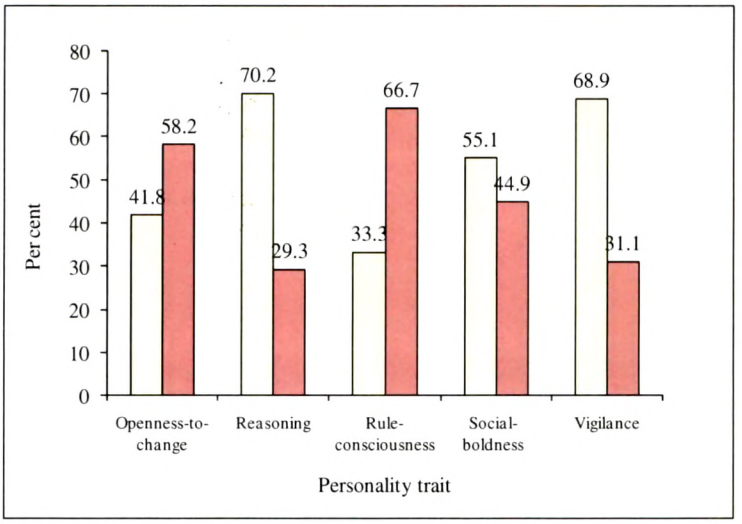

Fig. 13: Distribution of consumers of SPFs by personality traits

2.2.3 Market beliefs

In the present study the market beliefs were studied with the aim to find out the general notions the consumers held about the market place and the way it operates. Also, to identify the general beliefs of the consumers with respect to selected aspect categorized as market beliefs with respect to (i) brands (ii) product i.e. SPFs (iii) sales and advertisement (iv) and stores. Studying the market beliefs with

respect to the above categories would help marketer to identify decision rules and heuristics used by the consumers, and develop appropriated strategies.

In context with the brands of SPFs, more than three-forth of the consumers believed that when one is in doubt, it was safe to go with one's usual brand of SPFs. A little more than two-third of the consumers believed in an Indian brand over a foreign brand, and opined that the best brands of SPFs are the ones that are purchased the most (Table 17) (Annexure III Table 9).

The market beliefs the consumers had with respect to the product i.e. SPFs revealed that more than three-forth of the consumer's were of the belief that the large size packets of SPFs were cheaper than small-size packets. Around three-forth of the consumers thought that the SPFs having synthetic ingredients were lower in quality. They also believed that the SPFs being a new concept were more expensive, but their prices will settle down as time goes by (Table 17) (Annexure III Table 9).

With respect to sales and advertisements beliefs, around two-third of the consumers believed that the discount coupons received during the previous purchase/ newspaper cutting/ credit card statement/ etc, represent real savings. A little more than one-half the consumers were of the opinion that within a given store, higher prices of ready-to-eat packaged foods generally indicate higher quality; and when one buys heavily advertised food products they pay for the label and not for the quality (Table 17) (Annexure III Table 9).

The beliefs with reference to the stores reflected that three-forth of the consumers were of the belief that, the store character was reflected in its window display. Around one-half of them were of the thought that the locally owned grocery stores provided more personalized services and the salespeople in big department stores were more knowledgeable about the various products then the sales personnel in local grocery stores. However, the credit and return policies were not very lenient at large departmental stores (Table 17) (Annexure III Table 9).

Table 17. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by their market beliefs

Market beliefs	Believe		Neutral		Do not believe	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Brand						
When in doubt, it is safe to go with one's usual brand of ready-to-eat packaged food.	180	80.0	7	3.1	38	16.9
When one is in doubt about a brand of ready-to-eat packaged food, then it is always safe to go with a Indian brand.	151	67.1	27	12.0	47	20.9
The best brands of ready-to-eat packaged foods are the ones that are purchased the most.	147	65.3	23	10.2	55	24.4
All brands of ready-to-eat packaged foods are basically the same.	98	43.6	30	13.3	97	43.1
Product						
Large size packets of ready-to-eat packaged foods are cheaper than small-size packets.	178	79.1	8	3.6	39	17.3
Ready-to-eat packaged foods being a new concept are more expensive.	170	75.6	21	9.3	34	15.1
The prices of SPFs will settle down as time goes by.	170	75.6	21	9.3	34	15.1
Ready-to-eat foods having synthetic ingredients are lower in quality than those having natural ingredients.	169	75.1	14	6.2	42	18.7
Sales and Advertisement						
Discount coupons received during the previous purchase/ newspaper cutting/ credit card statement/ etc, represent real savings for the customers.	142	63.1	37	16.4	46	20.4
Within a given store, higher prices of ready-to-eat packaged foods generally indicate higher quality.	122	54.2	34	15.1	69	30.7
When you buy heavily advertised ready-to-eat packaged food, you are paying for the label not for higher quality.	119	52.9	24	10.7	82	36.4
The department stores that are constantly having sales, don't really save you money.	91	40.4	32	14.2	102	45.3
Store						
A store character is reflected in its window display.	167	74.2	18	8.0	40	17.8
Locally owned grocery stores provide more personalized services.	132	58.7	19	8.4	74	32.9
Salespeople in big department stores are more knowledgeable about the various products then the sales personnel in local grocery stores.	107	47.6	27	12.0	91	40.4
Credit and return policies are most lenient at large department stores.	93	41.3	18	8.0	114	50.7

The overview of the market beliefs reflects two basic outcomes. Firstly, majority of the consumers appear to keep their choice for packaged food products safe by opting for the 'usual' brands or 'Indian brands'. The beliefs with respect to the product can be supported by the findings of FSO were two-third of the consumers had favorite brands which they bought over and over again (Annexure III Table 4). Secondly, they appear to have doubts about the synthetic ingredients used in the SPFs. Even today the consumers are close minded towards the SPFs and lack confidence in them.

2.2.4 Attitude toward selected packaged foods

For the present study the attitude of the respondents towards the selected packaged foods was studied with respect to the advantages, characteristics, economy, health, hygiene and nutrition, and consequence of use of SPFs.

In relation to the advantages of SPFs, 96 per cent of the consumers had a favorable attitude (Table 18). About, 60 per cent of the consumers considered that the SPFs were useful for working women; simple to prepare and help to avoid the chaos of cooking; while, about 50 per cent consumers felt that the SPFs were labor saving and good in taste (Annexure III Table 10).

With reference to the characteristics of SPFs, 70 per cent of the consumers had a favorable attitude and around 30 per cent had a neutral attitude (Table 18). A majority of around 90 per cent consumers were of the thought that the most important characteristic of SPFs was that it facilitated availability of seasonal food through out the year. Around, 75 per cent consumers opined that the SPFs had reliable ingredient quality, and overall quality (Annexure III Table 10).

With regard to the economy aspect of the SPFs, around 57 per cent of the respondents had an unfavorable attitude (Table 18) i.e. they were considered to be expensive by around 57 per cent consumers (Annexure III Table 10). With respect to health, hygiene and nutritional aspect of SPFs, it was found that the consumers of present study held a neutral to positive attitude (Table 18). The data revealed that around 80 per cent of the consumers thought that the SPFs were hygienically processed. Around, 53 per cent were of the view that the SPFs helped to calculate the calorie intake. However, around 40 per cent of the consumers were of the opinion that the SPFs have harmful health effects and they did not posed any nutritional value (Annexure III Table 10).

Table 18. Distribution of consumers of SPFs with respect to their attitude toward selected aspects of selected packaged foods

	Attitude towards selected aspects of SPFs (N=225)											
	Advantages		Characteristics		Economy		Health, hygiene and nutrition		Consequences		Overall	
Favorable	216	96.0	158	70.2	65	28.9	94	41.8	108	48.0	135	60.0
Neutral	9	4.0	65	28.9	31	13.8	119	52.9	95	42.2	90	40.0
Un –favorable	-	-	2	0.9	129	57.3	12	5.3	22	9.8	-	-
Total	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0
Mean	22.41		19.96		2.60		17.23		17.70		79.92	
S.D.	2.07		3.04		1.24		3.95		4.47		10.75	
Max	25.00		25.00		5.00		25.00		25.00		52	
Min	16.00		9.00		1.00		8.00		8.00		102	

In reference with the consequences of use of SPFs, 48 per cent consumers had a favorable attitude and around 42 per cent had a neutral attitude (Table 18). Eighty per cent of the consumers were of the view that the SPFs were needed in today's life. About, 60 per cent of the consumers were of the opinion that the SPFs do not create dependency; lethargy, and an addiction of consumption and use (Annexure III Table 10).

Overall, a majority of 70 per cent and above of the consumers held a positive attitude towards the advantages and characteristics of SPFs. With respect to health, hygiene and nutritional aspect of SPFs, consumers held a neutral to positive attitude and with respect to the consequences of use of SPFs the trend was opposite. The respondents opined the SPFs to be expensive.

3.2.5 Perceived Risk

Risk is subjective i.e. the risk involved in a purchase decision is perceived by the respondents, and may or may not bear strong relationship to what actually exists. Risk or uncertainty regarding the purchase of a product is a significant variable influencing the total amount of information gathered by consumers and the final purchase made. Every purchase decision involves some level of risk. There are several types of risk that can discourage consumers from making a choice or delaying the purchase decision. Thus, perceived risk was identified as a variable with the aim to identify the risks the consumers perceived in the purchase and consumption of SPFs. In the current study respondents' uncertainty about the potential positive and negative consequences of the purchase of the selected packaged foods was assessed in reference to their actual utility and usability, economic feasibility, health concerns, ease and satisfaction of serving it to the family, and associated social stigma.

The data revealed that around 50 per cent of the consumers perceived physiological risk to a great extent (Table 19). They were of the opinion that the selected packaged foods might cause harm to the health of the family members; while, around 35 per cent opined the other way round (Annexure III Table 11). Around 60 per cent of the consumers associated psychological risk and financial risk with the SPFs to a great extent (Table 19). They experienced a sense of guilt in serving them to the family members and were of the opinion that the cost of the SPFs was more for the quantity of product offered (Annexure III Table 11).

Around 46 per cent of the consumers associated social risk in the consumption of SPFs to a lesser extent (Table 19). However, almost equal numbers of consumers associated social risk with SPFs to a greater extent and neutral extent, and were concerned that the use of SPFs will negatively affect their social image or the way others think of them. With respect to the functionality of SPFs, 40 per cent of the consumer's perceived risk to a great extent and 40 per cent perceive risk to a neutral extent (Table 19). Thus, the consumers perceived that the SPFs might fail them at a time when they are expected to deliver the befit they promise.

The mean values indicated that the perceived psychological and financial risk associated with the purchase and consumption of SPFs was found to be high. However, the consumers associated social risk with SPFs to a less extent.

Table 19. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by the risk perceived

Intensity	Perceived Risk (N=225)											
	Financial		Functional		Physiological		Psychological		Social		Overall	
Greater extent	131	58.2	93	41.3	108	48.0	133	59.1	66	29.3	99	44.0
Neutral	75	33.3	90	40.0	39	17.3	52	23.1	55	24.4	113	50.2
Lesser extent	19	8.4	42	18.7	78	34.7	40	17.8	104	46.2	13	5.8
Total	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0
Mean	2.49		2.22		2.13		2.41		1.83		11.10	
S.D.	0.64		0.74		0.90		0.77		0.85		1.86	
Min	1		1		1		1		1		5	
Max	3		3		3		3		3		15	

SECTION III

3.0 CONSUMPTION PATTERN AND CONSUMER MARKET SEGMENTATION

Section III comprised of the findings on consumption pattern. It encompassed the data on (i) consumption of SPFs (ii) reasons for consumption (iii) frequency of consumption (v) duration of consumption, and (vi) quantity of consumption. The most prominent feature of the section is cluster analysis; wherein, efforts have been focused towards segmenting the market of SPFs on the basis of their consumption pattern.

3.1 Consumption pattern

Ready-to-eat food is relatively a new concept for Indian consumers. Its penetration in the food habits of Indian consumers is a matter of interest to both, sociologists who study the changing food patterns of the evolving society; and to the manufacturers and marketers of packaged foods. In order to assess the penetration and acceptability of the SPFs it was thought appropriate to study the consumption pattern of the consumers of SPFs. The ensuing pages throw light upon consumption pattern of the consumers for the selected packaged foods. The popularity of the SPFs amongst the consumers has been studied. Also the reasons for consumption of SPFs have been brought forth. Moreover, assessment of the consumption pattern of SPFs was carried out in terms of their frequency, duration and quantity of consumption.

3.1.1 Consumption of selected packaged foods

The focus of the present study was on consumption pattern of ready-to-eat soups, ready-to-use pastes and ready-to-eat meals. The commonly used ready-to-eat soups included mix vegetable soup, mushroom soup, tomato soup etc. Ready-to-use pastes comprised of ginger garlic paste, fish curry paste, tomato puree, etc A few examples of ready-to-eat vegetables included 'paneer korma', 'dal makhanee', 'aloo matar' etc.

The data gathered revealed that out of the three SPFs, ready-to-eat soups were the most popularly consumed packaged food, as it was consumed by 95 per cent of the consumers. This was followed by ready-to-use pastes and ready-to-eat meals,

wherein their consumption was 50 per cent and 25 per cent respectively. The data of the present study indicated that ready-to-eat soups were the most popular and accepted convenience foods in the SPFs category (Table 20).

Table 20. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by consumption of selected packaged foods

Consumption of selected packaged foods	N=225	
	f	%
Ready-to-eat soups	214	95.1
Ready-to-use pastes	124	55.1
Ready-to-eat meals	56	24.9

3.1.2 Reasons for consumption of selected packaged foods

Changes in the social and economic pattern of the society; increase in urbanization; increase in buying power; awareness about health foods; and changes in meal pattern have led to increased popularity of SPFs. In consideration with the said factors it becomes crucial to know why a consumer consumes the SPFs. Thus, in view of the above the researcher made an effort to identify the reasons for the consumption of SPFs.

For the current study, all identified reasons were categorized into four, namely; situational reasons, individual reasons, marketing reasons and product specific reasons. Analysis of data revealed that more than one-half of the consumers of SPFs indicated that they consumed the products (i) because they were demanded by their family members (ii) because of the convenience factor associated with the use of the product, and (iii) since they enjoyed trying new food products. One-third of them reported reasons like easy accessibility and availability of the product, and lack of time to cook a meal. Around one-forth of them said that they consumed SPFs because they were tasty, and were hygienic to consume, and since they proved to be very useful when traveling abroad (Table 21) (Annexure IV Table 1).

Table21. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by reasons for purchase of selected packaged foods

Reasons for purchase of selected packaged foods	(N=225)			
	F	%	Intensity indices	S.D.
Individual reasons...				
...since you like to try new products and varieties in your meals.	113	50.2	1.50	0.50
...since you like shopping at a grocery / department store.	35	15.6	1.15	0.36
...since you do not like cooking.	25	11.1	1.11	0.34
Marketing reasons...				
...since they are easily accessible and available.	79	35.1	1.35	0.47
...because of their advertisements.	47	20.9	1.20	0.40
...because of their attractive packaging.	34	15.1	1.15	0.35
Product characteristics reasons...				
...because of the convenience factor associated with the use of the products.	129	57.3	1.57	0.49
...because of the hygiene and taste of the products.	65	28.9	1.28	0.45
...since they prove to be very useful when traveling/ going abroad..	52	23.1	1.23	0.42
Situational reasons...				
...since they are demanded by your family members.	132	58.7	1.58	0.49
...since you do not have time to cook a meal.	71	31.6	1.31	0.46
...when the maid is on leave.	24	10.7	1.10	0.30

3.1.3 Frequency of consumption of selected packaged foods

Frequency of consumption implied how often the SPFs were consumed by the respondents. The data exposed that around one-half of the respondents were sporadic consumers of ready-to-eat soups (who consumed the packaged food at irregular interval, stretching from once in two weeks to once a month), and one-third of them were habitual consumers (who consumed the packaged foods daily or at least once a week, reflecting the regularity of consumption). With regard to ready-to-use pastes, it was found that one-third of the respondents were habitual consumers while, one-tenth were sporadic consumers. Negligible proportions of respondents were found to be habitual or sporadic consumers of ready-to-eat meals. Further, it was found that about fifteen per cent of the respondents were Sporadic consumers of ready-to-eat meals (who consumed packaged foods on special events or occasions only) (Table 22).

Table 22. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by frequency of consumption of selected packaged foods

Frequency of consumption	Ready-to-eat soups				Ready-to-use pastes				Ready-to-eat meals			
	N (225)	%	n (214)	%	N (225)	%	n (124)	%	N (225)	%	n (56)	%
Habitual	72	32.0	72	33.6	83	36.9	83	66.9	7	3.1	7	12.5
Sporadic	117	52.0	117	54.7	24	10.7	24	19.4	16	7.1	16	28.6
Sporadic	25	11.1	25	11.7	17	7.6	17	13.7	33	14.7	33	58.9
Total	214	95.1	214	100.0	124	55.1	124	100.0	56	24.9	56	100.0
Not using	11	4.9	-	-	101	44.9	-	-	169	75.1	-	-
Total	225	100.0	-	-	225	100.0	-	-	225	100.0	-	-
Mean	2.93		3.07		2.15		3.92		0.46		1.87	
S.D	1.33		1.17		2.27		1.59		1.02		1.23	
Mix	6.00		6.00		6.00		6.00		5.00		5.00	
Min	0.00		1.00		0.00		1.00		0.00		1.00	

3.1.4 Duration of consumption of selected packaged foods

Duration of consumption implied the stretch of time since when the consumers have been consuming selected packaged foods. The data with regard to the duration of consumption of ready-to-eat soups brought forth that a little less then one-third of the respondents were consistent users of ready-to-eat soups (who were consuming packaged foods since last 3 or more years). About one-fifth of them were accepters (who were consuming packaged foods since the last 2 years), and the remaining were experimenters of ready-to-eat soups (who were consuming packaged foods since the last 1 year). The data brought forth that a little more then one-third of the respondents were consistent users, and a little more then one-tenth were accepters of ready-to-use pastes. With respect to ready-to-eat meals, it was found that one-tenth of the respondents were consistent users; while, very small proportions of the respondents were experimenters or accepters (Table 23).

Table 23. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by duration of consumption of selected packaged foods

Duration of consumption	Ready-to-eat soups				Ready-to-use pastes				Ready-to-eat meals			
	N (225)	%	n (214)	%	N (225)	%	n (124)	%	N (225)	%	n (56)	%
Experimenters	18	8.0	18	8.4	12	5.3	12	9.7	13	5.8	13	23.2
Accepters	41	18.2	41	19.2	33	14.7	33	26.6	13	5.8	13	23.2
Consistent Users	155	68.9	155	72.4	79	35.1	79	63.7	30	13.3	30	53.6
Total	214	95.1	214	100.0	124	55.1	124	100.0	56	24.9	56	100.0
Not using	11	4.9	-	-	101	44.9	-	-	169	75.1	-	-
Total	225	100.0	-	-	225	100.0	-	-	225	100.0	-	-
Mean	4.18		4.39		2.23		4.08		0.83		3.34	
S.D.	2.488		2.35		2.70		2.40		1.78		2.06	
Max	10.00		10.00		10.00		10.00		8.00		8.00	
Min	0.00		1.00		0.00		1.00		0.00		1.00	

3.1.5 Quantity of consumption of selected packaged foods

The quantity of consumption of SPFs was assessed in terms of the number of packets consumed per month. The data on quantity of consumption of ready-to-eat soups revealed that around one-half of the respondents consumed 2 to 3 packets per month, while one-forth of them consumed more than 3 packets per month. However, a little more then one-tenth of the respondents consumed only 1 packet of ready-to-eat soups per month. In reference to ready-to-use pastes, around one-third of the respondents consumed only one packet per month and a little more than one-tenth of them consumed 2 to 3 packets per month. Consumption of ready-to-eat meals indicated that more than one-tenth of the consumers consumed only one packet per month, while even lesser proportions of respondents consumed 2 or more packets per month (Table 24).

Table 24. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by quantity of consumption of selected packaged foods

Quantity of consumption (packet/ month)	Ready-to-eat soups				Ready-to-use pastes				Ready-to-eat meals			
	N (225)	%	n (214)	%	N (225)	%	n (124)	%	N (225)	%	n (56)	%
One	37	16.4	37	17.3	75	33.3	75	60.5	33	14.7	33	58.9
Two-three	119	52.9	119	55.6	37	16.4	37	29.8	8	3.6	8	14.3
More than 3	58	25.8	58	27.1	12	5.3	12	9.7	15	6.7	15	26.8
Total	214	95.1	214	100.0	124	55.1	124	100.0	56	24.9	56	100.0
Not using	11	4.9			101	44.9			169	75.1		
Total	225	100.0			225	100.0			225	100.0		
Mean	2.68		2.81		0.10		1.80		0.55		2.20	
S.D.	1.80		1.73		1.40		1.45		1.27		1.70	
Max	10.00		10.00		8.00		8.00		7.00		7.00	
Min	0.00		1.00		0.00		1.00		0.00		1.00	

3.1.6 Consumption pattern of selected packaged foods

It was thought essential to evolve a pattern in the consumption behavior of the consumers of SPFs, using data on different aspects of consumption of packaged foods like the frequency, duration and quantity of consumption of SPFs. Thus, the consumption pattern was quantified in terms of the frequency, duration, and quantity of consumption of SPFs. The composite score procure was thereby categorized in 3 categories using equal interval method, namely; low medium and high consumption pattern. Less than one-half of the consumers were moderate in their consumption of ready-to-eat soups and a little more than one-third were low. With respect to ready-to-use pastes a little more than one-forth consumers had a moderated consumption pattern, while one-fifth were low. In relation to ready-to-use meals a little more than one-tenth of the consumers were moderate in their consumption of the same.

The data in the present study revealed that the mean scores on consumption pattern of ready-to-eat soups, ready-to-use pastes and ready-to-eat meals was 11.29, 5.40, 1.84, with an S.D. of 5.38, 5.62, and 3,60 respectively; where a higher mean score was indicative of higher consumption pattern and vice-versa (Table 25).

Table 25. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by consumption pattern of selected packaged foods

Consumption pattern of SPFs	N=225					
	Ready-to-eat-soups		Ready-to-use-pastes		Ready-to-eat-meals	
	f	%	F	%	f	%
Low	81	36.0	45	20.0	22	9.8
Moderate	104	46.2	65	28.9	26	11.6
High	29	12.9	14	6.2	8	3.6
Total	214	95.1	124	55.1	56	24.9
Not using	11	4.9	101	44.9	169	75.1
Total	225	100.0	225	100.0	225	100.0
Mean	11.2933		5.4044		1.8444	
S.D.	5.38792		5.62289		3.60404	
Max	24.00		19.00		15.00	
Min	.00		.00		.00	

3.2 Consumer Segmentation

With respect to the present study it was thought appropriate to put all the variables together and give a holistic picture of the profile of the consumers of SPFs. The researcher was of the view to look at the data in totality with a new approach and perspective thus taking the study a step ahead. Therefore, in order to increase the usability and understanding of the data, the researcher made an attempt to segment the market of SPFs through cluster analysis. Segmentation is the process of slicing a market for a particular product or service into number of different segments, usually based on factors such as demographics, geography, social factors, psychographics etc (Hindle, 2008). Market segmentation helps to better meet different consumer needs and provides an edge over the competition. The four basic benefits associated with market segmentation include (i) Improving the marketability of the product, (ii) Improving marketing strategies, (iii) Improving marketing tactics, and (iv) Improving business's marketing position (http://www.strategicmarketsegmentation.com/blog/).

Thus, in view of the above it was thought to carry out customer segmentation via the application of cluster analysis. In the past numerous researches have been carried out; wherein, cluster analysis has been used to carry out to study the market structure analysis, with the aim to move a step towards the target customer.

Studies carried out by Shim and Gehrt (1998), Gehrt and Shim (1998), Shim and Antigone (1993), and Shim and Bickle (1994); have conducted cluster analysis for (i) Identification of shopping-orientations of consumers (ii) Identification of shopping segments, and (iii) Profile development for shopping segments with respect to various attributes. The studies were conducted with respect to aspects like grocery shopping, female apparel shopping, and catalog shopping etc.; with the aim to delineate implications for each of the shopping segments.

In the light of the literature surveyed, it was thought suitable to carry out cluster analysis in order to segment the consumers of SPFs. Out of the three SPFs, the number of consumers consuming ready-to-eat soups (RES) was adequate, and therefore only they were selected for the purpose of cluster analysis. Consumption pattern with regard to frequency, duration, and quantity of consumption was used as a basis for cluster analysis.

3.2.1 Objectives

In case of the present study, the basic advantage associated with application of cluster analysis was that it helped in customer segmentation. Customer segmentation is the process of splitting a customer database into distinct, meaningful, and homogenous groups based on consumption pattern of ready-to-eat soups. Cluster analysis was carried out with the following objectives;

1. Segmentation of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups: Consumers were clustered on the basis of consumption pattern of RES. Each cluster consisted of consumers who were relatively homogeneous in terms of their consumption pattern.
2. Creating cluster profile: The profile of each of the cluster was created for better understanding of each cluster on the basis of the background characteristics of the consumers, their food shopping-orientations, and psychographics.

3.2.2 Cluster distribution and interpretation

The output of cluster analysis generated three clusters. Cluster one comprised of 120 consumers (56.1 per cent), cluster two had 38 consumers (17.8 per cent), while cluster three consisted of 56 consumers (26.2 per cent) (Table 26) (Fig. 14). The interpretation of each of the mentioned cluster has been provided in the ensuing paragraphs.

Table 26. Cluster distribution of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups

Cluster Distribution	(N=214)	
	f	Per cent
1	120	56.1
2	38	17.8
3	56	26.2
Total	214	100.0

Cluster one: Cluster one was identified as the **'Beginners'.** It comprised of consumers who were consuming the ready-to-eat soups since last two to three years. They consumed around two packets of ready-to-eat soups once a fortnight (Table 27) (Fig. 14). In view of the consumption pattern of this set of consumers, it appeared that they were still in the process of trying the ready-to-eat soups. They were hesitant to use the RES in large quantities and more frequently. It can be implied that they were experimenting with the product, and were yet to accept it as a day to day food product in the house. With all probability they appeared be the most potential lot for the marketer of RES, since they were the consumers who had already realized the 'need' of the product, and now they were required to be convinced to make this product a part of their day to day life. They can be identified as the soft target for the marketers. Thus, it can be contemplated that market can target their advertising and promotional efforts, more accurately and more profitably and can convert them into their loyal consumers.

Cluster two: Cluster two was labeled as **'Sporadic consumers'.** It comprised of consumers who intermittently used the ready-to-eat soups since more than seven years. However, their consumption was limited to only two packets in a month (Table 27) (Fig.14). It appeared that these were the consumers who had already tried and tested the product, and now with their own mind set, and experiences with the RES over a period of time, had decided not to make ready-to-eat soups a part of their day-to-day consumption. They had purposefully restricted their consumption of ready-to-eat soups for special occasions, and that too in small amounts. From marketing perspective, these set of consumers appeared to be the tough consumers. The challenge with the marketers lay to regain the interest of these consumers in their product. The marketing strategies can be directed towards reinforcing the product in a new form to the consumers. The same product can be revived in a new fashion and presented to this set of consumers, expecting that it might be accepted again.

Cluster three: Cluster three was named as the **'Dependable consumers'.** It comprised of consumers who were consistently consuming ready-to-eat soups since the last five to six years. They were in a habit of consuming at least four to five packets of RES in a week (Table 27) (Fig. 14). This was probably the set of loyal consumers who were habitual consumers of the product, irrespective of any reason. They were the most dependable set of consumers who had been faithful to the product through the years. The promotional mix can be designed with respect to the advertising, sales and promotions, publicity, and personal selling directed towards retaining them. Thus, the marketers can direct their strategies towards holding such customers, by constantly incorporating innovations in the existing product, which would confirm to the changing requirements of their consumers, thereby retaining their interest in the product.

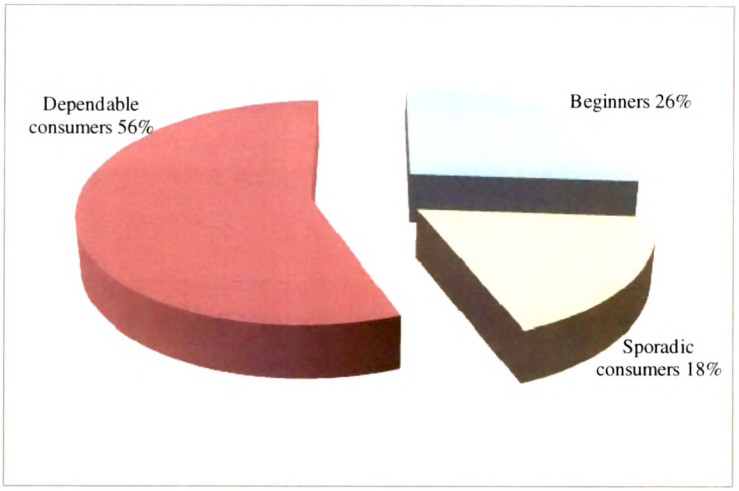

Fig. 14: Cluster distribution of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups

Table 27. Cluster distribution of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups by their consumption patter

Cluster distribution	Consumption pattern (N=214)					
	Frequency		Duration		Quantity	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1	3.03	0.96	2.89	1.25	2.04	0.81
2	1.76	0.75	7.23	1.83	2.18	0.86
3	4.07	0.84	5.69	1.90	4.89	1.89
Total	3.07	1.17	4.39	2.35	2.81	1.72

3.2.3 Cluster profiles

The profile of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups (RES) in each of the three clusters was designed with regard to the following attributes:

i. The background characteristics included the personal and family profile. The personal profile comprised of the age, education level, and occupational status of the consumers. Family profile included of the family type, family size, family life-cycle stage, and socio-economic status of the family.

ii. Food shopping-orientations of the consumers

iii. Psychographics, namely; lifestyle orientations, personality traits, market beliefs, attitude towards ready-to-eat soups, and perceived risk in the purchase and consumption of ready-to-eat soups.

3.2.3.1 Background characteristics

The background profile included the personal and family profile of the consumers. The personal profile comprised of the age, education level, and occupational status of the consumers. The family profile comprised of the family type, family size, family life-cycle stage, and socio-economic status of the family. The findings in relation to the personal and family profile of the three clusters have been brought forth:

Beginners: More than one-third of the 'Beginners' were in their young-middle age group, and a little less than one-third were in their young age. Two-third of them were graduates while, less than one-fifth were S.S.C. degree holders. Less than three-forth of them were non-working (Annexure IV Table 2 to Table 4). One-half of them had nuclear families, and a little less then that had joint family system. Around two-third of the beginners had medium size family. One-forth of the beginners were teen parents, while more than one-fifth of them were young parents. A little more than one-half of them were in the middle S.E.S., and one-fifth of them were in the high S.E.S. (Annexure IV Table 5 to Table 8).

Sporadic consumers: A little more than one-third of the 'Sporadic consumers' were in their young age group, and a little less than one-third were in the middle age group. With regard to education level more than one-half of the sporadic consumers were graduates, and less than one-third were post-graduates. More than one-half of the sporadic consumers were non-working women (Annexure IV Table 2 to Table 4). More than one-half of them had nuclear families and one-third had joint family system. Two-third of the Sporadic consumers had medium size families. More than one-third of the sporadic consumers were young-parent and a little less than one-half were in the teen parent LCS. Less than two-third of them were in the middle S.E.S, and a little more than one-fifth were in the high S.E.S. (Annexure IV Table 5 to Table 8).

Dependable consumers: The 'dependable consumers' encompassed more than one-third proportion of consumers in the young and young-middle age group. More than one-third of them were graduates and less than one-third were post graduates. Also, one-forth of the dependable consumers were professional degree holders. Unlike the

beginners and sporadic consumers, the dependable consumers comprised of more than one-half of women (Annexure IV Table 2 to Table 4). Unlike the beginners and sporadic consumers, three-forth of the dependable consumers had nuclear families. A little more than one-half of the dependable consumers had small size families. Like the beginners and sporadic consumers, less than one-half of the beginners were also young-parent and little more than one-third of them were teen-parent. More than one-half of them, were in the middle S.E.S and more than one-third of them belonged to high S.E.S. (Annexure IV Table 5 to Table 8).

3.2.3.2. Food shopping-orientations

Due to constant social, cultural and economic changes shopping-orientation differ over generations (Stoltman, 1991). This supports the generalization cohort approach to segment markets (Godrington, 2001). In order to comprehend consumer behavior, marketers must understand the determinants of consumers' shopping-orientation. Consumers with different shopping-orientations have different consumers characteristics and market behavior (Shim, 1992). With respect to the present study the food shopping-orientation of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups (RES) comprised of seven orientations, namely; convenience FSO, experimental-loyal FSO, exploratory FSO, impulsive FSO, price-conscious FSO, quality-conscious FSO, and value-for-money FSO. Distribution of the three clusters on each of the FSOs is as follows:

Beginners: Less than two-third of the beginners were high on their convenience orientation. Equal proportions of the consumers were found in high and low categories of experimental-loyal and price-conscious FSO. A little less than three-forth of them were high in quality-conscious FSO, and a little more than two-third were high on value-for-money FSO. However, a little more than one-half of the beginners were less explorative, and less than two-third of them were less impulsive in their FSO (Fig. 15 to Fig. 21) (Annexure IV Table 9 to Table 15).

Sporadic consumers: Less than two-third of the sporadic consumers were high on their convenience orientation, and quality-conscious FSO, while more than two-third were high on experimental-loyal FSO. More than one-half were low on price-

conscious FSO, and more than three-forth of them were high on value-for-money FSO. Conversely, little less than two-third of the sporadic consumers were less explorative, and less than three-forth of them were less impulsive in their FSO (Fig. 15 to Fig. 21) (Annexure IV Table 9 to Table 15).

Dependable consumers: Two-third of the dependable consumers were high in their convenience FSO, and price-conscious FSO. Less than two-third were high in experimental-loyal FSO, and quality-conscious FSO. The data brought forth that more than three-forth of them were high in their value-for- money FSO. On the contrary, a little less than two-third of the dependable consumers were less exploratory, and less than two-third were less impulsive in their FSO (Fig. 15 to Fig. 21) (Annexure IV Table 9 to Table 15).

3.2.3.3 Psychographics

Any marketing activity starts with knowing the consumer's mind. In order to do so one needs to understand market segmentation, and proper market segmentation begins with a psychographic analysis of the market. And the fact that, since the major psychographic category, keeps changing their pattern consistently with time, forces the marketers to tailor their marketing strategies accordingly (http://www.marketingcrossing.com/article/220064/Modern-Marketing-Jobs-Stress-Mind-Over-Matter/). In the present study the psychographics comprised of, namely; lifestyle orientations, personality traits, market beliefs, attitude towards RES and perceived risk in the purchase and consumption of RES. The detail of each of the mentioned psychographic attribute of the three clusters is presented in the ensuing paragraphs:

Beginners

Lifestyle: Less than two-third of the beginners were more green-oriented, and more nutritionally-oriented in their life style. A little less than two-third of them were more innovatively-oriented, more service role-orientation, and more socially-outgoing in their lifestyle, and a little more than two-third of the beginners were more trend-conscious in their lifestyle (Fig. 22 to Fig. 27) (Annexure IV Table 16 to Table 21).

Personality: The findings with respect to the personality traits within the cluster distribution revealed that less than three-forth of the beginners were low in reasoning trait, three-forth were low in vigilance trait, and more than one-half were low in social-boldness personality traits. More than two-third of them were high in rule-consciousness, and little less than two-third of them were high in openness-to-change (Fig. 28 to Fig. 32) (Annexure IV Table 22 to Table 26).

Market beliefs: About 70 to 80 per cent of the beginners believed that (i) the best brands of RES are the ones that are purchased the most (ii) large size packets of RES are cheaper than small-size packets (iii) RES being a new concept are more expensive (iv) the prices of RES will settle down as time goes by (v) RES having synthetic ingredients are lower in quality than those having natural ingredients, and credit and return policies are most lenient at large department stores. Further, around 50 to 60 per cent of them believed that (i) Within a given store, higher prices of RES generally indicate higher quality (ii) Locally owned grocery stores provide more personalized services, and (iii) Salespeople in big department stores are more knowledgeable about the various products then the sales personnel in local grocery stores. Other than the above mentioned beliefs, 65 per cent of the beginners believed that when one is in doubt about a brand of RES it is always safe to go with an Indian brand. However, around 60 per cent of them did not believe that all brands of RES are the same (Fig. 33 to Fig. 48) (Annexure IV Table 27 to Table 42).

Attitude: Almost all the beginners, i.e., 98 per cent held a positive attitude towards the advantages of RES. A little more than three-forth had a positive attitude for the characteristics, and around two-third of them held a positive attitude towards the utility of RES. Further, a little more than one-half of them had a neutral attitude towards the health and hygiene aspect, and a less than one-half had a positive attitude towards the same. However, more than one-half of the beginners had a negative attitude towards the economy aspect of RES. Overall, a little more than two-third of the beginners had a positive attitude towards the RES (Fig. 49 to Fig. 54) (Annexure IV Table 43 to Table 48).

Perceived risk: RES were considered to be a financially risky product by 55.8 per cent, and psychologically risky product by 68.3 per cent of the beginners. With respect to functional risk almost equal number of consumers considered it to be medium risk product (42.5 per cent) and high risk product (41.7 per cent). An almost equal number of consumers considered the RES to be a low physiologically risky product (41.7 per cent) and high physiologically risky product (45.0 per cent). Similarly, RES were considered to be socially low risk product (40.0 per cent) and socially high risk product (37.5 per cent). Overall, the RES were considered to be a high risk product (48.3 per cent) by the beginners (Fig. 55 to Fig. 60) (Annexure IV Table 49 to Table 54).

Sporadic consumers:

Lifestyle: Less than two-third of the sporadic consumers were less green-oriented, and less innovatively-oriented in their LS. More than one-half of them were less nutritionally-oriented, less trend-conscious in their LS, and more service-role orientated in their lifestyle. With regard to socially-outgoing LS the distribution was equal (Fig. 22 to Fig. 27) (Annexure IV Table 16 to Table 21).

Personality: More than three-forth of the sporadic consumers were found to be high in their rule-consciousness trait, and less than three-forth were low in their reasoning trait. A little more than two-third were low in their vigilance trait. About more than one-half of them were high in social-boldness trait and openness-to-change personality trait (Fig. 28 to Fig. 32) (Annexure IV Table 22 to Table 26).

Market beliefs: Around 50 to 55 per cent of the sporadic consumers believe that (i) when one is in doubt about a brand of RES it is always safe to go with one's usual brand (ii) when one is in doubt about a brand of RES it is always safe to go with an Indian brand (iii) all brands of RES are basically the same (iv) discount coupons received during previous purchases represent real saving. Other than that the market beliefs of the sporadic consumers were observed to be on similar pattern as that of the beginners (Fig. 33 to Fig. 48) (Annexure IV Table 27 to Table 42).

Attitude: Majority of the sporadic consumers i.e. 92 per cent had a positive attitude towards the advantages of RES. Less than two-third of them were positive towards the characteristics of RES. Less than one-half of the consumers had a positive opinion about the health and hygiene aspect of RES, and more than one-half were neutral towards the consequence and economy aspect of RES (Fig. 49 to Fig. 54) (Annexure IV Table 43 to Table 48).

Perceived risk: RES were considered to be financially risky product by 50.0 per cent, physiologically risky by 63.2 per cent, and psychologically risky by 44.7 per cent of the consumers. Functionally they were considered to be a medium risk product (50.0 per cent) and socially a low risk product (52.6 per cent) by the sporadic consumers (Fig. 55 to Fig. 60) (Annexure IV Table 49 to Table 54).

Dependable consumers:

Lifestyle: Less than two-third of the dependable consumers were less green-oriented, less socially-outgoing, and more service-role oriented in their LS. However, two-third of them were low in nutrition-orientation. A little less then two-third were high in trend-conscious LS orientation, and a little more than two-third were high in innovative-orientation LS (Fig. 22 to Fig. 27) (Annexure IV Table 16 to Table 21).

Personality: A little less than two-third of the dependable consumers were high in their openness-to-change, and low in their social-boldness. However, less than two-third were high in rule-consciousness personality trait, and low in their reasoning trait and vigilance personality trait (Fig. 28 to Fig. 32) (Annexure IV Table 22 to Table 26).

Market beliefs: Around 60 per cent of the dependable consumers believed that when in doubt, it is safe to go with one's usual brands and the departmental store that constantly have sales don't really save your money. Around, 70 per cent were of the belief that when one buys heavily advertised RES they are paying for the label not for higher quality. Other than the above mentioned believes, the dependable consumers

held more or less similar market beliefs as the beginners and sporadic consumers (Fig. 33 to Fig. 48) (Annexure IV Table 27 to Table 42).

Attitude: Ninety-two per cent of the dependable consumers had a positive attitude towards the advantages of RES. A little more than one-half of them held a positive attitude with respect to the characteristics of RES. Less than two-third of them had a neutral attitude towards the health and hygiene aspect, and a little less than one-half were neutral towards the consequence of use of RES, and more than two-third of them considered the RES to be expensive (Fig. 49 to Fig. 54) (Annexure IV Table 43 to Table 48).

Perceived risk: Seventy-one per cent of the consumers considered the RES to be a product with high financial risk, 45 to 50 per cent considered them to be functional risk, physiological risk, and psychological risk product. But, socially it was considered to be a low risk product by 55 per cent dependable consumers. Overall, around 50 per cent of the dependable consumers considered the RES to be a medium risk product (Fig. 55 to Fig. 60) (Annexure IV Table 49 to Table 54).

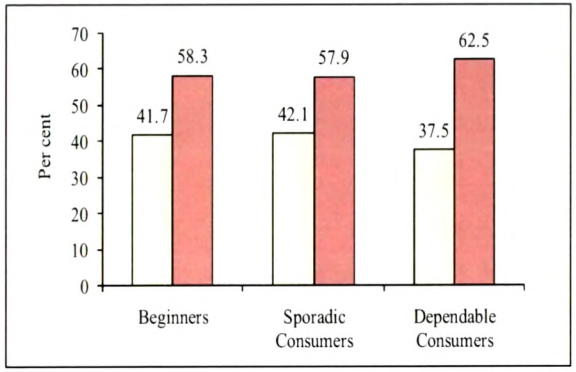

Fig. 15 : Distribution of Consumers by Convenience FSO

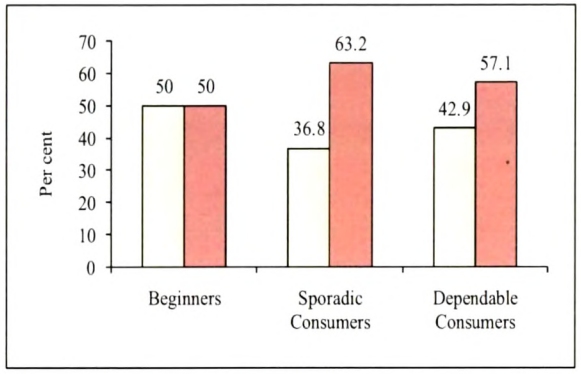

Fig. 16 : Distribution of Consumers by Experimental-loyal FSO

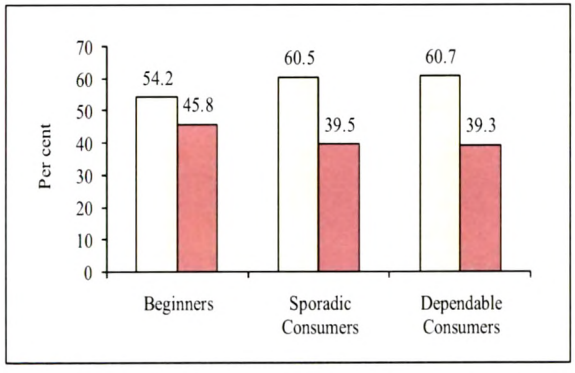

Fig. 17 : Distribution of Consumers by Explorative FSO

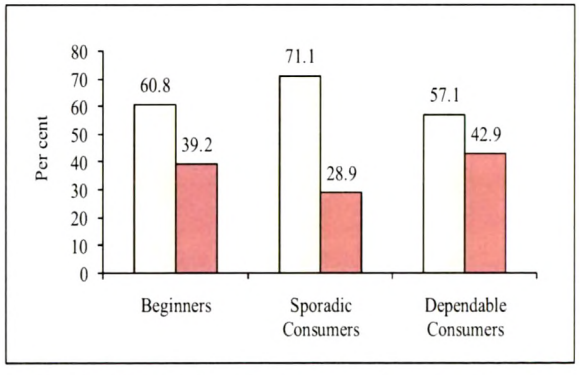

Fig. 18 : Distribution of Consumers by Impulsive FSO

□ Low ■ High

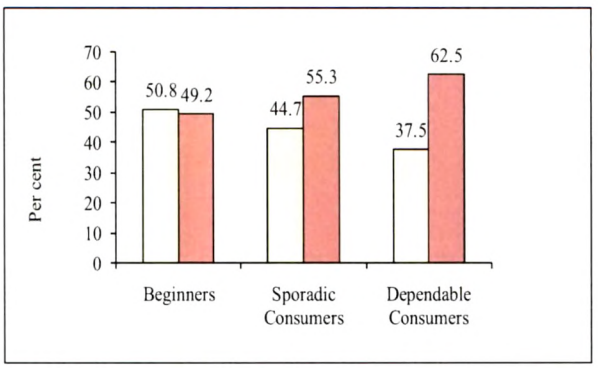

Fig. 19 : Distribution of Consumers by Price-Conscious FSO

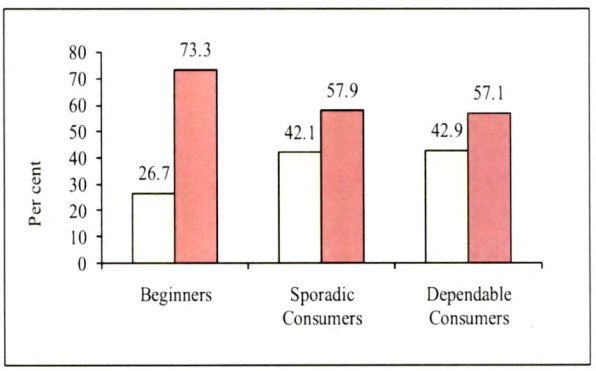

Fig. 20 : Distribution of Consumers by Quality-Conscious FSO

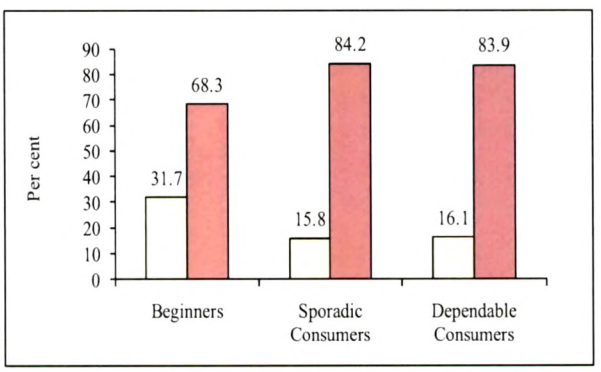

Fig. 21 : Distribution of Consumers by Value-for-money FSO

□ **Low** ■ **High**

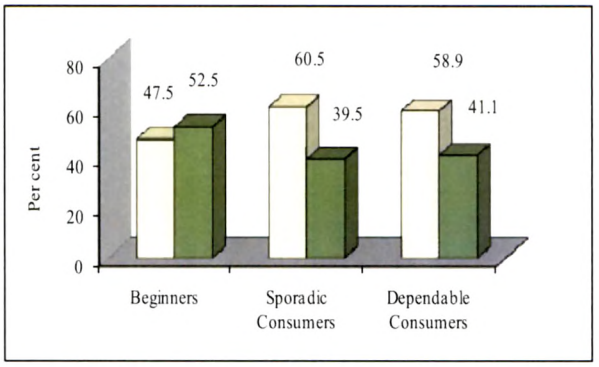

Fig. 22 : Distribution of Consumers by Green-orientation Lifestyle

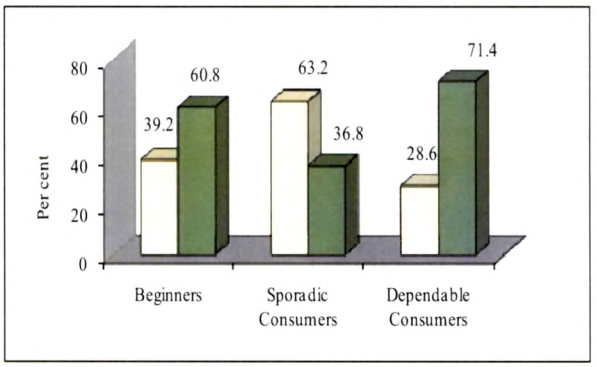

Fig. 23 : Distribution of Consumers by Innovative-orientation Lifestyle

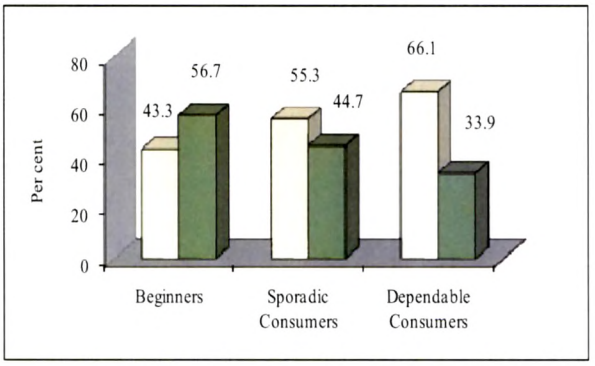

Fig. 24 : Distribution of Consumers by Nutrition-orientation Lifestyle

□ **Low** ■ **High**

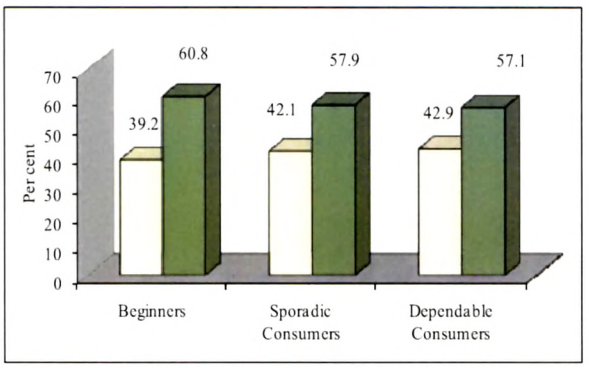

Fig. 25 : Distribution of Consumers by Social-role orientation Lifestyle

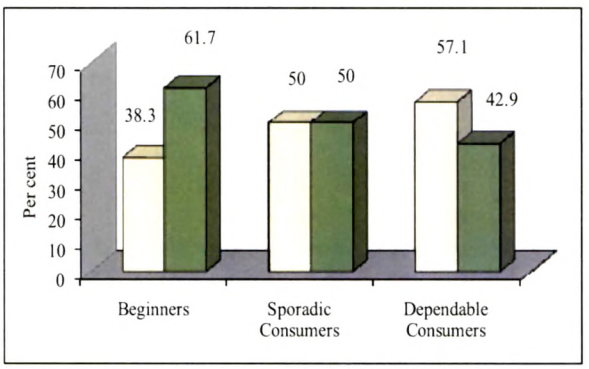

Fig. 26 : Distribution of Consumers by Socially-outgoing Lifestyle

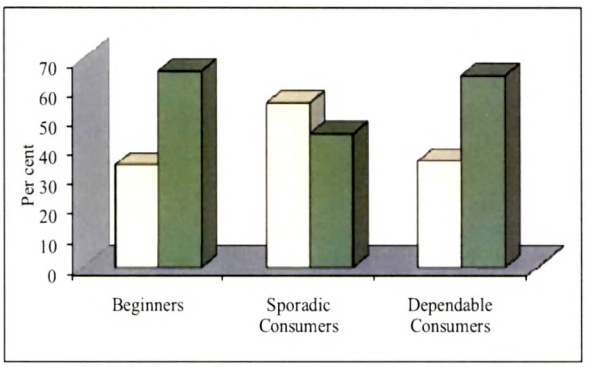

Fig. 27 : Distribution of Consumers by Trend-conscious Lifestyle

☐ Low ■ High

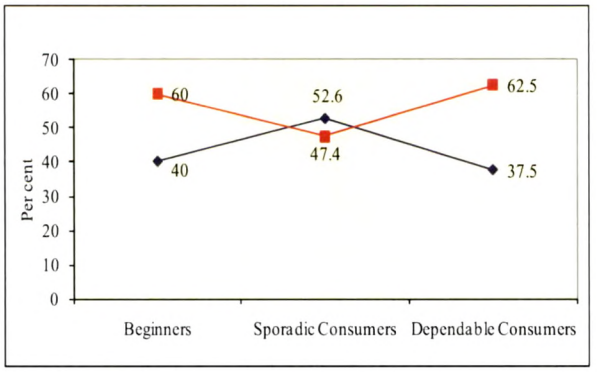

Fig. 28 : Distribution of Consumers by Openness-to-change Personality Trait

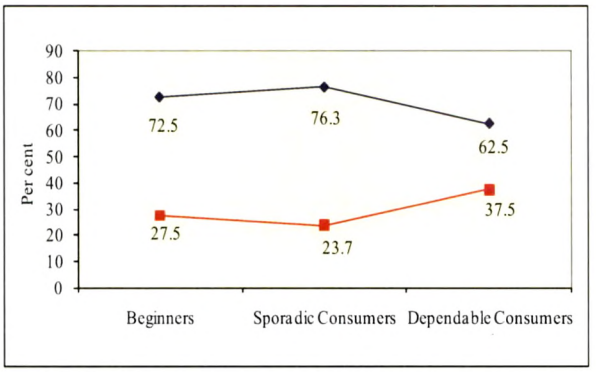

Fig. 29 : Distribution of Consumers by Reasoning Personality Trait

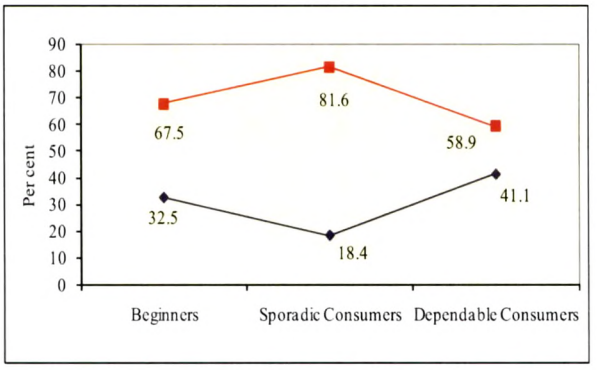

Fig. 30 : Distribution of Consumers by Rule-consciousness Personality Trait

Low **High**

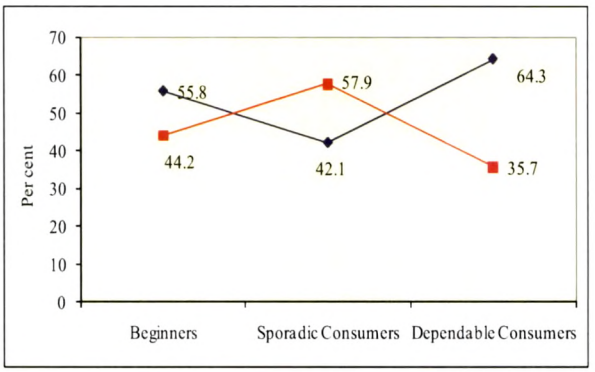

Fig. 31 : Distribution of Consumers by Social-boldness Personality Trait

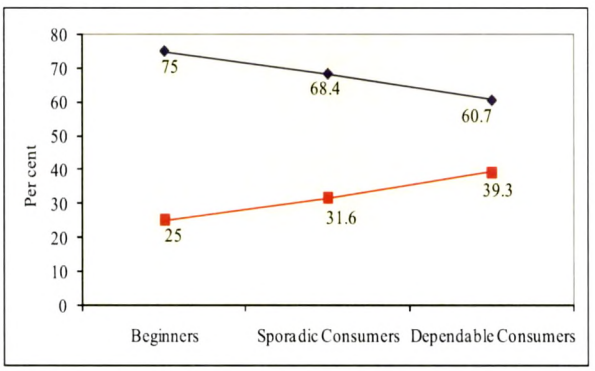

Fig. 32 : Distribution of Consumers by Vigilance Personality Trait

Low High

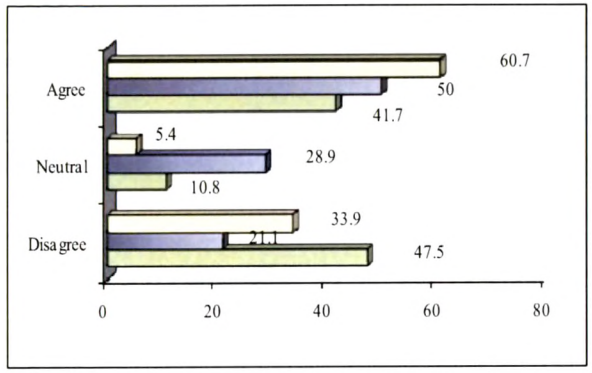

Fig. 33 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that When in doubt, it is safe to go with once usual brands RES

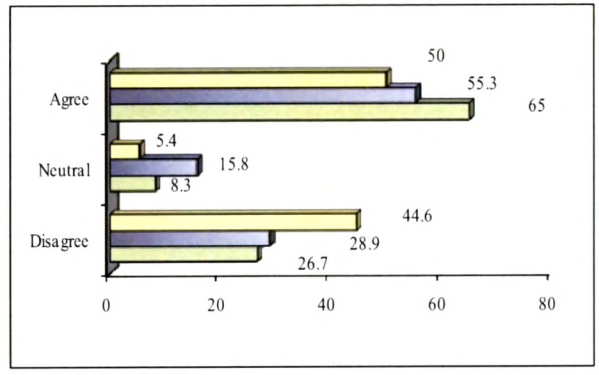

Fig. 34 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that When one is in doubt about a brand of RES it is always safe to go with an Indian brand

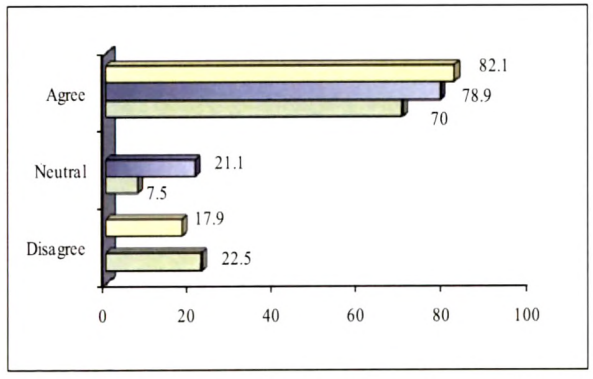

Fig. 35 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that the best brands of RES are the ones that are purchased the most

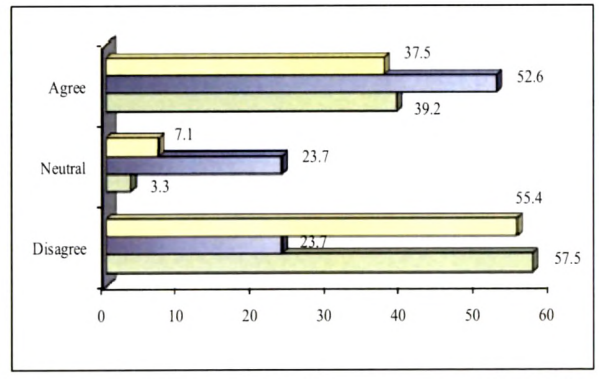

Fig. 36 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that all brands of RES are basically the same

Beginners **Sporadic Consumers** **Dependable Consumers**

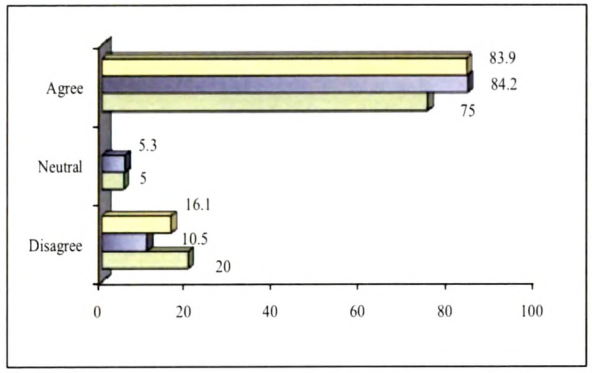

Fig. 37 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that large size packets of RES are cheaper than small-size packets

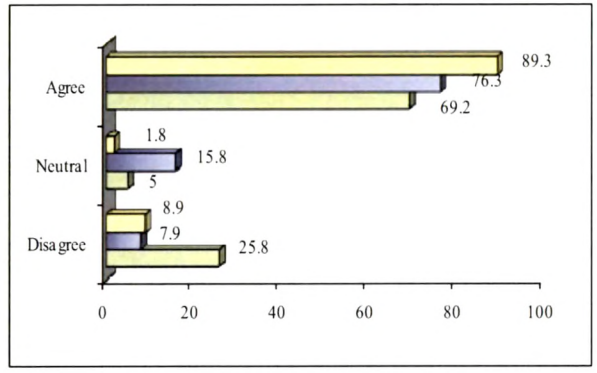

Fig. 38 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that RES being a new concept are more expensive

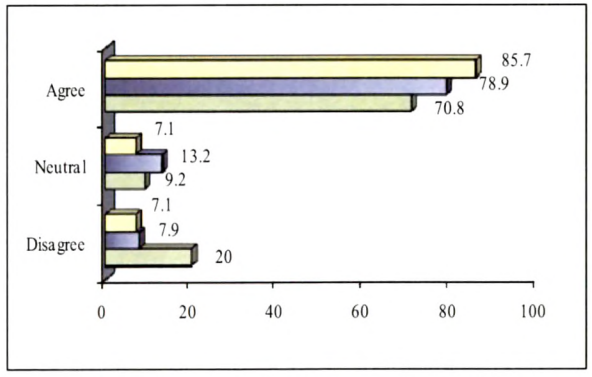

Fig. 39 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that the price of RES will settle down as time goes by

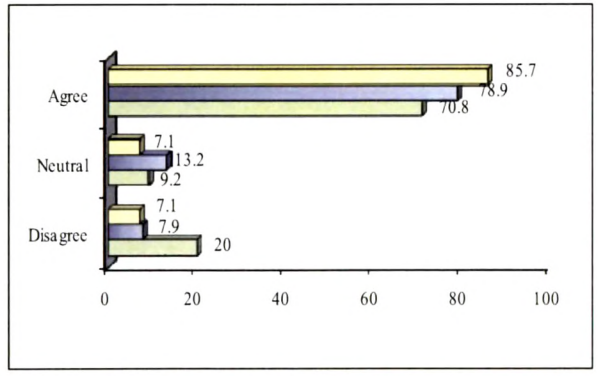

Fig. 40 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that RES having synthetic ingredients are lower in quality, than those having natural ingredients

Beginners **Sporadic Consumers** **Dependable Consumers**

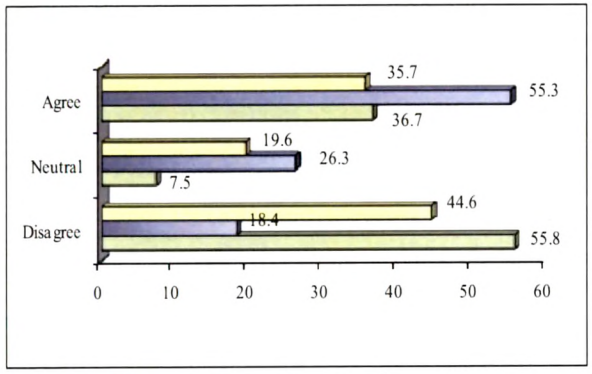

Fig. 41 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that discount coupons received during the previous purchase represent real savings

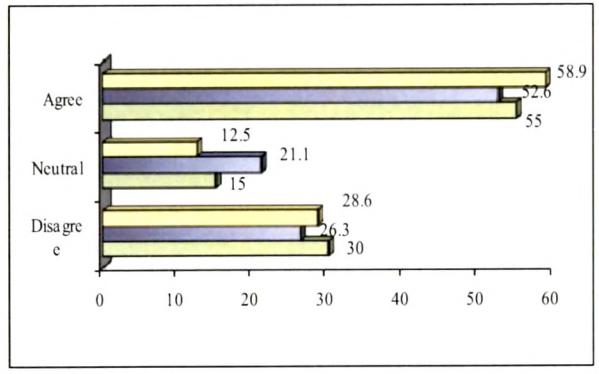

Fig. 42 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that within a given store, higher prices of RES generally indicate higher quality

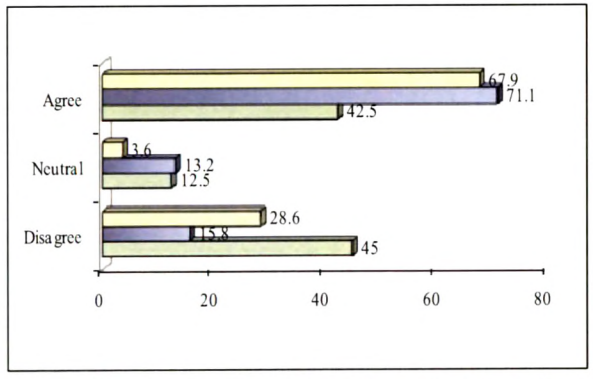

Fig. 43 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that when you buy heavily advertised RES, you are paying for the label not for the higher quality

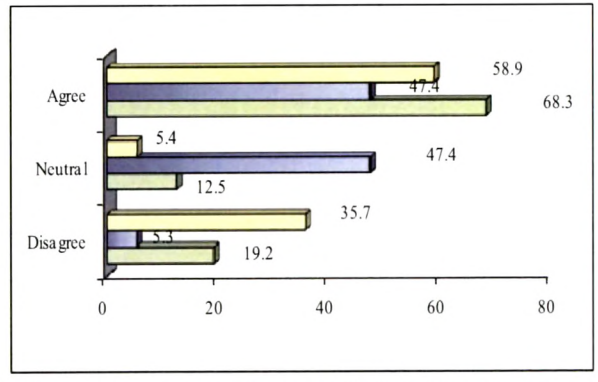

Fig. 44 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that the department stores that are constantly having sales, don't really save you money

Beginners **Sporadic Consumers** **Dependable Consumers**

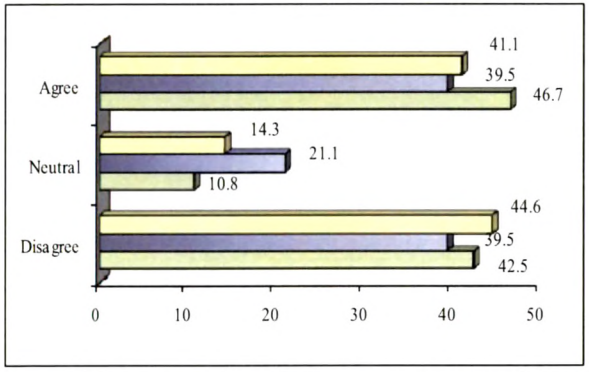

Fig. 45 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that a store character is reflected in its window display

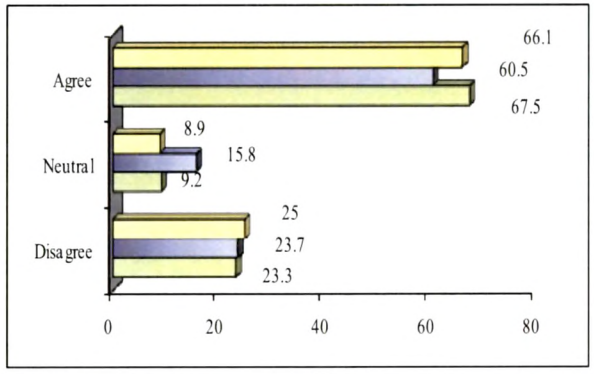

Fig. 46 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that locally owned grocery stores provide more personalized services

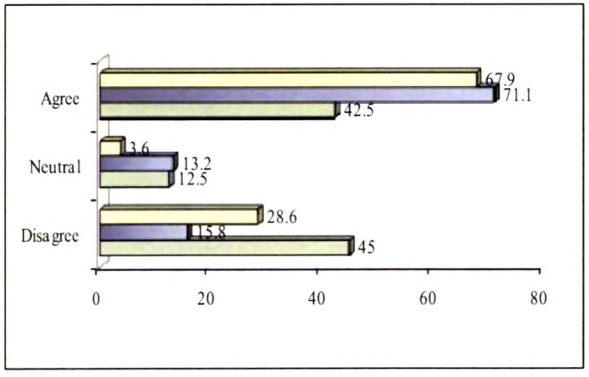

Fig. 47 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that sales people in big department stores are more knowledgeable

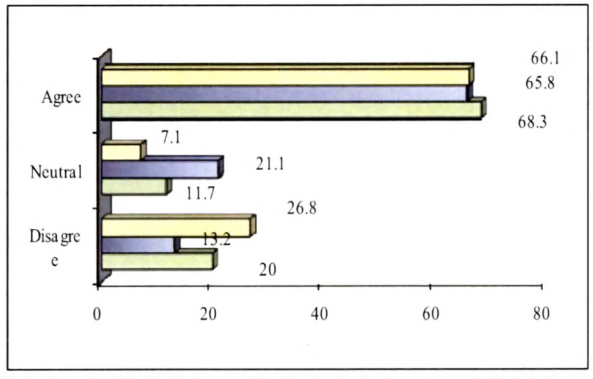

Fig. 48 : Distribution of Consumers by market belief that credit and return policies are most lenient at large department stores

Beginners Sporadic Consumers Dependable Consumers

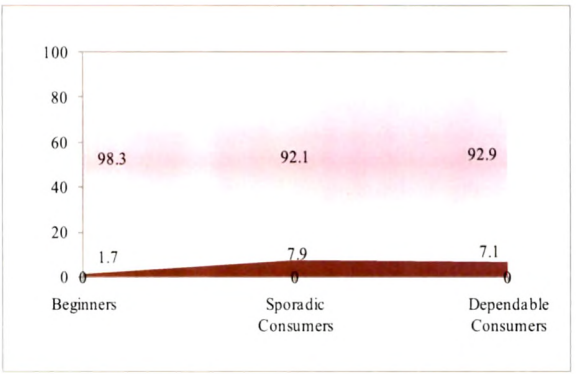

Fig. 49 : Distribution of Consumers by attitude towards advantages of RES

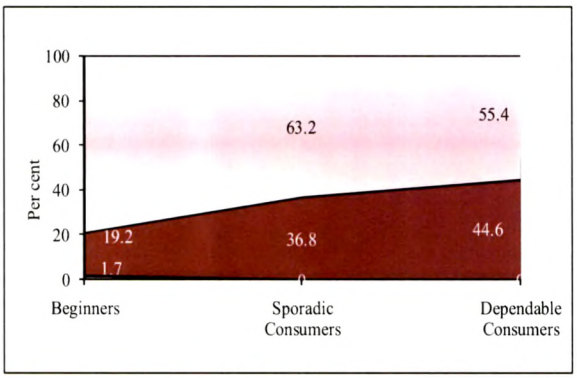

Fig. 50 : Distribution of Consumers by attitude towards characteristics of RES

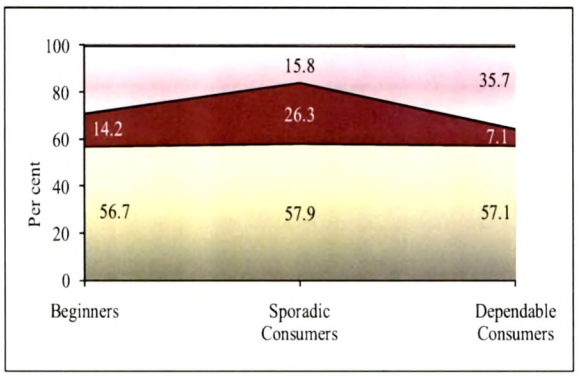

Fig. 51 : Distribution of Consumers by attitude towards economy aspect of RES

Favorable **Neutral** **Un-favorable**

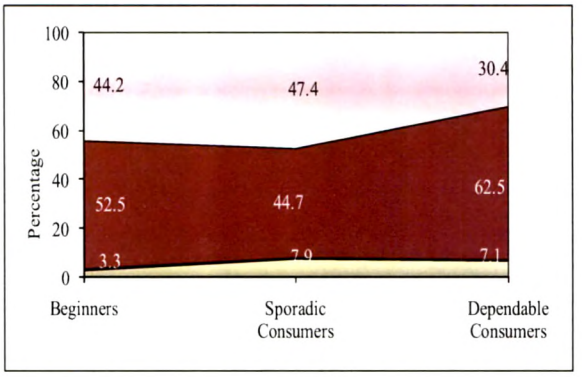

Fig. 52 : Distribution of Consumers by attitude towards health and hygiene aspect of RES

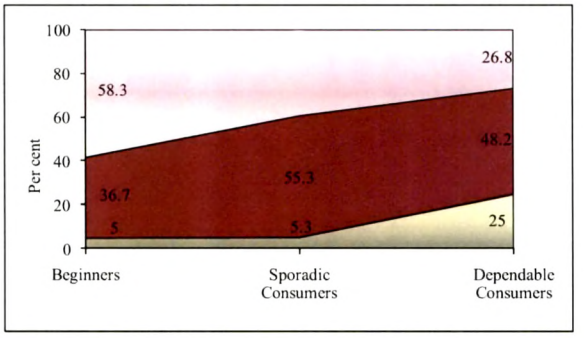

Fig. 53 : Distribution of Consumers by attitude towards consequence of use aspect of RES

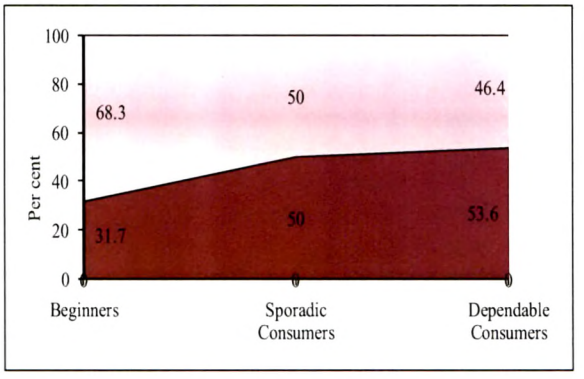

Fig. 54 : Distribution of Consumers by overall attitude towards RES

☐ **Favorable** ■ **Neutral** ☐ **Un-favorable**

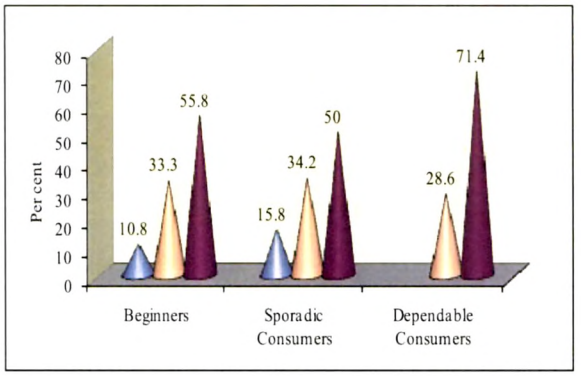

Fig. 55 : Distribution of Consumers by perceived financial risk

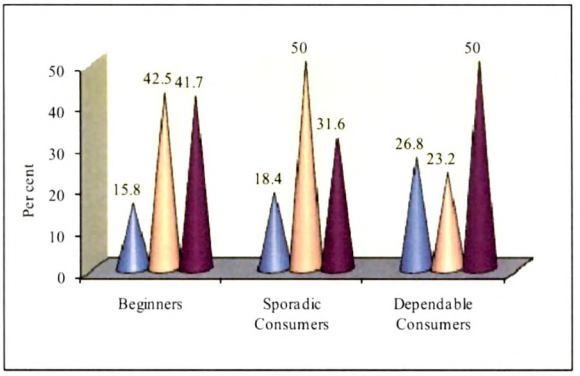

Fig. 56 : Distribution of Consumers by perceived functional risk

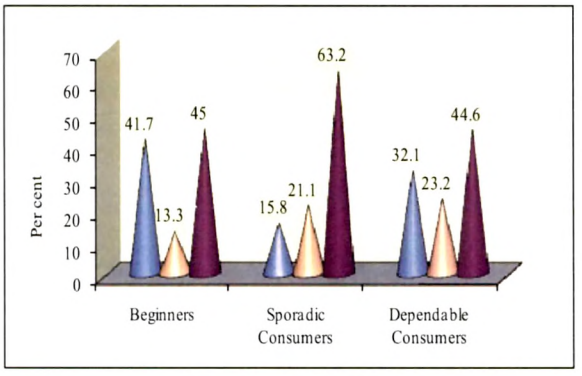

Fig. 57 : Distribution of Consumers by perceived physiological risk

Low **Moderate** **High**

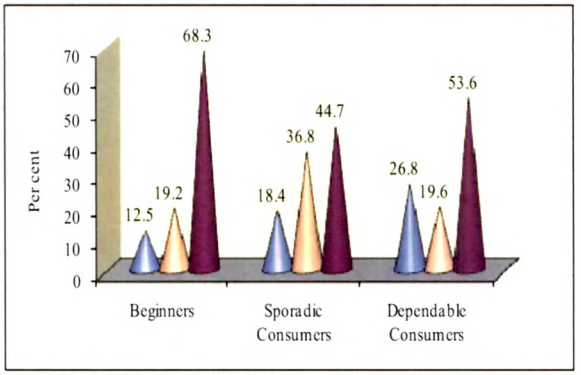

Fig. 58 : Distribution of Consumers by perceived psychological risk

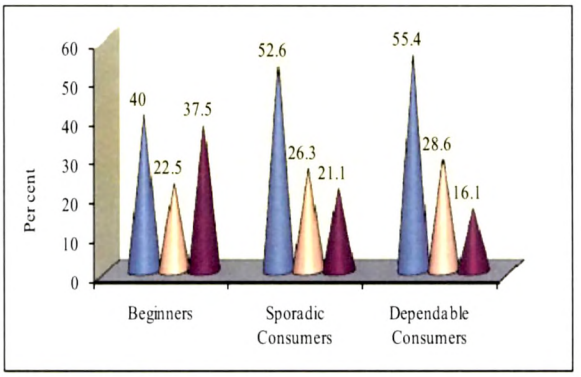

Fig. 59 : Distribution of Consumers by perceived social risk

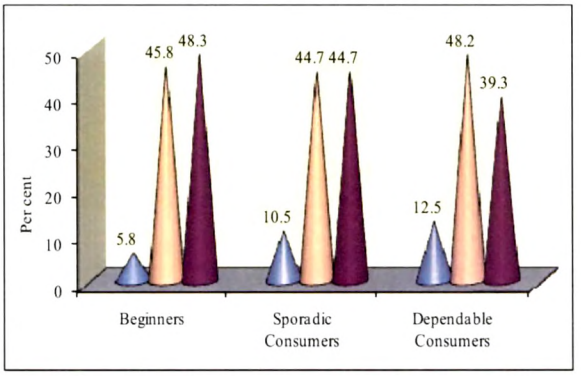

Fig. 60 : Distribution of Consumers by perceived overall risk

Low Moderate High

3.3 Problems encountered by the consumers in the use of selected packaged foods, and their preferences

3.3.1 Problems

A checklist of 31 statements was prepared to identify the problems encountered by the consumers with regard to (i) the product i.e., ready-to-eat soups, ready-to-use pastes, and ready-to-eat meals (ii) and their labeling. The data procured on the above two aspects has thrown light on the day-to-day problems faced with the existing product by their actual users of the product.

Ready-to-eat soups

Around 60 per cent of the consumers were of the opinion that the claimed ingredients were found only in small quantities. Non-availability of ready-to-eat soups in single size packets was a problem for fifty to fifty-five per cent consumers, a similar proportion of them found it tricky to assess the quality of the ready-to-eat soups before their purchase, and were of the opinion that the quantity of food provided in one packet was less for its cost. Around, 35 to 45 per cent consumers were of the thought that the visual appeal of the final prepared product was not as good as its pictorial representation on the packet. In addition, a similar proportion of the consumers reported that even on following the instructions on the packets the consumers were not able to get the desired product. Also, the taste of the product differed when prepared on gas stove and microwave. A similar proportion of the consumers found the ready-to-eat soups bland in taste. They found it hard to find the product in the local grocery stores. About 25 per cent of the consumers reported that it was not easy to open the seal of ready-to-eat soups. They also indicated that the product give an unpleasant odor on being opened, and an unpleasant aroma on being prepared (Table 28) (Annexure IV Table 55).

With regard to the labeling of the product, 45 per cent consumers found it difficult to understand the specification of some unusual ingredients on the packet Around 30 per cent found it hard to convert the units of measurement on the packet in term of a glass full, a spoon full etc. Twenty to twenty-five per cent of the consumers

faced problems with the incomprehensive terminology, and inappropriate color contrast of the labeling (Table 29) (Annexure IV Table 55).

Ready-to-use pastes

Around twenty to thirty per cent consumers reported that the ready-to-eat pastes were not easily available in small sizes, and accounted that the quantity of product in the packet was too less for its cost. A similar proportion of consumers reported that the product gave unpleasant odor on being opened, and found it difficult to open the seal of the packet (Table 28) (Annexure IV Table 56).

Specification of some unusual ingredients on the label of the product was a problem for around 24 per cent consumers. About 20 to 25 per cent consumers opined that the font size of the labeling was very small. They found the labeling to be incomprehensive. Also, the absence of information in terms of date of manufacture and expiry was a problem to the consumers (Table 29) (Annexure IV Table 56).

Ready-to-eat meals

Fifteen to twenty per cent of the consumers were of the opinion that the final prepared product was not as appealing as the one depicted on the packet, and the product do not taste good when prepared after few days of storage. The consumers found it complex to assess the quality of the product before its purchase, due to the opaque packaging and were of the thought that the quantity of food provided in the packet was less for their cost (Table 28) (Annexure IV Table 57).

The two basic problems which the consumers faced with respect to the labeling of the product was in understanding the unit of measurements on the packet and the specification of some unusual ingredient names on the packet (Table 29) (Annexure IV Table 57).

Table 28. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by the problems faced with the product

S.no	Problems with respect to product	Ready-to-eat soups		Ready-to-use pastes		Ready-to-eat meals	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
1	Difficulty in opening the seal of the selected packaged foods.	52	23.1	55	24.4	26	11.6
2	Even if the instructions on selected packaged foods are followed they do not lead to the desired end product.	83	36.9	30	24.4	28	12.4
3	Selected packaged foods gives unpleasant odor on being opened	54	24.0	50	13.3	22	9.8
4	The final prepared product is not as appealing as the one depicted on the packet	82	36.4	36	22.2	36	16.0
5	Selected packaged foods once opened do not taste good when prepared after few days of storage.	103	45.8	52	16.0	39	17.3
6	The taste of the selected packaged foods differs when prepared on gas stove and microwave.	80	35.6	20	23.1	23	10.2
7	Selected packaged foods give unpleasant aroma when prepared.	59	26.2	28	8.9	26	11.6
8	Selected packaged foods gives unpleasant taste	44	19.6	19	12.4	22	9.8
9	The quantity of salt in the food is more.	46	20.4	43	8.4	21	9.3
10	The desired food product is not easily available in all the grocery stores.	87	38.7	43	19.1	32	14.2
11	The prepared food product is bland.	84	37.3	17	7.6	25	11.1
12	The prepared food product is spicy	44	19.6	42	18.7	24	10.7
13	The prepared food product is oily.	27	12.0	33	14.7	28	12.4
14	It is difficult to assess the quality of selected packaged foods before its purchase.	121	53.1	39	17.3	35	15.6
15	The quantity of food provided in selected packaged foods is less for its cost.	124	55.1	67	29.8	40	17.8
16	The claimed ingredients like added vegetable, corn etc are found only in small quantity	143	63.6	27	12.0	31	13.8
17	The non-availability of selected packaged foods in single serving size is a problem.	120	53.3	58	25.8	33	14.7

Table 29. Distribution of the consumers of SPFs by the problems faced with the labeling of the product

S.no	Problems with respect to labeling	Ready-to-eat soups		Ready-to-use pastes		Ready-to-eat meals	
		f	%	f	f	%	f
18	Very small size letters.	41	18.2	45	20.0	17	7.6
19	Difficulty in understanding some of the unusual ingredient names in the label	101	44.9	54	24.0	25	11.1
20	Incomprehensive terminology used in the labeling	55	24.4	42	18.7	17	7.6
21	Inappropriate color contrast between the background of the food packet and the instructions	47	20.9	16	7.1	13	5.8
22	Difficulty in converting the measurements like ounce in terms of one glass, one spoon etc.	67	29.8	36	16.0	16	7.1
23	Absence of quality marks and certifications like ISI mark, AGMARK, FPO mark	49	21.8	23	10.2	14	6.2
24	Absence of information like date of manufacturing	40	17.8	41	18.2	13	5.8
25	Absence of best before date	32	14.2	44	19.6	15	6.7
26	Absence of the list of ingredients and their quantity.	33	14.7	14	6.2	8	3.6
27	Incomprehensive instructions for using the product	2	1.3	8	3.6	6	2.7
28	Absence of information on price	11	4.9	13	5.8	7	3.1
29	Absence of information on price net weight	9	4.0	12	5.3	7	3.1
30	Absence of detail with respect to the manufacturer	50	22.2	32	14.2	12	5.3
31	Absence of detail with respect to the marketer	60	26.7	42	18.7	13	5.3

3.3.2 Preferences

With the aim to find out the preferences of the respondents on SPFs a list of 31 items was prepared focusing mainly on (i) the product, (ii) its health effects, and (iii) packaging and labeling. In relation to the product the data revealed that about 85 to 90 per cent of the consumers had the inclination that the SPFs should be made more economical, more nutritious, and from natural raw materials. A similar proportion of the consumers also revealed the desire to know the possible health effects on

consumption of SPFs. They also felt the requirement that the packet of SPFs should mention the storage procedure of the product with respect to, both before and after opening the SPFs. They agreed that the packets should have specifications, like; whether they can be consumed by people in special groups like children, pregnant and lactating mothers, diabetics etc (Table 29) (Annexure IV Table 58).

With regard to the labeling and packaging aspect, similar proportion of the consumers wanted that the instructions on the label should be written in easy to understand language, the packaging should be made eco-friendly. Moreover, it should mention the possible health effects. Clustered preferences amongst the consumers were observed with regard to preference of packaging material, wherein, distinct preference clusters were found for paper and plastic packaging (Table 29) (Annexure IV Table 58).

Further, information was sort on the priority ranking of the consumers for the labeling in terms of the prominence of information on the packet of SPFs. The data revealed that 'price' was the labeling information that the consumers expected to be most prominently visible on the packet. The next two aspects which the consumers desired to be highlighted were date of manufacture and expiry; and the weight of the product. The priority list of other labeling information has been given in (Table 29). However, batch number was identified as the least important labeling information (Table 29) (Annexure IV Table 58).

In general a homogenous pattern in the preferences was observed, where all the consumers were found to have roughly the same preference for the various aspects of SPFs.

Table 30. Distribution of consumers by their preferences for the SPFs

S.No	Preferences	N=225	
		f	%
1	Package food should be made *economical/ affordable*	192	85.3
2	Package food should be made in *more number of flavors*	185	82.2
3	Package food should be made in *more sizes(large or small)*	190	84.4
4	Package food should be made *nutritious*	203	90.2
5	Package food should be made from *natural ingredients*	208	92.4
6	The instructions on a label should be written in *easy language*	193	85.8
7	The instructions on a label should be written *in Hindi*	113	50.2
8	Instructions should be written in *bigger font size*	164	72.9
9	Packaging of packaged food should be made *easy to open*	168	74.7
10	Packaging of packaged food should be made *transparent*	105	46.7
11	Packaging of packaged food should *not be glossy*	102	45.3
12	Packaging of packaged food should be *reusable /multipurpose*	130	57.8
13	Packaging of packaged food should be *Eco-friendly*	198	88.0
14	Labeling should contain instructions for possible health effects due to consumption	196	87.1
15	Labeling should contain instructions for storage specifications, for both before and after opening the selected packaged foods	205	91.1
16	Labeling should contain instructions for special considerations for special groups like children, pregnant women, and elderly in terms of permissible consumption amount etc.	204	90.7
17	Labeling should contain instructions if the product can be consumed by people suffering from diabetes, blood pressure etc.	204	90.7
	Preference for packaging material:		
18	Plastic packaging	98	43.6
19	Glass packaging	85	37.8
20	Metal packaging	37	16.4
21	Paper packaging	131	58.2

Table 31. Distribution of consumers by their preferences with respect to the labeling of SPFs.

	N=225				
	Priority ranking of preferred information on the label of selected packaged foods	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	**S.D**
22	Price	1.00	10.00	2.18	1.95
23	Date of manufacturing and expiry	1.00	10.00	3.59	1.77
24	Weight	1.00	10.00	4.21	2.61
25	Serving size	1.00	10.00	4.49	2.34
26	Nutritional information	1.00	10.00	5.19	2.00
27	Quality certification mark	1.00	10.00	5.80	2.20
28	Instructions to use	1.00	10.00	6.47	2.53
29	List of ingredients	2.00	10.00	6.89	1.89
30	Quantity of each ingredient	3.00	10.00	6.95	2.02
31	Batch no	1.00	10.00	9.12	1.98

5.0 TESTING OF HYPOTHESES AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This section contains observations made in relation to the testing of hypotheses and discussion related to the findings. In order to test the hypotheses statistically, null hypotheses were formulated. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients were computed to study the relationship between the selected variables. Analysis of variance was also computed to study significant differences amongst the variables. Wherever, significant 'F' values were found Schaffer's procedure of post hoc comparisons was applied to probe into differences between groups. 't' test was also use for the same purpose. Chi-square test was used to find association between the variables. The findings of Hypothesis 'A' are summarized first, followed thereafter by the findings of Hypothesis 'B', 'C' and 'D'. Each hypothesis was further divided into sub-hypotheses.

5.1 Findings in relation to Hypothesis A

This section contains observations made in relation to the testing of hypothesis 'A' which states that there exists a relationship between the consumption pattern of selected packaged foods, and the personal and family variables of consumers. In order to test the hypothesis statistically, null hypotheses were formulated with two sub hypotheses focusing on personal and family variables respectively. The personal variables comprised of the age, education, and occupational status of the consumers of SPFs. The family variables included the family type, family size, family life-cycle stage, and socio-economic status. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients and chi-square test were computed for selected variables.

H_0A: There exists no relationship between the consumption pattern of consumers of selected packaged foods (SPFs) and their (i) personal and (ii) family variables.

H_0A_1: There exists no relationship between the consumption pattern of consumers of selected packaged foods (SPFs) and their personal variables, namely; (i) age (ii) education, and (iii) occupational status.

Correlations and Chi-square test were carried out to test the significant relationship between consumption pattern, and personal variables of the respondents. The computation of correlation revealed no significant relationship between the consumption pattern of three SPFs, and age of consumers (Table 32) (Annexure V Table 1 to Table 3).

The computed 'r' values brought forth that a positive correlation, significant at 0.01 level, existed between education and the consumption pattern of (i) ready-to-use pastes (r=0.253) and (ii) ready-to-eat meals (r=0.250). It meant that the consumption pattern of the above two SPFs was higher amongst the consumers who were higher in their education level. However, no significant relation was found in the consumption pattern of ready-to-eat soups, and education level of the consumers (Table 31) (Annexure V Table 4 to Table 6).

The computation of chi-square test revealed a significant association at 0.05 level in the occupational status of consumers and the consumption of ready-to-eat soups, where a higher number of working-women were heavy consumers of ready-to-eat soups (Table 33). No significant association was found in the occupational status of consumers and the consumption of ready-to-use paste and ready-to-eat meals (Annexure V Table 7 to Table 8).

Therefore the null hypothesis was partially accepted

H_0A_2: There exists no relationship between the consumption pattern of consumers of selected packaged foods (SPFs) and their family variables, namely; (i) family type (ii) family size (iii) family life-cycle stage, and (iv) socio-economic status.

The chi-square test brought forth significant association (0.01 level) between the family type of the consumers and the consumption pattern of ready-to-eat soups, where more number of nuclear families were heavy consumers of ready-to-eat soups. Further, no association was found with respect to ready-to-use pastes and ready-to-eat meals (Table 33) (Annexure V Table 10 to Table 12). The computed 'r' values revealed a significant negative correlation (r=-0.151, 0.05 level) between the family size of the consumers, and the consumption of ready-to-eat meals (Table 32). It implied that small size families were heavy consumers of ready-to-eat meals i.e., they consumed the ready-to-eat meals in large quantity and more frequently, and were using it since a longer duration of time (Annexure V Table 13 to Table 15).

A significant negative correlation (r=-0.216, 0.01 level) was found between the life-cycle stage of the consumers and the consumption of ready-to-eat meals (Table 32). It implied that the consumers in their early stages of family life-cycle consumed the ready-to-eat meals in large quantities and more frequently, and were consuming them since a longer duration of time. Consumption of ready-to-eat meals reduced in the later stages of family life-cycle. No significant relationship was found with respect to ready-to-eat soups and ready-to-use pastes (Annexure V Table 16 to Table 18).

Table 32. Correlation coefficient values for personal and family variables related to consumption pattern of SPFs.

Personal and Family variables	Consumption pattern		
	Ready-to-eat Soups	Ready-to-use pastes	Ready-to-eat Meals
Age	0.106	-0.098	-0.118
Education	0.113	**0.253(**)**	**0.250(**)**
Family size	-0.116	-0.095	**-0.151(*)**
Family life-cycle stage	0.058	-0.099	**-0.216(**)**
Socio-economic status	**.212(**)**	**0.192(**)**	**0.174(**)**

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level

The coefficient of correlation suggested that there existed a significant positive correlation (0.01 level) between the socio-economic status of consumers and the consumption of all three SPFs, i.e., (i) ready-to-eat soups (r=0.212) (ii) ready-to-use pastes (r=0.192), and (iii) ready-to eat meals (r=0.174) (Table 32). It meant that the consumers in the higher socio-economic status were consuming SPFs in large quantity and more frequently, and were using it since a longer duration of time (Annexure Table 19 to Table 21).

The null hypothesis was partially accepted

Table 33. Chi-square values showing the association between consumption pattern of SPFs. with the personal and family variables of consumers

Personal and Family variable	Consumption pattern								
	Ready-to-eat soups			Ready-to-use pastes			Ready-to-eat meals		
	X^2	df	sig	X^2	df	sig	X^2	df	Sig
Occupational status	7.66	2	0.022*	4.356	2	0.113	1.91	2	0.385
Family type	12.78	4	**0.012****	4.840	4	0.304	5.08	4	0.279

The consumption pattern of SPFs was higher amongst consumers who were more educationally qualified, and were gainfully employed. Also the consumption of SPFs was significantly more in nuclear families, small size families, families in the early stages of life, and families who belonged to higher S.E.S. This can be attributed to the various socio-demographics and cultural changes emerging in India. Over the period of time there has been an increase in the dual income families. Most likely, with the increasing number of working women, along with increasing number of working hours, 'time' has become very critical to the working women in order to deal with all the current responsibilities related to their daily lives. Also, the presence of children in the house means more time-pressure, which leads to higher convenience orientation. This could be a probable reason for higher consumption of SPFs. amongst families where the women were gainfully employed. Moreover, the nuclear family set up probably increased the time pressure amongst the women since they were required to single handedly manage the household; thereby opting for SPFs. Other than that factors like rapid growth in the economy in terms of increasing number of middle-class families climbing up the ladder of financial growth, technological innovations in home appliances such as refrigerators, microwave ovens, might be the other reasons for the higher consumption of SPFs amongst the above set of consumers.

The research on consumption pattern of SPFs and its relation with demographics had been an area of interest over past three decades. Researchers have directed their efforts towards explaining differences in consumption of convenience food on the basis of the employment status of the homemaker (Editor & AMA, 1972; Reilly, 1982). However, over a period of time, classifying women's work status into working/non working did not help in explaining differences in consumption; and thereby the researchers began to use other classification schemes. Variables like full-time/part-time/no paid job and high occupational status/low occupational status/non working wife belong to these efforts. These new approaches managed to explain some of the variation in consumption of convenience foods (Schaninger, 1981). However in most cases, socio-demographic characteristics other than wife's occupational status have been found to affect the decision to consume convenience food products in a more systematic way (Nayga and Farooq, 1998; Jae et al., 2000; Newman et al., 2003; Harris and Matthews, 2005).

A study carried out by Botonaki et.al. (2007) attempted to examine the effect of several socio-demographic variables on the convenience food usage, utilizing a sample of Greek consumers. The study found that the respondent's employment status and number of adults in the household was found to have a direct effect on convenience food usage. More specifically, households where members responsible for the food preparation were part time employed used more convenience food products, especially when the number of adults in the household was more than two. The difference in usage increased dramatically when six adults were present in the household. The most intriguing result of this study was lack of a significant effect of the variables of income and perceived money budget on behavior.

Also, Veenma et.al. (1995) attempted to assess determinants of convenience food usage on a sample of 1,783 female housekeepers, studied within the framework of the 1992 Dutch National Food Consumption Survey. Significant effects of socio-demographic were assessed using a covariance structure model. The results indicated that the most important determinants of convenience food usage were socio-economic status (based on the education and occupation of the main wage earner), marital status, employment status, and stage in the family life cycle (composed on the basis of the age of the respondent and (if applicable) the age of the child(ren).

Jae et.al. (2000) used a sample of 39,025 urban families from the 1996 Korean Family Income and Expenditures Survey, to examine the relationship between family characteristics and expenditure on convenience foods. Results indicated that age and education of the family's head, number of children, presence of children under the age of six, the wife's labor force participation, and area of residence were significant in predicting the level of expenditure on convenience foods.

Nayga and Farooq (1998) examined the effect of various factors on the decision to consume convenience meat products. Factors important to the decision by consumers to try convenience meat products were number of adults and children in the household, education level, ownership of a microwave oven, average time to cook dinner, age, and to some extent, income.

Boer et.al. (2002) focuses on the Irish convenience food consumer and investigated four convenience food categories: ready meals, take-away meals, restaurant meals, and pub meals. Within each convenience food category, consumers were segmented based on their level of consumption. The segment with the highest consumption level of convenience foods was compared with the segment with the lowest consumption level on their food-related lifestyles, convenience food-related lifestyles and their beliefs about convenience food. Analysis of data found that the consumption of ready meals and take-away meals was most associated with convenience related dimensions. The effect of lifestyles and beliefs on the purchase of convenience food was examined. Comparison of the regression results across the four convenience food categories highlighted the importance of convenience food-related lifestyle issues in the purchase of ready meals.

Other than demography certain psycho-social attributes have also evolved as factors influencing the consumption of convenience foods. Studies have shown that other variables that have an impact on the decision to consume convenience foods include personal values (Rose, 1995), food related lifestyles (Buckley et al., 2005) perceived healthiness of food (Darian and Cohen, 1995; McCullough et.al., 2003), perceived time shortage (Darian and Cohen, 1995; Ahlgren et. al., 2004; Scholderer and Grunert, 2005), perceived money budget (Scholderer and Grunert, 2005), attitudes on time (Davies and Madran, 1997), joy of cooking (Davies and Madran, 1997), ethnic identity (Laroche et. al., 1998), and situational determinants (Verlegh and Candel, 1999; Ahlgren et. al., 2005; Schöder and McEachern, 2005).

5.2 Findings in relation to Hypothesis B

With reference to Hypothesis 'B', which states that the food shopping-orientation of the consumers of selected packaged foods differs with their (i) personal and (ii) family variables, a null hypothesis was framed with two sub hypotheses focusing on personal and family variables respectively. Analysis of variance and 't-test' was computed to test the significant differences in mean values.

H_0B: The food shopping-orientations (FSOs) of the consumers of selected packaged foods does not differ with their (i) personal and (ii) family variables.

H_0B_1: The food shopping-orientations of the consumers of selected packaged foods does not differ with their personal variables, namely; (i) age (ii) education, and (iii) occupational status.

Analysis of Variance revealed significant differences at 0.05 level in the mean score on quality-conscious FSO of consumers with respect to their age (Table 34). However, the post hoc Scheffe's test was found non-significant (Table 35). In relation to the age of consumers no significant differences were found in mean scores on the other FSOs, namely; convenience FSO, experimental-loyal FSO, explorative FSO, impulsive FSO, price-conscious FSO, and value-for-money FSO.

When the consumers were compared by their education, they were found to be significantly different in their mean scores on price-conscious FSO at 0.0.5 level and value-for-money FSO at 0.001 level (Table 36). The post hoc Scheffe's test was found non-significant with respect to the mean scores on price-conscious FSO (Table 37). However, Post hoc Scheffe's test carried out on education and value-for-money FSO revealed a significant difference at 0.05 level between the consumers with professional degree's and graduate degree's, where the mean score on value-for-money FSO of professional degree holders was higher. No significant difference was found in the mean score on value-for-money FSO of consumers with respect to other education categories. No other significant differences were found in the mean scores on other FSOs of consumers with respect to their education level.

Table 34. Analysis of variance showing differences in the food shopping-orientations of consumers by their age

Food shopping-orientations		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
CFSO	Between Groups	8.170	3	2.72	1.31
	Within Groups	458.559	221	2.08	
ELFSO	Between Groups	29.394	3	9.80	1.29
	Within Groups	1685.495	221	7.63	
EFSO	Between Groups	1.728	3	0.58	0.29
	Within Groups	442.272	221	2.00	
IFSO	Between Groups	19.222	3	6.41	1.18
	Within Groups	1199.640	221	5.43	
PCFSO	Between Groups	6.552	3	2.18	0.48
	Within Groups	1008.088	221	4.57	
QCFSO	Between Groups	20.564	3	6.86	**3.88****
	Within Groups	390.564	221	1.77	
VFMFSO	Between Groups	30.222	3	10.07	2.20
	Within Groups	1013.618	221	4.59	

Key: **significant at 0.01 level
CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation
ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation
IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation
QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Table 35. Scheffe's test showing differences between the mean values on quality-conscious FSO of consumers by their age

Group	Age	Quality-conscious FSO	
		N	Mean
1	Young	75	5.09
2	Young-middle	85	4.86
3	Middle	53	5.51
4	Old	12	4.33
Mean contrast		**Mean difference**	
Young-Young-middle		0.24	
Young-Middle		-0.42	
Young-Old		0.76	
Young-middle – Middle		0.66	
Young-middle-Old		0.53	
Middle –Old		1.18	

Table 36. Analysis of variance showing differences in the food shopping-orientations of consumers by their education

Food shopping-orientations		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
CFSO	Between Groups	8.757	3	2.92	1.41
	Within Groups	457.972	221	2.07	
ELFSO	Between Groups	23.863	3	7.95	1.04
	Within Groups	1691.026	221	7.65	
EFSO	Between Groups	11.630	3	3.88	1.98
	Within Groups	432.370	221	1.96	
IFSO	Between Groups	4.124	3	1.38	0.25
	Within Groups	1214.738	221	5.50	
PCFSO	Between Groups	35.583	3	11.86	**2.68***
	Within Groups	979.057	221	4.43	
QCFSO	Between Groups	.327	3	.11	0.06
	Within Groups	410.802	221	1.86	
VFMFSO	Between Groups	63.670	3	21.22	**4.79****
	Within Groups	980.170	221	4.44	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level
CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Table 37. Scheffe's test showing differences between the mean values on price-conscious FSO and value-for-money FSO of consumers by education

Group	Education	Price-conscious FSO		Value-for-money FSO	
		N	Mean	N	Mean
1	SSC	30	5.37	30	6.47
2	Graduates	123	6.32	123	6.66
3	Post-graduates	43	6.53	43	7.63
4	Professional	29	6.79	29	7.90
Mean contrast		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**	
SSC-Graduates		-0.96		-0.18	
SSC-Post-graduates		-1.17		-1.16	
SSC-Professional		-1.43		-1.43	
Graduates-Post-graduates		-0.22		-0.98	
Graduates-Professional		-0.48		-1.25*	
Post-graduates-Professional		-0.26		-0.27	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level

When the respondents were compared by their occupational status i.e. working or non-working consumers, the 't' test revealed significant differences in the mean score on (i) experimental-loyal FSO (0.01 level) (ii) impulsive FSO (0.001 level) (iii) quality-conscious FSO (0.05 level), and (iv) value-for-money FSO (0.001 level); where the mean scores of working women were higher than the non-working women for experimental-loyal FSO and value-for-money FSO (Table 38). It implied that the working women were more experimental-loyal in their FSO, and were more oriented towards getting value for their money in comparison to the non-working women. The mean scores of non-working women were higher than the working women on impulsive FSO and quality-conscious FSO. It signified that the non-working women were more impulsive and quality-conscious in their FSO than the working women. However, no significant differences were found in the occupational status of the consumers with respect to convenience FSO, explorative FSO, and price-conscious FSO.

Therefore, the null hypothesis was partially accepted

Table 38: 't' test showing differences in food shopping-orientations of consumers by their occupational status

Food shopping-orientations	Mean scores of working women	Mean scores of non-working women	't' value
Convenience-conscious FSO	4.89	4.85	0.18
Experimental-loyal FSO	8.67	8.51	0.41**
Exploratory FSO	4.34	4.55	-1.09
Impulsive FSO	5.58	6.01	-1.36***
Price-conscious FSO	6.74	6.01	2.53
Quality-conscious FSO	4.86	5.19	-1.77*
Value-for-money FSO	7.59	6.59	3.47***

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level ***significant at 0.001 level

H_0B_2: The food shopping-orientations of consumers of selected packaged foods does not differ with their family variables, namely; (i) family type (ii) family size (iii) family life-cycle stage, and (iv) socio-economic status.

Analysis of variance showed that there were no significant differences in the mean scores on any of the seven selected FSOs of consumers with respect to family type and family size (Table 39 and Table 40). The results of ANOVA revealed a significant difference at 0.001 level in the mean scores on value-for-money FSO of consumers in relation to their family life-cycle stage (Table 41). However, the post hoc Scheffe's test was not found to be significant (Annexure V Table 22).

Table 39. Analysis of variance showing difference in the food shopping-orientations of consumers by their family type

Food shopping-orientations		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
CFSO	Between Groups	.010	2	0.01	0.02
	Within Groups	466.719	222	2.10	
ELFSO	Between Groups	7.144	2	3.57	0.46
	Within Groups	1707.744	222	7.69	
EFSO	Between Groups	5.044	2	2.52	1.28
	Within Groups	438.956	222	1.98	
IFSO	Between Groups	27.307	2	13.65	2.54
	Within Groups	1191.555	222	5.37	
PCFSO	Between Groups	21.029	2	10.52	2.35
	Within Groups	993.611	222	4.48	
QCFSO	Between Groups	1.186	2	0.59	0.32
	Within Groups	409.943	222	1.85	
VFMFSO	Between Groups	14.674	2	7.34	1.58
	Within Groups	1029.166	222	4.64	

CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Table 40. Analysis of variance showing difference in the food shopping-orientations of consumers by their family size

Food shopping-orientations		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
CFSO	Between Groups	2.201	11	0.20	0.82
	Within Groups	49.430	202	0.25	
ELFSO	Between Groups	3.581	11	0.33	1.33
	Within Groups	49.541	202	0.25	
EFSO	Between Groups	2.823	11	0.26	1.05
	Within Groups	49.626	202	0.25	
IFSO	Between Groups	2.288	11	0.29	.87
	Within Groups	48.291	202	0.24	
PCFSO	Between Groups	2.938	11	0.27	1.07
	Within Groups	50.263	202	0.25	
QCFSO	Between Groups	1.516	11	0.14	.60
	Within Groups	46.260	202	0.23	
VFMFSO	Between Groups	2.450	11	0.22	1.20
	Within Groups	37.424	202	0.19	

CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation
ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation
IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation
QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Table 41. Analysis of variance showing difference in the food shopping-orientations of consumers by their family life-cycle stage

Food shopping-orientations		Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F
CFSO	Between Groups	4.558	5	0.91	0.43
	Within Groups	462.171	219	2.11	
ELFSO	Between Groups	23.321	5	4.66	0.60
	Within Groups	1691.568	219	7.72	
EFSO	Between Groups	7.364	5	1.47	0.74
	Within Groups	436.636	219	1.99	
IFSO	Between Groups	30.175	5	6.04	1.11
	Within Groups	1188.687	219	5.43	
PCFSO	Between Groups	33.387	5	6.68	1.49
	Within Groups	981.253	219	4.48	
QCFSO	Between Groups	13.709	5	2.74	1.51
	Within Groups	397.420	219	1.81	
VFMFSO	Between Groups	80.834	5	16.17	**3.68****
	Within Groups	963.006	219	4.40	

Key: **significant at 0.01 level

When the respondents were compared on their S.E.S., they were found to be significantly different in their mean scores on (i) price-conscious FSO (0.001 level), and (ii) value-for-money FSO (0.01 level) (Table 42). Post hoc Scheffe's test brought forth that the consumers in the high S.E.S. were significantly different from those in the low S.E.S. on by their price-conscious FSO, where the consumers in the high S.E.S. were found to be more price-conscious in their FSO than the low S.E.S. Post hoc Scheffe's test with regard to value-for-money FSO revealed that the consumers in the high S.E.S. differed significantly at 0.05 level from the consumers in the (i) middle S.E.S, and (ii) low S.E.S. (Table 43), wherein the mean scores of the consumers in high S.E.S. was higher in both the cases. It implied the consumers of high S.E.S. were more oriented towards getting value for their money while shopping for food than the consumers in the middle and low S.E.S. Further, no significant differences were found in the mean scores on the other FSOs, namely; convenience FSO, experimental-loyal FSO, explorative FSO, impulsive FSO, and quality-conscious FSO S.E.S. of consumers by their S.E.S.

Table 42. Analysis of variance showing differences in the food shopping-orientations of consumers by their socio-economic status

Food shopping-orientations		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
CFSO	Between Groups	1.813	2	0.91	0.43
	Within Groups	464.916	222	2.09	
ELFSO	Between Groups	29.190	2	14.60	1.92
	Within Groups	1685.699	222	7.59	
EFSO	Between Groups	2.341	2	1.17	0.59
	Within Groups	441.659	222	1.99	
IFSO	Between Groups	19.312	2	9.66	1.79
	Within Groups	1199.550	222	5.40	
PCFSO	Between Groups	43.822	2	21.91	**5.01****
	Within Groups	970.818	222	4.37	
QCFSO	Between Groups	2.578	2	1.29	0.70
	Within Groups	408.551	222	1.84	
VFMFSO	Between Groups	135.555	2	67.78	**16.57*****
	Within Groups	908.285	222	4.09	

Key: **significant at 0.01 level ***significant at 0.001 level
CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Table 43. Scheffe's test showing significant differences between the mean values on price-conscious FSO and value-for-money FSO of consumers by their socio-economic status

Group	Socio-economic status	Price-conscious FSO		Value-for-money FSO	
		N	Mean	N	Mean
1	Low S.E.S	46	5.67	46	5.74
2	Middle S.E.S	125	6.22	125	6.95
3	High S.E.S	54	6.98	54	8.07
Mean contrast		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**	
Low S.E.S-Middle S.E.S		-0.55		-1.21*	
Low S.E.S-High S.E.S		-1.31*		-2.33*	
Middle S.E.S-High S.E.S		-0.76		-1.12*	
High S.E.S-Middle S.E.S		0.76		1.12*	

Key: * significant at the 0.05 level

Therefore, the null hypothesis was partially accepted

In the present study, the professionally qualified consumers were found to be more oriented towards value-for-money than the graduates. The working women were observed to be more experimental-loyal in their FSO, and were more oriented towards value for their money while shopping for food. On the contrary, the non-working women were more impulsive, and more quality-conscious in their FSO. However, no significant differences were found in the seven selected FSOs with respect to age. With regard to family attributes, the study brought forth that the respondents in the high S.E.S. were more price-conscious and more oriented to get the value for their money. However, the present study did not reveal any significant differences in the FSOs of the consumers with respect to their family type, family size, and family life-cycle stage.

Sinha (2003) mentioned that the studies on shoppers in India have largely been limited to their time and money spending patterns, demographic profile, and preferences for a particular format, but it has been found in the studies in other countries that shoppers do not differ much in terms of their demographic profile. Amongst all the demographic variables undertaken for the study purpose; three attributes, namely; education level, occupational status, and socio-economic-status were found to have contributed to the differences in selected FSOs of consumers. However, attributes like age, family type, family size, and family life-cycle stage of consumers were not found to have any significance in understanding their FSOs. The above findings are partially in tune with what Sinha had opined about the role of demography in understanding shopper's behavior. However, it was felt that this kind of relational dependency can also be product specific; like in the present case, where packaged foods was the focus, certain demographic aspects like education level, occupational status and S.E.S do play a role.

It can be reasoned out that probably the working women had greater exposure to the outer world; via, going to places, interactions with professional and social groups etc; which gave them more scope for openness to new ideas and products. Also, experimentation with novel food products possibly fulfilled their need to maintain the emulative tendency to be in tune with others, and the current market trends. Moreover, in the quest to fulfill their family goals, career goals and other personal interests; they probably were under higher work pressure and were constantly faced with time shortage. Thus, they were more open to explore and experiment with different types of convenience foods. Further, they themselves were earning, they probably had a better understanding of the worth of money they earned, which justified their value-for-money orientation. In contrast, the non-working women most likely had their entire focus on serving quality food to their family; and their strong emotional bent for family might have led them to take decisions in impulse while shopping for quality food.

The review of literature did not show many studies directly related to food shopping- orientation and demographic aspects of a consumer; however, researches were found concentrating on related aspects like shopping behavior, shopping goals, and shopping decision making styles. The ensuing paragraphs bring forth the research work of other researchers that have thrown light on the significance of consumers' demographic profile in their shopping behavior.

A study carried out by Patel (2008) investigated the consumer decision making style in a shopping mall, and the variations across demographic variables like gender, age, education, marital status, and income. Significant differences were found in the age of the consumers with respect to recreational orientation, where the young consumers between age group of 11 to 20 years were most recreational in their shopping. With regard to the marital status of consumers, it was found that single consumers were more price conscious than married consumers.

Another study carried out by Roberts (1979) derived three basic shopping goals labeled as 'concern about time', 'concern about price', and 'concern about quality', and found that there were only few correlations between the demographics and shopping goals and behavior. The 'concern for time' factor was demographically independent, while 'concern for price' factor correlated with lower occupational status of the husband, lower family income, and older respondents. 'Concern for quality' was reflected amongst older respondents and those with no plans for future employment. The present study also attempted to derive a relationship between age and concern for quality, but the relationship was not found significant.

Occupational status of the women i.e., in terms of working and non-working women, has been area of interest for researches related to consumer shopping-orientation or behavior. Satow (1977) classified 1,680 women as full-time housewives or working women, and then sub-classified working women as either 'satisfaction seekers' (carrier oriented) or 'income seekers' (working out of necessity). The full-time homemakers were found to be most likely to use a list when shopping for

groceries and to economize in the supermarket. The income seeker were concerned about nutrition, but reported the highest usage of convenience foods. The satisfaction seekers were the most active, liberal, and modern. They indulged in more impulse buying. In contradiction, the non-working women in the present study were found to be more impulsive in their FSO.

The finding of the present study where the working women were found to be more experimental-loyal, is in line with the findings of Editor & AMA (1972) who found that working women were more likely to be store loyal, shop only one day of the week, shop in the evening, consult advertising for special buying, and take a list to the store. Anderson (1972) also found that the working women made fewer shopping trips, were less likely to patronize neighborhood supermarkets, and were more brand loyal then their non-working counter parts.

Jackson (1985) compared the responses of working and housewife's to several food shopping and preparation related psychographic statements and found that working wives tend to display a greater dislike for food shopping and cooking than did housewives. Working wives and housewives exhibited significantly different psychographic characteristics in some areas related to time-saving and time-buying activities and food preparation related family centeredness. Housewives seemed to feel a greater concern for the familial aspects of food shopping and preparation. However, for the two factors viz, novelty in cooking, and financial concern in food buying, responses by housewives and working wives were not significantly different.

A study carried out by Roberts (1979) used the lifestyle variables as predictors of food shopping behavior. Factor analysis of food shopping behavior produced three factors, namely; preplanning split (list making behavior), price minimization split (save money by use of coupons), and empirical split (attention to point of sale information). The 'preplanning' factor correlated with the presence of teenagers and with the absence of children under age six in the household. The 'price minimization' correlated with relatively low family income and older respondents. The 'empirical' factor correlated only with income.

5.3 Findings in relation to Hypothesis C

Hypothesis 'C', states that there exists a relationship between the food shopping-orientations of consumers and their psychographic variables, namely; (i) lifestyle orientations (ii) personality traits (iii) market beliefs (iv) attitude, and (v) perceived risks in the purchase and consumption of SPFs. The following null hypothesis with five sub-hypotheses, each focusing on one psychographic variable, were framed. The hypothesis was tested using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients.

H_0C: There exists no relationship between the food shopping-orientations of consumers and their psychographic variables, namely; (i) lifestyle orientations (ii) personality traits (iii) market beliefs (iv) attitude, and (v) perceived risks in the purchase and consumption of SPFs.

H_0C_1: There exists no relationship between the food shopping-orientations of consumers and their lifestyle orientations.

Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients were computed between the seven food shopping-orientations (FSO) and six lifestyle (LS) orientations. The seven FSOs included the convenience food shopping-orientation, experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation, explorative food shopping-orientation, impulsive food-shopping-orientation, price-conscious food shopping-orientation, quality-conscious food shopping-orientation, and value-for-money food shopping-orientation. The six selected lifestyle included the green-orientation LS, innovative-orientation LS, nutrition-orientation LS, service-role-orientation LS, socially-outgoing LS, and trend-conscious LS.

Convenience food shopping-orientation

A significant positive correlation existed between the convenience FSO and green-orientation LS ($r=0.396$, 0.01 level), innovative-orientation LS ($r=0.225$, 0.01 level), nutrition-orientation LS ($r=0.276$, 0.01 level), and service-role-orientation LS ($r= 0.169$, 0.05 level). It brought forth that the consumers who were more green-oriented, more innovatively-oriented, more nutritionally-oriented, and more service

role-oriented in their lifestyle were higher on convenience FSO. On the other hand, the consumers who were less green-oriented, less innovatively-oriented, less nutritionally-oriented, and less service role-oriented in their lifestyle were lower in their convenience FSO (Table 44).

Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation

The coefficient of correlation suggested that there existed no significant relationship between experimental-loyal FSO and the six selected lifestyles of the consumers of SPFs (Table 44).

Table 44. Correlation coefficient values for lifestyle orientations of consumers related to food shopping-orientations

Lifestyle Orientations	Food shopping-orientations						
	CFSO	**ELFSO**	**EFSO**	**IFSO**	**PCFSO**	**QCFSO**	**VFMFSO**
Green-orientation LS	**0.396(**)**	0.067	-0.024	-0.106	-0.073	**0.264(**)**	0.099
Innovative-orientation LS	**0.225(**)**	-0.060	**0.157(*)**	0.087	**-0.264(**)**	0.079	**-0.152(*)**
Nutrition-orientation LS	**0.276(**)**	-0.015	0.128	-0.162(*)	-0.044	**0.248(**)**	0.068
Service-role orientationLS	**0.169(*)**	-0.090	0.089	-0.094	-0.002	**0.159(*)**	**-0.186(**)**
Socially-outgoing LS	0.086	0.040	-0.012	0.147(*)	**-0.356(**)**	-0.037	**-0.314(**)**
Trend-conscious LS	-0.056	-0.083	**0.203(**)**	0.118	**-0.267(**)**	0.049	**-0.291(**)**

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level
CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation
ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation
IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation
QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation
LS : Lifestyle

Explorative food shopping-orientation

Product moment correlation computed between the explorative FSO and the lifestyle orientations of the consumers revealed a significant positive relationship between the explorative FSO and innovative-orientation LS (r= 0.157, 0.05 level), and tend-conscious LS (r= 0.203, 0.01 level). It indicated that the consumers who were more innovative and more trend-conscious in their lifestyle orientations were higher in their explorative FSO, and vice-versa (Table 44).

Impulsive food shopping-orientation

The impulsive FSO was found to have a significant positive relationship with socially-outgoing LS (r=0.147, at 0.05 level). Further, impulsive orientation had a significant negative association with nutrition-orientation LS (r= -0.162, 0.05 level). It implied that the consumers who were more socially-outgoing lifestyle and less oriented towards nutrition in their lifestyle, were more impulsive in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table 44).

Price-conscious food shopping-orientation

The price-conscious FSO was found to have a significant negative correlation with innovative-orientation LS (r= -0.264, 0.01 level), socially-outgoing LS (r= -0.356, 0.01 level), and trend-conscious LS (r= -0.267, 0.01 level). It meant that the consumers who were more innovative in their lifestyle orientation, more socially-outgoing, and more trend-conscious in their lifestyle were less price-conscious in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table 44).

Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation

The computed 'r' values revealed a significant positive relationship between the quality-conscious FSO and the green-orientation LS (r=0.264, 0.01 level), nutrition-orientation LS (r= 0.248, 0.01 level), and service-role-orientation LS (r= 0.159, 0.05 level). It indicated that the consumers who were higher in their green-orientation, service role-orientation, and nutrition-orientation lifestyle were more quality-conscious in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table 44).

Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Computation of 'r' values revealed a significant negative relationship between value-for-money FSO and innovative-orientation LS (r= -0.152, 0.05 level), service-role-orientation LS (r= -0.186, 0.01 level), socially-outgoing LS (r= -0.0314, 0.01 level), and trend-conscious LS (r= -0.291, 0.01 level). It signified that the consumers who were less innovative, less socially-outgoing, and less trend-conscious in their lifestyle were more inclined to seek value for their money while shopping for food, and vice-versa (Table 44).

Thus, the null hypothesis was partially accepted.

The correlations carried out between the seven FSOs and six selected LS brought forth three basic trends in relationships. Firstly, the study revealed that the consumers who were characterized of being less innovative, less socially-outgoing, and less trend-conscious in their lifestyle were price-conscious, and were oriented towards value-for-money while shopping. Such consumers were not much inclined to experiment with unusual meals and were not very open to novel ideas. They were the consumers who had lesser propensity to follow the constantly changing trends and fashions, and did not believe in the fancies of the world. In their day-to-day life, they were less likely to socialize or interact with people, and were more restricted to themselves. Since they reflected minimum socialization in their lifestyle, they might not have felt the need to be up-dated and in tune with the changing trends. Such a lifestyle highly correlated with their food shopping-orientation wherein; they valued economy and did not find it worth while to spend money on novelty and fashion.

Secondly, the consumers who were more innovative and more trend-consciousness in their lifestyle were more explorative in their FSO. It was found that the consumers who had a more modern and outgoing approach towards life, those who were innovative in their lifestyle, reflected a tendency to explore for newest ideas and the most up-to-date food products while shopping.

Thirdly, the study brought forth that the consumers who were more green-oriented, more nutritionally-oriented, and more service role-oriented in their lifestyle were more quality-conscious and convenience-oriented in their FSO. It implied that the consumers who were predisposed towards the nutritional aspects of food, who followed a health-conscious lifestyle, and were inclined towards consuming natural and fresh food products were more conscious about the quality of food. It can be reasoned out that, a lifestyle of this kind attributed towards quality-consciousness amongst the consumers, wherein they made attempts to go through the details of the product which they selected, in terms of the ingredients, presence or absence of preservatives, presence of additional nutrients or natural food ingredients etc. Their concerns about the environment safety and protection issues made them select the finest quality natural products. A similar quality-consciousness was also observed amongst consumers who had greater inclination to work towards serving their family. Further, high convenience FSO of the consumers with nutrition-oriented, green-oriented and service-role-oriented lifestyle can be justified with the notion that since a lot of efforts of these consumers went into identifying quality and nutritious food products, preparing and serving their family, they probably had less time available to go on leisure shopping. Thus, they preferred to have timeliness for shopping, and were interested in finishing their shopping in the fastest and most convenient fashion.

Buckley (2005) investigated the degree to which food-related lifestyle (FRL) segments are convenience-oriented. Investigation of convenience attitudes and purchase behavior for convenience foods found that three of the six identified FRL segments were convenience-oriented. Differences between segments, relating to the quality aspects, were also found.

Roberts (1979) studied the meal preparation and food shopping strategies of women with traditional role and contemporary role orientation. The study brought forth the finding that the traditional orientation correlated positively with concern for quality, and negatively with concern for time, and vice-versa. This implied that women, who were oriented towards traditional roles, did not cook for pleasure. Instead, they cooked because they had a sense of responsibility to provide satisfaction and nutritious meals for their families. A similar quality consciousness was also observed amongst the consumers with nutrition-orientation, green-orientation and service-role-orientation in the present study, wherein they revealed a strong concern for serving nutritional and quality meals for the family.

However, the fact that traditional role orientation of the women in Roberts study showed a negative correlation with concern for time, refutes with the findings of the present study, where the latter indicated service-role lifestyle correlated positively with both quality-conscious and convenience-oriented FSO. The two studies reflect the change in orientation of the women over the last three decades. Quality was the concern of the women in the earlier decades, but they were not much concerned about saving time. However, in the present times women are not only inclined towards quality, but also towards saving time. The women in today's era, whether working or non-working, wants to provide the best quality of life to her family, and at the same time she intents to pursue her career goals, if employed, and if not gainfully employed, wants to concentrate on her other personal interests. Therefore, time becomes a very crucial resource for them, and their efforts are directed towards adopting ways that would save on time and energy, so that they can create an optimal balance, between their personal and family goals. Botonaki (2007) found that consumers who were convenience orientated towards meal preparation, food consumption and clearing up move to more frequent usage of convenience food products.

Davies (1997) stated that food shopping and meal preparation are two related activities which involved a significant consumption of time. The researcher investigated three different aspects of people's attitudes towards food shopping and preparation: an enjoyment of cooking; and a traditional orientation and a modern (role-sharing) attitude to the linked activities. Two clearly defined groups were identified. No differences between the groups existed on demographic factors such as age, gender, whether the respondent had paid work and housing type. No differences existed in their ownership of time-saving consumer durables. One group clearly saw mealtimes as significant activities and found cooking enjoyable. It did not matter whether the people in this group were time-pressured or not - they chose to allocate time to these activities and they differed in their attitudes to time. A substantial group in society still does see food shopping and meal preparation as important activities. Contends that while such individuals may be subject to modern-day pressures, they still appear to organize their time to maintain a traditional perspective.

H_0C_2: There exists no relationship between the food shopping-orientations of consumers and their personality traits.

Pearson's product moment Correlation coefficients was computed between the seven food shopping-orientations (FSOs) and five selected personality traits, namely, openness-to-change, reasoning, rule-consciousness, social-boldness, and vigilance.

Convenience food shopping-orientation

A significant positive relationship was found between the convenience FSO and the social-boldness personality trait of the consumers of SPFs (r= 0.139, 0.05 level). It implied that the social-boldness of the consumers contributed positively to the convenience FSO of the consumers. The consumers with high social-boldness were more oriented towards convenience while shopping for food, and vice-versa (Table 45).

Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation

A significant positive association was found between the experimental-loyal FSO and the reasoning personality trait of the consumers (r= 0.135, 0.05 level). It indicated that the reasoning ability of the consumers attributed to the experimental-loyal FSO of the consumers in a significantly positive fashion, wherein, the consumers with high reasoning ability tend to be more experimental-loyal in their orientation while shopping for food, and vice-versa (Table 45).

Explorative food shopping-orientation

No significant relationships were found between explorative FSO and any of the five selected personality traits (Table 45).

Impulsive food shopping-orientation

The impulsive FSO of the consumers correlated negatively with the social-boldness personality trait of the consumers (r= -0.171, 0.05 level). It signified that the consumers high on their social-boldness were less impulsive in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table 45).

Table 45. Correlation coefficient values for personality traits of consumers related to food shopping-orientations

Personality traits	Food shopping-orientations						
	CFSO	ELFSO	EFSO	IFSO	PCFSO	QCFSO	VFMFSO
Openness-to-change	-0.112	0.078	-0.002	-0.121	0.077	**0.203(**)**	0.060
Reasoning	-0.100	**0.135(*)**	-0.097	0.017	**0.238(**)**	-0.040	0.090
Rule-consciousness	0.046	0.089	-0.006	-0.116	**0.205(**)**	0.009	**0.156(*)**
Social-boldness	**0.139(*)**	0.052	0.087	**-0.171(*)**	0.069	0.090	0.046
Vigilance	0.058	-0.080	-0.098	0.028	**0.155(*)**	-0.040	-0.117

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level

CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation
ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation
IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation
QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Price-conscious food shopping-orientation

Price-conscious FSO was found to have a significant positive relationship with the reasoning personality trait (r=0.238, 0.01 level), rule conscious personality trait (r=0.205, 0.01 level), and vigilance personality trait (r=0.155, 0.05 level). It meant that the consumers high on their reasoning ability, rule-consciousness, and vigilance were more price-conscious in their orientation while shopping for food, and vice-versa (Table 45).

Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation

The computed 'r' values revealed significant positive relationship between quality-conscious FSO and the openness-to-change personality trait (r= 0.203, 0.01 level). It implied that the openness-to-change personality trait contributed positively to the quality-conscious orientation while shopping for food. That is the consumers who were more open towards change were more quality-conscious in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table 45).

Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Product moment correlation computed between the value-for-money FSO and rule-consciousness personality trait revealed a significant positive relationship between the two variables (r=0.156, 0.05 level) i.e., the consumers with high rule-consciousness were more oriented to get value for their money while shopping for food, and vice-versa (Table 45).

Therefore, the null hypothesis was partially accepted.

Overall, the relationship between the five selected personality traits and the seven FSO directed towards three prominent results. Firstly, the consumers who were high in their reasoning ability, rule-consciousness, and vigilance were more price-conscious. Also, the consumers high on rule-consciousness were more oriented towards value-for-money. It can be reasoned out that the consumers who were high in their reasoning and vigilance might be more analytical about the price of the products in the market. Their tendency to critically evaluate and rationalized their purchase made them very restrictive about spending money; and therefore they had a price-conscious disposition. Moreover, because of their disciplined nature they did not opt for extravagant expenditure, thus they probably were constantly on a look out for cost-to-product ration and were oriented towards getting value for money in their purchases.

Secondly, the consumers who were high in their social-boldness personality trait were more oriented towards convenience while shopping, but were less impulsive in their shopping-orientation. These were individuals who were extroverts, socially-outgoing and communicative. Their confident and bold personality probably made them fearless in the new or intimidating market settings, which refrained them from making impulsive decisions. Thirdly, the consumers who were more open-to-change were more quality- conscious. This could be due to the fact that the willingness of these consumers to tryout and experiment new products made them investigate the market around them. Further, this might have acted as a factor which made them more aware about the various aspects of the products like its ingredients, associated benefits etc, and this in turn made them quality-conscious.

Other than this no other predictable results have evolved in a patterned fashion between the selected personality traits and FSOs. It might be because the relationship between FSO and personality traits also involved probable interactions amongst traits and the influence of many other factors. Though not much work has been carried out in the field of food shopping-orientation and personality, studies have been identified with respect to consumer behavior at large and personality.

Different researchers have studied different personality traits in their respective context. Robertson (1969) studied the relationship of standardized personality variables namely self-acceptance, communality, and socialization to two consumers' behavior characteristics i.e. innovativeness and opinion leadership. Innovativeness in appliances was found to be positively correlated with self-acceptance and communality, and negatively correlated with socialization. Innovativeness in clothing correlated somewhat with sociability, while food innovativeness correlated somewhat with communality. None of the basic personality variables related substantially to opinion leadership for any of the product areas studied. Thus, though little predictive tendency existed between personality and innovativeness, hardly any such tendency existed between personality and opinion leadership.

Further, Sparks (1971) using canonical analysis of the relationship of personality traits to products use patterns suggested that the association was significant and complex, involving probable interactions among traits. The results showed that early fashion adopters were those particular sociable, who were also emotionally stable and also somewhat irresponsible. The personality characteristics of late fashion adopters were sociability, cautiousness, and emotional instability. Results showed not a simple connection between sociability and early fashion adoption, but a more complex one in which sociability combined with emotional stability and irresponsibility is oriented towards one sort of action, while sociability with emotional instability and cautiousness is oriented towards its opposite. The association of identical personality traits with diverse consumer behavior suggested that trait interactions or nonlinear relationships may compose a significant portion of the personality- behavior relation.

Numerous researchers have made efforts to relate consumers' personality characteristics to their consumption behavior. However, in most cases the relationships evolved have often been so abstract that they could not be used with confidence in making real-world marketing decisions. In commenting on researchers' inability to discover relations between personality traits and brand loyalty, Cunningham (1967) said 'Perhaps the psychological measures must be tailored to purchasing behavior rather than to traditional psychological measures'. Apparently, a growing number of researchers feel, similarly, that the problems in using personality measures as predictor of buying behavior are caused by inadequate measuring instruments and inappropriate constraints. They see personality as situational, not pervasive, and argue that standard personality measures, designed for clinical diagnostic purposes, should not be used without considering their relationship to the marketplace.

H_0C_3: There exists no relationship between the food shopping-orientations of consumers and their market beliefs.

Theories in the area of beliefs and behavior are inadequately developed to predict the precise direction and extent of influence of beliefs on behavior, it may be expected on the basis of various cognitive consistency theories that, at a minimum, behavior will be logically consistent with belief. Pearson's product moment correlations were computed between the seven food shopping-orientations and all the 16 market beliefs. The 16 market beliefs of the consumers were studied with respect to four aspects namely brand beliefs, product beliefs, sales and advertisement beliefs, and store beliefs. The findings of the study have also been presented in the same sequence.

Convenience food shopping-orientation

The computed 'r' values revealed a significant positive correlation between convenience FSO and brand belief that the best brands are the ones that are purchased the most (r= 0.145, 0.05 level). A significant positive relationship was found between the convenience orientation and the product beliefs that (i) large size of SPFs are cheaper than small size packets (r=0.138, 0.05 level) (ii) SPFs being a new concept

are expensive (r=0.433, 0.01 level) (iii) prices of SPFs will settle as time goes by (r=0.142, 0.05 level), and (iv) SPFs with synthetic ingredients are lower in quality (r=0.142, 0.05 level).

Convenience FSO correlated positively with store beliefs that locally owned grocery stores provide more personalized services (r= 0.201, 0.01 level), and salespeople in big stores are more knowledgeable (r=0.141, 0.05 level). However, a significant negative correlation was found between convenience FSO and the store belief that credit and return policies are lenient at large stores (r= -0.203, 0.01 level). A significant negative relationship was found between convenience FSO and the sales and advertisement beliefs that discount coupons represent real saving for the customers (r=-0.159, 0.05 level), and the department stores that constantly have sales, don't really save money (r= -0.171, 0.05 level) (Table 46).

Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation

The computed 'r' value revealed a positive significant relationship between experimental-loyal FSO and sales and advertisement belief that when you buy heavily advertised product you are paying for the label not for higher quality (r=0.226, 0.01 level). Further, the experimental-loyal FSO correlated positively with store belief that credit and return policies are lenient at large stores (r=0.201, 0.01 level) (Table 46).

Explorative food shopping-orientation

Explorative FSO was positively associated with brand belief that all brands are basically the same (r= 0.145, 0.05 level), and store belief that the best brands are the ones that are purchased the most (r= 0.165, 0.05 level) (Table 46).

Impulsive food shopping-orientation

Impulsive food shopping-orientation was found to have a significant positive relationship with sales and advertisement belief that the department stores that constantly have sales, don't really save money (r= 0.193, 0.01 level) (Table 46).

Table 46. Correlation coefficient values for market beliefs related to food shopping-orientations of the consumers

Market beliefs	Food shopping-orientations						
	CFSO	**ELFSO**	**EFSO**	**IFSO**	**PCFSO**	**QCFSO**	**VFMFSO**
Brand beliefs							
When in doubt, it is safe to go with one's usual brand	0.020	-0.015	-0.114	-0.008	**-0.304(**)**	-0.036	**-0.279(**)**
When in doubt, it is always safe to go with a Indian brand.	-0.005	-0.066	0.126	0.006	**-0.230(**)**	-0.003	**-0.235(**)**
The best brands are the ones that are purchased the most.	**0.145(*)**	-0.103	**0.165(*)**	0.018	-0.081	0.059	**-0.178(**)**
All brands are basically the same.	0.055	0.113	**0.145(*)**	-0.120	0.029	**0.136(*)**	0.100
Product beliefs							
Large size packets are cheaper than , small-size packets.	**0.138(*)**	0.004	-0.095	-0.043	**0.239(**)**	-0.024	**0.145(*)**
SPFs being a new concept are expensive.	**0.433(**)**	0.120	-0.057	0.034	**-0.221(**)**	-0.146(*)	-0.062
Prices of SPFs will settle down as time goes by.	**0.142(*)**	0.042	-0.006	0.103	-0.051	-0.033	-0.096
SPFs with synthetic ingredients, are lower in quality than	**0.142(*)**	0.042	-0.006	0.103	-0.051	-0.033	-0.096

Cont...

Cont...

Sales and adv beliefs							
Discount coupons represent real savings for the customers.	**-0.159(*)**	0.102	0.100	0.085	-0.013	**-0.143(*)**	0.109
Higher prices, generally indicate higher quality.	0.025	-0.084	0.118	0.004	**-0.166(*)**	-0.001	**-0.381(**)**
When you buy heavily advertised product, you are paying for the label not for higher quality.	-0.039	**0.226(**)**	-0.025	0.087	**0.144(*)**	**-0.294(**)**	**0.255(**)**
The department stores that constantly have sales, don't really save money.	**-0.171(*)**	-0.001	0.075	**0.193(**)**	-0.112	0.106	**-0.193(**)**
Store beliefs							
Store character is reflected in its window display.	0.060	-0.085	0.059	-0.060	-0.102	-0.003	0.003
Locally owned grocery stores provide more personalized services.	**0.201(**)**	0.107	0.075	0.066	-0.073	**0.133(*)**	-0.109
Salespeople in big stores are more knowledgeable	**0.141(*)**	-0.015	-0.017	0.042	.018	-0.063	0.017
Credit and return policies are lenient at large stores.	**-0.203(**)**	**0.201(**)**	-0.030	0.016	0.128	-0.068	**0.176(**)**

Key: *significant at 0:05 level **significant at 0.01 level
CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Price-conscious food shopping-orientation

A significant positive correlation existed between price-conscious FSO and product belief that large size packets are cheaper than small-size packets (r=0.239, 0.01 level), and a negative association with product belief that SPFs being a new concept are expensive (r= -0.221, 0.01). Price-conscious FSO had a significant positive correlated with sales and advertisement belief that when you buy heavily advertised product you are paying for the label not for higher quality (r=0.144, 0.05 level). When the 'r' values were computed between price-conscious FSO and brand beliefs a significant negative relation was found with respect to the beliefs like (i)when in doubt it is safe to go with one's usual brand (r=-0.304, 0.01 level) (ii) when in doubt it is always safe to go with a Indian brand (r=-0.230, 0.01 level) (iii) higher prices generally indicate higher quality (r=-0.166, 0.05 level) (Table 46).

When the 'r' values were computed, a significant negative relation was found between price-conscious FSO and brand beliefs like (i) when in doubt it is safe to go with one's usual brand (r=-0.304, 0.01 level), (ii) when in doubt it is always safe to go with a Indian brand (r=-0.230, 0.01 level), (iii) higher prices generally indicate higher quality (r=-0.166, 0.05 level) (Table 46).

Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation

Product moment correlation computed revealed a significant positive relationship between the quality-conscious FSO and brand belief that all brands are basically the same (r= 0.136, 0.05 level). The computed 'r' values revealed a positive correlation between the quality-conscious FSO and store belief like (i) locally owned grocery stores provide more personalized services (r=0.133, 0.05 level). A negative significant correlation was found between quality-conscious FSO and sales and advertisement beliefs that (i) discount coupons represent real savings for the customers (r=-0.143, 0.05 level), and (ii) when you buy heavily advertised product you are paying for the label not for the quality (r=-0.294, 0.01 level) (Table 46).

Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Value-for-money FSO was found to have a significant positive relation with the product belief that (i) large size packets are cheaper than small-size packets (r=0.145, 0.05 level), and a negative relationship with product belief that (i) higher prices generally indicate higher quality (r=-0.381, 0.01 level). A positive correlation existed between value-for-money FSO and sales and advertisement belief that (i)

when you buy heavily advertised product you are paying for the label not for higher quality (r= 0.255, 0.01 level). Further, it was also seen that a positive correlation existed between the value-for-money FSO and store belief that (i) credit and return policies are lenient at large stores (r= 0.176, 0.01 level). Value-for-money FSO correlated negatively with store belief like (i) the department stores that constantly have sales, don't really save money (r=-0.193, 0.01 level). However, value-for-money FSO correlated negatively with brand beliefs that (i) when in doubt it is safe to go with one's usual brand (r=-0.279, 0.01 level) (ii) when in doubt it is always safe to go with a Indian brand (r=-0.235, 0.01 level), and (iii) the best brands are the ones that are purchased the most (r=-0.178, 0.01 level) (Table 46).

The results of the present study with regard to the relationship between market beliefs and food shopping-orientations of consumers brought forth that the consumers who had strong market beliefs with respect to the product price and restricted brand appeal were more price-conscious and oriented towards value-for money while shopping. Such consumers believed that (i) when you buy heavily advertised products you are paying for the label, not for higher quality (ii) large size packets are cheaper than small size packets; and did not believe that (i) it is safe to go with one's usual brand, and (ii) when in doubt it is always safe to go with a Indian brand. The study also revealed that the consumers who were stronger in their beliefs with respect to product price and quality were more convenience-oriented in their FSO. Such consumers believed that (i) large size packets are cheaper than small-size packets (ii) SPFs being a new concept are expensive (iii) prices of SPFs will settle down as time goes by, and (iv) SPFs with synthetic ingredients are lower in quality. Further, the consumers who believed that locally owned grocery stores provide more personalized services were more convenience-oriented and quality-conscious, while the consumers who were of the belief that discount coupons represent real saving were less convenience-oriented and less quality conscious. These market beliefs can be assumed to influence the consumers and their behaviors in the market at large.

Many researchers have studied the beliefs of the consumers, with one or other product specific aspect. Worsely (2005) examined consumers' beliefs about organic foods and their relationship with socio-demographics and self-transcendence (universal, benevolence) personal values. The findings revealed that majority of participants believed organic food to be healthier, tastier and better for the

environment than conventional food. However, expense and lack of availability were strong barriers to the purchasing of organic foods. Generally, women were more positive about organic food than men (e.g. women were more likely to agree that organic food has more vitamins/minerals than conventional food). The personal value factor related to nature, environment and equality was the dominant predictor of positive organic food beliefs, followed by sex.

Poulsen (1999) examined Danish consumers' beliefs that they associated with enrichment of functional foods (a dairy product and a bread product), and that influence and determine consumers' purchasing intentions. The focus-group interviews showed that the main beliefs which consumers associate with functional foods were the inconvenience of enrichment through daily diet, (un)naturalness, apprehension about changes in taste, higher price, uncertainty about belief in the effect of enrichment, dosage (when is there enough/ too much of the enrichment substance), own ignorance and uncertainty about manufacturers' knowledge of the health effects of eating enriched products.

With the aim to find out the barriers in the increases of fruit and vegetable (F&V) intakes, Cox (1998), studied the belief measures of the consumers on aspects like health, cost, taste, etc., also the attitude of the consumers, and predictors of intention were focused. The study found that the belief measures were strongly associated with overall attitudes which were reported as being largely favorable towards fruit, vegetables and, to a lesser extent, vegetable dishes, and were strongly associated with reported intention to increase consumption.

A survey by Duncan (1982) of 164 recent purchasers of color television sets showed that consumer beliefs about the marketplace and about their capabilities as consumers, accounted for 50 per cent of the variance in extent of external search. Also, the type of brand (domestic, foreign, or private) and the type of store (national, regional, or local) considered by a consumer were found to be significantly related to the beliefs held.

H_0C_4: There exists no relationship between the food shopping-orientations of consumers and their attitude towards SPFs.

In the present research the attitude of the consumers towards SPFs was assessed with respect to the advantages, characteristics, economy, health and hygiene, and consequence of use of SPFs. Also, the overall attitude towards SPFs was studied. The correlations between the seven FSOs and attitude towards SPFs have been explained below.

Convenience food shopping-orientation

A significant negative correlation was found between convenience FSO and the consumers attitude towards the economy aspect (r= -0.162, 0.05 level), and health and hygiene aspect of SPFs (r=-0.203, 0.01 level). It indicated that the consumers who opined that the SPFs were not very healthy and considered them to be expensive, were more convenience-oriented while shopping for food, and vice-versa (Table 47).

Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation

Product moment correlation computed between the experimental-loyal FSO and the attitude of the consumers correlated negatively with respect to the advantages of SPFs (r=-0.186, 0.01 level), characteristics of SPFs (r=-0.178, 0.01 level), health and hygiene of SPFs (r= -0.220, 0.01 level), and consequence of use SPFs (r=-0.308, 0.01 level). Further, a significant negative relationship was found between the experimental-loyal FSO and the overall attitude towards SPFs (r=-0.299, 0.01 level). It implied that the consumers who had a negative attitude towards the advantages, characteristics, health and hygiene, and consequence of use of SPFs, were more experimental-loyal in their food shopping-orientation. However, the consumers who had a positive attitude towards the above mentioned aspects of SPFs were less experimental-loyal in their FSO (Table 47).

Explorative food shopping-orientation

The computed 'r' values revealed a significant positive correlation relationship between explorative FSO and the consumer's attitude towards the characteristics of SPFs (r=0.136, 0.01 level). However, the explorative FSO correlated negatively with

the consumers attitude towards the economy aspect of SPFs (r=-0.177, 0.01 level). It implied that the consumers who had a more positive attitude towards the characteristics of SPFs, were more explorative in their FSO, while, the consumer who had a more negative attitude towards the economy aspect of SPFs, were less explorative in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table).

Impulsive food shopping-orientation

No significant correlation was found between the impulsive FSO and the consumers attitude towards SPFs (Table 47).

Price-conscious food shopping-orientation

A significant negative relationship was found between the price-conscious FSO and the advantages of SPFs (r=-0.171, 0.05 level), characteristics of SPFs (r=-0.199,0.01 level), and consequence of use of SPFs (r=-0.159, 0.05 level). Further, the price-conscious FSO also correlated negatively with the overall attitude of the consumers towards SPFs (r=-0.171, 0.05 level). It meant that the consumers who had a negative attitude towards SPFs with respect to its advantages, characteristics, and consequence of use, were more price-conscious in their FSO. Conversely, the consumers who had a positive attitude towards the advantages, characteristics, and consequence of use of SPFs, were less price-conscious in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table 47).

Table 47. Correlation coefficient values for attitude towards SPFs related to food shopping-orientations of the consumers

Attitude	Food shopping-orientations						
	CFSO	ELFSO	EFSO	IFSO	PCFSO	QCFSO	VFMFSO
Advantages	0.046	**-0.186(**)**	0.087	0.051	-0.171(*)	0.013	**-0.410(**)**
Characteristics	-0.047	**-0.178(**)**	**0.136(*)**	0.069	**-0.199(**)**	0.017	**-0.295(**)**
Economy	**-0.162(*)**	-0.033	**-0.177(**)**	0.025	-0.128	-0.038	0.034
Health and hygiene	**-0.203(**)**	**-0.220(**)**	-0.029	0.044	-0.002	-0.074	-0.121
Consequence	-0.046	**-0.308(**)**	0.091	0.056	**-0.159(*)**	0.031	**-0.238(**)**
Overall	-0.117	**-0.299(**)**	0.062	0.072	**-0.171(*)**	-0.011	**-0.302(**)**

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level ***significant at 0.001 level
CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation

No significant relationship was found between the quality-conscious FSO and the consumers attitude towards SPFs (Table 47).

Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Significant negative correlation was found between the value-for-money FSO and consumers attitude towards the advantages of SPFs (r= -0.410, 0.01 level), characteristics of SPFs (r=-0.295, 0.01 level), and consequence of use of SPFs (r=-0.238, 0.01 level). A significant negative relationship was also found between the value-for-money FSO and the overall attitude of the consumers towards SPFs (r= -0.302, 0.01 level). It implied that the consumers, who opined that SPFs were very advantageous, possessed many good characteristics, and had beneficial consequences, were less oriented towards value-for-money in their FSO. However, the consumers, who did not had a positive attitude towards the SPFs, were high on their value-for-money FSO (Table 47).

Thus, the null hypothesis was partially accepted

In view of the consumers' attitude towards selected aspects of SPFs, it was found that the consumers who overall had a favorable attitude towards the SPFs with reference to aspects like the advantages, characteristics, and consequences of use of SPFs, were less price-conscious, less oriented towards value-for-money, and less experimental-loyal in their food shopping-orientation. The reason for this might be that since, as consumers, they were convinced with the advantages, characteristics, and associated consequences with the use of SPFs; they did not mind spending money on purchase of SPFs and they found the purchase to be a value-for-money deal. However, in the present study, the consumers having favorable attitude towards SPFs did not reveal any enthusiasm to experiment with the product.

In the process of gathering research literature for the present, the researcher did not come across any studies that explored relationships between attitude and shopping-orientation. However, it was found that numerous researches have been carried out in the past two decades on studying attitude of consumers with respect to

various other aspects of consumer behavior. Each of these researches had different perspective ranging from exploratory to affirmation of existing knowledge to marketing. Fazio et.al. (1989) focused upon the relation between attitude accessibility from the memory and product selection behavior, and the results indicated that attitude accessibility from the memory moderated the attitude behavior relation. Bredahl, (2001) investigated the formation of consumer attitudes across countries, towards genetic modification in food production and of purchase decisions with regard to genetically modified yoghurt and beer. The results indicated that the Italian consumers turned out to be significantly less negative towards genetic modification in foods than particularly Danish and German consumers.

Burton et.al. (2001) studied UK consumer's attitude to genetically modified organisms (GMOs) in food and the extent to which these attitudes translate into willingness to pay to avoid these products. The results indicated significant differences between attitudes to GM food in which plants were modified by the introduction of genes from other plants and those in which plants were modified by the introduction of genes from animals and plants. Further, Poulsen (1999) examined Danish consumers' attitudes to functional foods, and found that attitudes towards concrete examples of functional foods were much more positive than attitudes to the concept of functional foods. Magnuson et.al. (2001) reported demographic differences with respect to Swedish consumers' attitudes towards organic foods (milk, meat, potatoes, bread), purchase frequency, purchase criteria, perceived availability, and beliefs about organic foods.

Chetthamrongchai and Davis (2000) investigated the potential for time allocation theory to provide the necessary theoretical underpinning. It argued that attitudes to time underpin attitudes to time-consuming activities such as food shopping. An instrument was developed to measure five time attitudes (past, present and future orientation, time pressure and succession), and five shopping attitudes (apathy, convenience, enjoyment, shopping as a routine activity and as an event), and it was found that attitudes to time contribute more frequently in describing actual behavior than other types of variable. Chen (2009) viewed consumer behavior and

attitude on a very different level, where he studied the effect of country-of-origin (COO), and consumer patriotism on young generation's attitude toward American products with multi-attributes: across different cultures and different product categories. The study found that both Taiwanese and Indonesian cases show that country-of-origin (COO) had a significantly positive effect on the attitude toward American-made products.

H_0CI_5: There exists no relationship between the food shopping-orientations of consumers and the perceived risk.

In the present research the perceived risk in purchase and consumption of SPFs was studied with respect to five types of risks, namely; financial risk, functional risk, physiological risk, psychological risk, and social risk. The overall risk involved in the purchase and consumption of SPFs was also assessed. Correlation coefficients were computed between the seven food shopping–orientations and the five types of perceived risks.

Convenience food shopping-orientation

No significant relationship was found between convenience FSO and any of the five risks perceived in the purchase and consumption of SPFs (Table 48).

Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation

Product moment correlation computed revealed a significant negative correlation between experimental-loyal FSO and psychological risk (r=-0.187, 0.01 level) associated with the purchase and consumption of SPFs. It meant that the consumers who perceived more psychological risk in the purchase and consumption of SPF's were less experimental-loyal in their FSO, and vice-versa. It implied the consumers who perceived that serving SPFs did not match self-image and carried the burden of guilt while serving the SPFs to their family members were lesser oriented towards experimentation, and vice-versa (Table 48).

Explorative food shopping-orientation

Explorative FSO was found to have a significant positive relation with the psychological risk (r= 0.199, 0.01 level) involved in the purchase and consumption of SPFs. It implied that consumers who perceived higher psychological risk in the purchase and consumption of SPFs, were more explorative in their FSO (Table 48).

Table 48. Correlation coefficient values for perceived risks related to food shopping-orientations of the consumers

Perceived risks	Food shopping-orientations						
	CFSO	ELFSO	EFSO	IFSO	PCFSO	QCFSO	VFMFSO
Financial	0.107	-0.012	0.028	-0.109	-0.126	0.046	-0.134(*)
Functional	0.029	0.008	0.009	-0.019	-0.048	**0.150(*)**	-0.080
Physiological	0.014	0.055	-0.088	-0.026	**0.291(**)**	**-0.138(*)**	**0.309(**)**
Psychological	-0.013	**-0.187(**)**	**0.199(**)**	0.020	**-0.155(*)**	0.048	**-0.231(**)**
Social	0.017	-0.115	0.044	**0.189(**)**	**-0.375(**)**	0.052	**-0.515(**)**
Overall	0.058	-0.105	0.073	0.036	**-0.158(*)**	0.052	**-0.260(**)**

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level
CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Impulsive food shopping-orientation

The impulsive FSO of the consumers correlated positively with social risk (r=0.189, 0.01 level) associated with the purchase and consumption of SPFs. It meant that the consumers who perceived higher social risk in the purchase and consumption of SPF's, were more impulsive in their FSO. It implied that the consumers who perceived that the society will think less of them if they will serve the SPFs to their family were impulsive shoppers, and vice-versa (Table 48).

Price-conscious food shopping-orientation

The computed 'r' values revealed a significant positive correlation between price-conscious FSO and physiological risk (r=0.291, 0.01 level) involved in the purchase and consumption of SPFs. Further, a significant negative relationship was found between price-conscious FSO and the psychological risk (r= -0.155, 0.05 level), social risk (r=-0.375, 0.01 level), and the overall risk (r= -0.158, 0.05 level) perceived in the purchase and consumption of SFPs. It indicated that the consumers who perceived higher physiological risk i.e. higher health concerns involved in consuming SPFs, were more price-conscious in their FSO. However, the consumers who associated high psychological risk, social risk, and overall risk involved in the purchase and consumption of SPFs were less price-conscious in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table 48).

Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation

Product moment correlation computed revealed a significant positive relationship between quality-conscious FSO and the functional risk (r=0.150, 0.05 level) involved in the purchase of SPF. Further, a significant negative relationship was found between the quality-conscious FSO and physiological risk (r=-0.138, 0.05 level) involved in the purchase and consumption of SPFs. It indicated that the consumers who perceived higher functional risk and had the fear of failure of the product, in terms of the expected outcome were more quality-conscious in their FSO, and vice-versa. Conversely, the consumers who perceived higher physiological risk i.e., were less quality-conscious in their FSO, and vice-versa (Table 48).

Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Value-for-money correlated positively with the physiological risk (r=0.309, 0.01 level) associated with the consumption of SPFs. However, it associated negatively with financial risk (r= -0.134, 0.05 level), psychological risk (r=-0.231, 0.01 level), social risk (r=-0.515, 0.01 level), and overall risk (r=-0.26, 0.01 level) perceived in the purchase and consumption of SPFs. It signified that the consumers who perceived higher physiological risk in the consumption of SPFs, were more concerned about value-for-money while shopping for SPFs. Moreover, the consumers who perceived higher financial risk, psychological risk, social risk, and overall risk in the purchase and consumption of SPF's, were less oriented towards value-for-money while shopping for food, and vice-versa (Table). It indicated that the consumers who perceived that the consumption of SPFs will cause harm to the health of their family member, were more oriented towards value-for-money while shopping for food. On the contrary, the consumers who perceived that the price of the SPFs was not worth the amount of money spend on them and the quantity in return, who carried a burden of guilt while serving SPFs to their family members, and who thought that there relatives and friends will not appreciate the use of SPFs were less oriented towards value-for-money while shopping for food, and vice-versa (Table 48).

The null hypothesis was partially accepted.

The present study brought forth that the consumers who perceived higher psychological risk were less experimental-loyal in their orientation. They were the consumers who were not comfortable with the idea of serving SPFs to their family. For them serving SPFs to the family members did not match with their self-image of being an ideal wife/mother. Probability because of this psychological burden of guilt they were not whole-heartedly open to the consumption of SPFs, and thus were not willing to experiment with new varieties/ brands of SPFs. Hoover (1978) carried out a study on similar lines where he found that there exhibited a strong, though a non-linear positive relationship between perceived risk and brand-loyalty.

The current study also found that the consumers, who perceived more physiological risk, were more price-conscious and more oriented towards value-for-money while shopping. This can also be interpreted vice-versa, indicating that since as consumers they were confident that the SPFs will not cause any harm to the health of the family members, they were comfortable purchasing them, considered them to be value-for money deal and did not mind paying for it. The findings of the present study are in line with the study carried out by Hammitt (1990) who studied consumer choice between organically and conventionally grown produces, and found that individuals who purchase organically grown produce believe it was substantially less hazardous than the conventional alternative and were willing to pay significant premiums to obtain it (a median 50 per cent above the cost of conventional produce). The value of risk reduction implied by this incremental willingness to pay was not high relative to estimates for other risks, since the perceived risk reduction was relatively large. Schiffman and Kanuk (1972) examined actual purchase behavior and used perceived error tolerance as a specific measure of broad and consistent consumer risk policies. The study found an inverse association between the perceived health risk and trial of the new salt substitute.

With respect to the present study the consumers who perceived more financial risk were less oriented towards value-for-money while shopping for food, and vice-versa. It implied that the consumers who perceived less financial risk in the purchase of SPFs probably found the cost-to-benefit ratio of SPFs higher, and thus they perceived that the purchase of SPFs was a value-for- money deal. The case may be the

other way round for the consumers who perceived more financial risk. The present finding can be supported by the research work of Sweeney (1999), who studied the role of perceived risk within a model of the antecedents and consequences of perceived value. Empirical results confirmed that not only do perceived product and service quality lead to perceived value for money in a service encounter, but that these quality components reduce perceived risk. Perceived risk was found to play an important role in the perceived product and service quality-value for money relationship and was found to be a significant mediator of this relationship. Perceived value for money was also found to be a significant mediator of perceived quality, price and risk, and willingness-to-buy.

The present study found that consumers who perceived high functional risk associated with the purchase and consumption of SPFs. were more quality-conscious in their orientation. This can be due to the fact that they associated a fear of failure of the product in terms of its expected outcome referring to the quality, taste, color, consistency etc., This fear probably made them probe into accessing the product for its quality. A study by Tsiotsou (2006) found that the perceived quality of sport shoes, that was used as the product being researched had a direct and an indirect effect (through overall satisfaction) on purchase intentions. The overall satisfaction had a direct effect on purchase intentions, and involvement had an indirect effect on purchase intentions through overall satisfaction and perceived quality.

Although, no significant relationships were found between any of the risk and convenience orientation and experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation in the present study but the research work of Dabhade (2008) in this regard did reveal significant relations. Dabhade studied the relationship between older consumers' beliefs regarding online shopping risks and benefits and their attitude towards online purchase of apparel products. A significant relationship was revealed between older consumers' convenience seeking orientation and perceived time, and convenience risk; and that between their brand consciousness orientation and perceived hedonic enjoyment benefit of online apparel shopping. In addition, older consumers' time and convenience risk had a negative influence on attitude toward purchasing apparel online.

On similar line Kwon (1991) investigated how catalog and non-catalog shoppers perceived the risks involved in purchasing apparel from catalogs. The principal components analysis revealed four types of perceived risks-financial risk, social risk, functional risk, and time risk. The results indicated that non-catalog shoppers showed higher levels of risk perceptions of financial, social, functional, and time risks than did the catalog shoppers.

Further, the research work of Mitchell (1992), aimed to highlight the use of Perceived Risk Theory in understanding and influencing consumers' behavior. Recent evidence from numerous food scares and product recalls have demonstrated the power of perceived risk on consumption patterns. Mitchell argued that perceived risk is so important to consumers' thinking that all managers should at least be aware of its existence. Chaudhuri (1997) studied how is emotion in the consumption experience linked to perceived risk? The author postulated that negative emotions were positively related to perceived risk and positive emotions were negatively related. The results of two macro-analytic studies were reported in this regard. Study 1 suggested that emotional factors account for a significant and substantial portion of the variance in perceived risk even after the effects of other factors (product involvement and perceived differences between alternatives) are taken into account. In study 2, it was found that perceived risk mediates the effect of negative emotion and perceived differences on brand loyalty and information search.

5.4 Findings in relation to Hypothesis D

This section contains observations made in relation to the testing of hypothesis and discussion related to the differences amongst the three identified clusters, namely; beginners, sporadic consumers, and dependable consumers, with regard to the selected attributes of the consumers. Hypothesis 'D', states that there exists differences amongst the three identified clusters of consumers of RES with regard to their (i) background characteristics (ii) food shopping-orientation, and (iii) psychographic attributes. In order to test the hypothesis statistically, null hypothesis were formulated. ANOVA and chi-square test were computed for the selected variables.

H_0D: There exists no difference in the (i) background characteristics (ii) food shopping-orientation, and (iii) psychographic attributes of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

H_0D_1: There exists no difference in the background characteristics, namely; (i) age (ii) education level (iii) occupational status (iv) family type (v) family size (vi) family life-cycle stage, and (vii) socio-economic status of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

In order to study the differences amongst the three identified clusters of consumers of RES with regard to their background characteristics ANOVA and chi-square test were applied. Analysis of Variance revealed significant differences at 0.001 level in the mean scores on (i) education (ii) family size, and (ii) S.E.S. of the three identified clusters (Table 49). Post hoc Scheffe's test brought forth significant differences at 0.05 level in the mean scores on education, family size and S.E.S. between the beginners and dependable consumers. The mean value on family size of the beginners was higher as compared to the dependable consumers; while, the case was vice-versa with regard to education and S.E.S. (Table 50). However, no significant differences were found in the mean values of the age and family life-cycle stage of the consumers with respect to the cluster distribution (Table 49). Chi-square test was carried out to test the significant association amongst the three identified clusters with regard to (i) occupational status and (ii) family type of the consumers. The data brought forth significant association between the cluster distribution with regard to education (0.001 level) and family type (0.05 level) (Table 51).

The above data implied that the beginners were less educationally qualified, mainly had large families and were comparatively lower in their S.E.S., while the dependable consumers were more educationally qualified, had relatively smaller families and were comparatively higher in their S.E.S. It also was found that the dependable consumers had the prominence of working-women and nuclear families visa-vise beginners (Annexure IV Table 4 and Table 5)

Thus, the null hypothesis was partially accepted

Table 49. Analysis of variance showing differences in the background characteristics of consumers of ready-to-eat soups amongst the three clusters

Background characteristics		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Age	Between Groups	176.715	2	88.36	1.12
	Within Groups	16664.169	211	78.98	
Education	Between Groups	11.845	2	5.92	**8.46*** **
	Within Groups	147.799	211	0.70	
Family size	Between Groups	38.829	2	19.42	**6.39*** **
	Within Groups	641.624	211	3.04	
FLCS	Between Groups	1.290	2	.65	0.24
	Within Groups	557.028	211	2.64	
S.E.S.	Between Groups	520.879	2	260.44	**7.94*** **
	Within Groups	6920.116	211	32.80	

Key: ***significant at 0.001 level FLCS: Family life cycle stage

Table 50. Scheffe's test showing significant differences between mean values on education, family size, and S.E.S. amongst the three clusters

Group	Cluster	Education		Family size		S.E.S.	
		N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
1	Beginners	120	2.14	120	4.59	120	28.79
2	Seldom consumers	38	2.26	38	4.39	38	30.13
3	Dependable consumers	56	2.70	56	3.59	56	32.48
Mean contrast		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**	
Beginners-seldom consumers		-0.12		0.20		-1.33	
Beginners-dependable consumers		-0.56(*)		1.00(*)		-3.69(*)	
Seldom consumers-dependable consumers		-0.43		0.81		-2.35	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level

Table 51. Chi-square values showing the association amongst the three clusters in relation to the occupational status and family type of consumers of ready-to-eat soups

Background characteristics	Cluster distribution		
	X^2	df	Sig
Occupational status	11.27	2	0.001***
Family type	13.36	4	0.005**

H_0D_2: There exists no difference in the food shopping-orientations of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

When compared by their FSO, Analysis of variance revealed that the three identified clusters were significantly different in their mean values on (i) price-conscious FSO (0.05 level) (ii) quality-conscious FSO (0.05 level), and (iii) value-for-money FSO (0.001 level) (Table 52). Post hoc Scheffe's test revealed a significant difference (0.05 level) between beginners and dependable consumers, where the mean scores on price-conscious FSO of the dependable consumers was higher. Post hoc Scheffe's test carried out with respect to value-for-money FSO revealed a significant difference (0.05 level) between beginners and sporadic consumers, where the mean scores of sporadic consumers was higher (Table 53). It implied that the dependable consumers were significantly more price-conscious than the beginners, and the sporadic consumers were significantly more oriented towards value-for-their money, when compared to the beginners. However, the Post- hoc test was not found to be significant with respect to quality-conscious FSO. No significant differences were found with respect to the other FSOs, namely; convenience FSO, experimental-loyal FSO, explorative FSO, and impulsive FSO.

Therefore, the null hypothesis was partially accepted

Table 52. Analysis of variance showing difference in the food shopping-orientations of consumers of ready-to-eat soups amongst the three clusters

Food shopping-orientations		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
CFSO	Between Groups	1.618	2	0.81	0.38
	Within Groups	446.719	211	2.12	
ELFSO	Between Groups	12.427	2	6.21	0.80
	Within Groups	1648.695	211	7.81	
EFSO	Between Groups	5.957	2	2.98	1.49
	Within Groups	420.754	211	1.99	
IFSO	Between Groups	2.975	2	1.49	0.27
	Within Groups	1156.277	211	5.48	
PCFSO	Between Groups	29.621	2	14.81	3.24*
	Within Groups	962.403	211	4.56	
QCFSO	Between Groups	12.168	2	6.08	3.33*
	Within Groups	385.159	211	1.83	
VFMFSO	Between Groups	63.982	2	31.99	7.13***
	Within Groups	946.452	211	4.49	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level ***significant at 0.001 level
CFSO :Convenience food shopping-orientation ELFSO : Experimental-loyal food shopping-orientation
EFSO :Explorative food shopping-orientation IFSO : Impulsive food shopping-orientation
PCFSO : Price-conscious food shopping-orientation QCFSO : Quality-conscious food shopping-orientation
VFMFSO : Value-for-money food shopping-orientation

Table 53. Scheffe's test showing significant differences between mean scores on price-conscious FSO, quality-conscious FSO, and value-for-money FSO amongst the three clusters

Group	Cluster	Price-conscious FSO		Quality-conscious FSO		Value-for-money FSO	
		N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
1	Beginners	120	6.01	120	5.26	120	6.52
2	Sporadic consumers	38	6.40	38	4.81	38	7.97
3	Dependable consumers	56	6.89	56	4.76	56	7.16
Mean contrast		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**	
Beginners-Sporadic consumers		-0.37		0.45		-1.44(*)	
Beginners-Dependable consumers		-0.87(*)		0.49		-0.63	
Sporadic consumers-Dependable consumers		-0.49		0.05		0.81	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level

H_0D_3: There exists no difference in the psychographic attributes, namely; (i) lifestyle orientations (ii) personality traits (iii) market beliefs (iv) attitude, and (iv) perceived risk of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

$H_0D_{3.1.}$: There exists no difference in the lifestyle orientations of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

The analysis of variance brought forth significant differences in the mean scores on nutrition-orientation lifestyle (0.01 level) and service-role orientation lifestyle (0.05 level) of the consumers amongst the three identified clusters (Table 54). Post hoc Scheffe's test brought forth significant differences at 0.01 level in the mean scores on nutrition-orientation LS between the beginners and dependable consumers, where the mean scores of beginners was found to be higher (Table 55). It meant that the beginners were significantly more nutritionally-oriented then the dependable consumers. The Post hoc Scheffe's test was not found to be significant with respect to service-role orientation LS. However, the data did not reveal any significant differences with regard to other lifestyle orientations, namely; green-orientation LS, innovative-orientation LS, socially-outgoing LS, and trend-conscious LS.

Therefore, the null hypothesis was partially accepted

Table 54. Analysis of variance showing difference in lifestyle orientations of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups amongst the three clusters

Lifestyle orientations		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Green-orientation	Between Groups	2.178	2	1.09	.33
	Within Groups	700.499	211	3.32	
Innovative-orientation	Between Groups	22.735	2	11.37	1.99
	Within Groups	1201.714	211	5.70	
Nutrition-orientation	Between Groups	60.434	2	30.22	5.71**
	Within Groups	1116.799	211	5.29	
Service role-orientation	Between Groups	34.976	2	17.49	2.99*
	Within Groups	1235.174	211	5.85	
Socially-outgoing	Between Groups	13.051	2	6.53	1.95
	Within Groups	705.776	211	3.35	
Trend-conscious	Between Groups	23.700	2	11.85	2.85
	Within Groups	876.076	211	4.15	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level ***significant at 0.001 level

Table 55. Scheffe's test showing significant differences between mean values on nutrition-orientation lifestyle and service-role-orientation lifestyle amongst the three clusters

Group	Cluster	Nutrition-orientation		Service-role orientation	
		N	Mean	N	Mean
1	Beginners	120	9.58	120	12.70
2	Sporadic consumers	38	9.39	38	12.53
3	Dependable consumers	56	8.34	56	11.75
Mean contrast		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**	
Beginners-Sporadic consumers		0.19		0.17	
Beginners-dependable consumers		1.24(*)		0.95	
Sporadic consumers-dependable consumers		1.06		-0.78	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level

$H_0D_{3.2.}$: There exists no difference in the personality traits of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

The computation of ANOVA revealed no significant differences amongst the three clusters with respect to all the five selected personality traits (Table 56).

Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 56. Analysis of variance showing significant difference in the personality traits of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups amongst the three clusters

Personality traits		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Openness-to- change	Between Groups	5.844	2	2.92	0.93
	Within Groups	665.184	211	3.15	
Reasoning	Between Groups	7.585	2	3.79	1.14
	Within Groups	700.513	211	3.32	
Rule-consciousness	Between Groups	13.133	2	6.57	1.57
	Within Groups	883.876	211	4.19	
Social-boldness	Between Groups	18.310	2	9.16	1.63
	Within Groups	1183.769	211	5.61	
Vigilance	Between Groups	15.721	2	7.86	2.08
	Within Groups	798.302	211	3.78	

$H_0D_{3.3.}$: There exists no difference in the market beliefs of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

The computation of ANOVA on the 16 market beliefs of the consumers amongst the three identified clusters brought forth significant differences in their mean scores on the following market beliefs (i) when in doubt, it is safe to go with one's usual brand of RES (0.05 level) (ii) all brands of RES are basically the same (0.001 level) (iii) RES being a new concept, are more expensive (0.01 level) (iv) the prices of RES will settle down as time goes by (0.05 level) (v) RES having synthetic

ingredients are lower in quality than those having natural ingredients (0.05 level) (vi) discount coupons received during the previous purchase represent real saving (0.01 level) (vii) when you buy heavily advertised RES you are paying for the label, not for higher quality (0.001 level) (Table 57).

The Post hoc Scheffe's test revealed significant differences in the mean scores on the market beliefs that (i) all brands of RES are basically the same, and (ii) discount coupons received during the previous purchase represent real saving, at 0.05 and 0.01 level respectively, between the beginners and sporadic consumers, where the mean scores of the sporadic consumers was higher. The Post hoc Scheffe's test with respect to the belief that RES being a new concept are more expensive, significant differences were found between beginners and dependable consumers at 0.01 level, where the mean scores of dependable consumers were higher. The Post hoc Scheffe's test with regard to the belief that when you buy heavily advertised RES, you are paying for the label not for higher quality, differed significantly at 0.01 level between the (i) beginners and sporadic consumers (ii) beginners and dependable consumers. The mean scores of beginners, sporadic consumers and dependable consumers were 1.97, 2.55 and 2.39 respectively (Table 58).

Thus, the null hypothesis was partially accepted.

Table 57. Analysis of variance showing difference in the market beliefs of the consumers of ready-to-eat soups amongst the three clusters

Market beliefs		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F
When in doubt, it is safe to go with one's usual brand of RES	Between Groups	5.923	2	2.96	3.48*
	Within Groups	179.390	211	0.85	
	Total	185.313	213		
When one is in doubt about a brand of RES it is always safe to go with a Indian brand.	Between Groups	4.159	2	2.08	2.51
	Within Groups	174.574	211	0.83	
	Total	178.734	213		
The best brands of RES are the ones that are purchased the most.	Between Groups	3.206	2	1.60	2.75
	Within Groups	123.098	211	0.58	
	Total	126.304	213		
All brands of RES are basically the same.	Between Groups	6.943	2	3.47	3.89*
	Within Groups	187.997	211	0.89	
	Total	194.939	213		
Large size packets of RES are cheaper than small-size packets.	Between Groups	1.297	2	0.65	1.11
	Within Groups	123.283	211	0.58	
	Total	124.579	213		
RES being a new concept are more expensive.	Between Groups	5.787	2	2.89	4.90**
	Within Groups	124.516	211	0.59	
	Total	130.304	213		
The prices of RES will settle down as time goes by.	Between Groups	3.343	2	1.67	3.23*
	Within Groups	109.236	211	0.52	
	Total	112.579	213		
RES having synthetic ingredients are lower in quality than those having natural ingredients.	Between Groups	3.343	2	1.67	3.23*
	Within Groups	109.236	211	0.52	
	Total	112.579	213		

Market beliefs		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F
Discount coupons received during the previous purchase/ newspaper cutting/ credit card statement/ etc, represent real savings for the customers.	Between Groups	9.097	2	4.55	5.52**
	Within Groups	173.987	211	0.83	
	Total	183.084	213		
Within a given store, higher prices of RES generally indicate higher quality.	Between Groups	.110	2	0.06	0.07
	Within Groups	165.708	211	0.79	
	Total	165.818	213		
When you buy heavily advertised RES you are paying for the label not for higher quality.	Between Groups	12.846	2	6.42	7.90***
	Within Groups	171.677	211	0.81	
	Total	184.523	213		
The department stores that are constantly having sales, don't really save you money.	Between Groups	2.576	2	1.29	1.95
	Within Groups	139.237	211	0.66	
	Total	141.813	213		
A store character is reflected in its window display.	Between Groups	.238	2	0.12	0.14
	Within Groups	184.720	211	0.88	
	Total	184.958	213		
Locally owned grocery stores provide more personalized services.	Between Groups	.162	2	0.08	0.11
	Within Groups	153.987	211	0.73	
	Total	154.150	213		
Salespeople in big department stores are more knowledgeable about the various products then the sales personnel in local grocery stores.	Between Groups	.474	2	0.24	0.36
	Within Groups	140.797	211	0.67	
	Total	141.271	213		
Credit and return policies are most lenient at large department stores.	Between Groups	.893	2	0.45	0.76
	Within Groups	123.448	211	0.59	
	Total	124.341	213		

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level ***significant at 0.001 level

Table 58. Scheffe's test showing significant differences between mean values on selected market beliefs amongst the three clusters

Group	Cluster	When in doubt, it is safe to go with one's usual brand of RES		All brands of RES are basically the same.		RES being a new concept, are more expensive.		The prices of RES will settle down as time goes by.		RES having synthetic ingredients are lower in quality, than those having natural ingredients.		Discount coupons received during the previous purchase/		When you buy heavily advertised RES you are paying for the label, not for higher quality.	
		N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
1	Beginners	120	1.94	120	1.82	120	2.43	120	2.51	120	2.51	120	1.81	120	1.98
2	Sporadic consumers	38	2.29	38	2.29	38	2.68	38	2.71	38	2.71	38	2.37	38	2.56
3	Dependable consumers	56	2.27	56	1.82	56	2.80	56	2.79	56	2.79	56	1.91	56	2.39
Mean contrast		**Mean Difference**		**Mean Difference**		**Mean Difference**		**Mean Difference**		**Mean Difference**		**Mean Difference**		**Mean Difference**	
Beginners-Sporadic consumers		-0.35		-0.47 (*)		-0.25		-0.20		-0.20		-0.56 (**)		-0.58(**)	
Beginners-dependable consumers		-0.33		-0.004		-0.37 (**)		-0.28		-0.28		-0.10		-0.42(**)	
Sporadic consumers-dependable consumers		0.02		0.47		-0.12		-0.08		-0.08		0.46		0.16	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level

$H_0D_{3.4.}$: There exists no difference in the attitude of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

The Analysis of variance with respect to the attitude of the consumers amongst the three identified clusters brought forth significant differences in their mean scores on the following aspects of attitude (i) advantages (0.001 level) (ii) characteristics (0.01 level) (iii) health and hygiene (0.05 level) (iv) consequences (0.0001 level), and (v) the overall attitude (0.0001 level) (Table 59).

The post hoc Scheffe's test was found to be significant with respect to all the above at 0.05 level (Table 60). With respect to advantages of RES, significant differences were found between beginners and dependable consumers, where the mean scores of beginners was higher. In reference to characteristics, significant differences were found between (i) beginners and sporadic consumers (ii) beginners and dependable consumers, where the mean scores of beginners were higher in both the cases. With regard to the health and hygiene and consequences of the use of RES, significant differences were found in the mean scores of beginners and dependable consumers, where the mean scores of beginners was found to be higher in both the cases. Significant differences at 0.05 level were found in the mean scores on the overall attitude between (i) beginners and sporadic consumers (ii) beginners and dependable consumers, where the mean scores of beginners was higher (Table 60).

Thus, overall it can be concluded that the beginners held a significantly more positive attitude towards the advantages of RES, characteristics of RES, health and hygiene aspect of RES, consequences of the use of RES, and overall attitude towards RES as compared to sporadic consumers and dependable consumers.

Hence, the null hypothesis was partially accepted.

Table 59. Analysis of variance showing significant differences in the attitude of consumers of ready-to-eat soups amongst the three clusters

Attitude		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Advantages	Between Groups	86.521	2	43.26	10.57***
	Within Groups	863.928	211	4.09	
Characteristics	Between Groups	123.284	2	61.64	7.04**
	Within Groups	1848.416	211	8.76	
Economy	Between Groups	2.171	2	1.09	0.70
	Within Groups	325.460	211	1.54	
Health	Between Groups	95.419	2	47.71	3.13*
	Within Groups	3219.534	211	15.26	
Consequences	Between Groups	452.782	2	226.39	12.21***
	Within Groups	3913.522	211	18.55	
Overall attitude	Between Groups	2475.298	2	1237.65	11.70***
	Within Groups	22327.020	211	105.82	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level **significant at 0.01 level ***significant at 0.001 level

Table 60. Scheffe's test showing differences in the mean scores on attitude of consumers of RES by the three clusters

Group	Cluster	Advantage		Characteristics		Health		Consequences		Total	
		N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
1	Beginners	120	22.97	120	20.63	120	17.68	120	18.74	120	82.69
2	Sporadic consumers	38	21.39	38	19.18	38	17.32	38	17.21	38	77.50
3	Dependable consumers	56	21.98	56	19.05	56	16.11	56	15.32	56	75.04
Mean contrast		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**	
Beginners-Sporadic consumers		1.57(*)		1.45(*)		0.37		1.53		5.19(*)	
Beginners-dependable consumers		0.98(*)		1.58(*)		1.58(*)		3.42(*)		7.66(*)	
Sporadic consumers-dependable consumers		-0.59		0.13		1.21		1.89		2.46	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level

$H_0D_{3..5}$: There exists no difference in the perceived risk of consumers of RES amongst the three identified clusters.

Analysis of variance revealed significant differences at 0.05 level amongst the three identified cluster with respect to their mean scores on (i) financial-risk (ii) physiological-risk, and (iii) psychological-risk. The Post hoc Scheffe's test carried revealed that with respect to financial-risk significant difference at 0.05 level were found between (i) beginners and dependable consumers (ii) sporadic consumers and dependable consumers, were the mean scores of dependable consumers was higher in both the cases (Table 61). It implied that the dependable consumers perceived higher financial-risk in the purchase and consumption of RES.

In relation to physiological-risk, the Post hoc Scheffe's test revealed significant difference at 0.05 level between the beginners and sporadic consumers, were the mean values of sporadic consumers was higher (Table 62). It implied that the sporadic consumers perceived higher physiological risk. However, the Post hoc Scheffe's test revealed no significant differences amongst the three identified clusters with respect to psychological-risk .

Thus, the null hypothesis was partially accepted.

Table 61. Analysis of variance showing significant difference in the risk perceived in the purchase and consumption of RES by the consumers amongst the three clusters

Perceived risks		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F
Financial risk	Between Groups	3.819	2	1.91	4.60*
	Within Groups	87.681	211	0.42	
Functional risk	Between Groups	.464	2	0.23	0.41
	Within Groups	119.316	211	0.57	
Physiological risk	Between Groups	5.605	2	2.80	3.53*
	Within Groups	167.465	211	0.79	
Psychological risk	Between Groups	4.506	2	2.25	3.90*
	Within Groups	121.942	211	0.58	
Social risk	Between Groups	6.110	2	3.06	4.34
	Within Groups	148.493	211	0.70	
Overall risk	Between Groups	.977	2	0.49	1.21

Key: *significant at 0.05 level

Table 62. Scheffe's test showing differences between the mean values on the risk perceived in the purchase and consumption of RES by consumers amongst the three clusters

Group	Cluster	Financial Risk		Physiological risk		Psychological risk	
		N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
1	Beginners	120	2.45	120	2.03	120	2.56
2	Sporadic consumers	38	2.34	38	2.47	38	2.26
3	Dependable consumers	56	2.71	56	2.13	56	2.27
Mean contrast		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**		**Mean difference**	
Beginners-Sporadic consumers		0.11		-0.44*		0.30	
Beginners-dependable consumers		-0.26*		-0.09		0.29	
Sporadic consumers-dependable consumers		-0.37*		0.35		-0.004	

Key: *significant at 0.05 level

Over the last two decades various consumer behavior studies have focused on market segmentation as a way of looking at the consumer. Researchers have segmented consumers by using cluster analysis or discriminant analysis, and have focused on various products like grocery, consumption pattern, diet pattern apparel, traveling pattern, etc. Attempts have been made to segment the consumers on the basis of various attribute(s) like: (i) shopping-orientation (ii) demographics (iii) patronage behavior (iv) store attributes (v) information sources (vi) lifestyle activity (vii) profession etc. Attempts have also been made to profile the consumers, and derive differences in the consumer segments on the basis of these attributes.

Shim et.al.(1998), did a segmentation analysis of grocery shoppers, evolved four segments, and profiled them with respect to store attribute evaluations, media usage, and level of involvement. The study found that demographic characteristics were not significantly related to the four grocery shopping segments. Akin

et.al.(1986) developed a classification scheme for differentiating individuals into groups that had similar patterns of food consumption. Cluster analysis was used to identify the food consumption patterns of persons aged 65 through 74 years. The study found that two socioeconomic factors, namely; ethnic group membership and residence status, were most important factors that associated with differences in the food patterns

Shim and Kotsiopulos (1993) segmented female apparel shoppers by cluster analysis of apparel shopping-orientation, and derived three groups. These three groups were compared using MANOVA and chi-square. The results indicated that shopping-orientations are the base for segmenting, and these groups were unique with respect to (i) three factors of information sources (ii) five factors of importance of store attributes (iii) two factors of lifestyle activities, and (iv) other variables like patronage behavior, annual wardrobe expenditure, occupation, housing area and income.

Shim and Bickle (1994) segmented the female apparel market based on 'descriptive clothing benefits sought'. Using cluster analysis on benefits sought factors, three groups were identified. The MANOVA and Chi-square statistics revealed significant differences among the three benefits segments on (i) 10 psychographic factors (ii) 3 shopping-orientation factors (iii) 1 patronage behavior variable, and (iv) 7 demographic factors. Kwon (1991), investigated catalog and non-catalog shoppers' shopping-orientations and their demographic characteristics. The results of multivariate and univariate analysis of variance indicated no group difference on shopping-orientation, but with respect to demographic variables, differences were found with respect to marital status, were 60 percent of the catalog shoppers were married, while only 47 per cent of the non-catalog shoppers were married.

Summer et.al. (1992) too determined if the psychographic dimension of perceptions of fashion and perceptions of apparel shopping was related to store patronage as well as to demographic characteristics among rural and urban females. Significant differences in the factor scores that measured perceptions of fashion, and of apparel shopping were noted in ANOVA with type of stores patronized, shopping locales favored, time spent shopping for apparel for self and family, ethnicity, age, marital status, education, work status, and total family income. The purpose of the

study carried by Polegato and Zaichkowsky (1999) was to develop comprehensive food shopping profiles of career-oriented, income-oriented, and at-home wives. Discriminant analysis revealed distinct profiles for the career-oriented and at-home wives. However, income-oriented wives were similar to career-oriented wives regarding some demographic characteristics, shopping patterns, and some shopping strategies, and similar to at-home wives for other shopping strategies. Preez et.al. (2007) carried market segmentation of male apparel shoppers in consideration to factors like (i) lifestyle (ii) shopping-orientation (iii) patronage behavior, and (iv) shopping mall behavior. The study found that the respondents' shopping mall behaviour differed regarding motivation for patronage, shopping companions and preferences for mall activities.

An over-view of the findings of the present research and the available research review revealed two basic points. Firstly, shopping-orientation, lifestyle, and demographics have emerged out to be the most commonly considered attributes by all researchers for carrying out market segmentation, since demographics form the basis of any research study, and one can assess product specific shopping-orientation and lifestyle, thereby; these variables enable the market researchers to derive a holistic view of the market with respect to one specific product.

Secondly, though lot of efforts have been made in the direction of segmenting the market with respect to different products, attributes, and perspective, findings of the researches in market segmentation can not be brought on the same platform to examine the commonalities, differences, and relationships amongst the major variables impacting market segmentation, resulting into inconsistencies. These inconsistencies can be attributed to;

(i) different products been studied
(ii) different consumers been studied
(iii) different markets been targeted
(iv) different attributes been considered for comparisons
(v) different bases adopted for market segmentation, either using a single variable or a group of variables.
(vi) different statistical techniques been used for segmentation
(vii) rapid changes in the market

(viii) discrepancy in the adaptation of the measurements tool used to assess any construct; as per the nature of the research., and

(vii) other identified and un-identified factors which influence the consumers directly or indirectly.

On similar account findings of the present study did not reflect a replication of results between all variables. On one hand, commonality was observed with respect to certain variables, while at the same time inconsistencies were found in contributions of other variables. These inconsistencies can be attributed to the variation in the targeted consumer, type of product, bases for segmentation etc. However, it must be brought forth that in the present study too background characteristics, shopping-orientation and psychographics evolved as significant attributes that influenced the shoppers behavior to segment the market.

The ensuing pages bring forth the description of the segments derived in the market; discussions pertaining to their profile and probable strategies for marketers. The consumers of RES in the present study were segmented into three clusters labeled as the beginners, sporadic consumers, and dependable consumers. The clusters were differentiated on the basis of their consumption pattern of RES. Differences were identified amongst the three clusters with regard to their background characteristics, food shopping-orientation, and psychographic attributes. A critical analysis of the data enabled the researcher to evolve an explicit behavioral pattern of the three segments of consumers. Three prominent upshots were identified, and the detail elucidation has been presented in the ensuing paragraphs.

Firstly, the analysis of data revealed that the dependable consumers were higher in their education level, had small size families, had more number of nuclear families, and belonged to the higher S.E.S. as compared to the beginners. Also, they did not held a positive attitude towards the SPFs in contrast to the beginners. The dependable consumers were significantly higher in their price-conscious FSO, and perceived higher financial risk involved in the purchase of RES, as compared to the beginners. They strongly believed that the RES were expensive, and when one buys heavily advertised products, one is paying for the label, not for higher quality. Thus, overall it was observed that the dependable consumers, who were actually the heavy

consumers of RES, were less at-ease on price-related aspects as compared to the beginners, who were yet in the process of exploring and experimenting with the product. The concern for price amongst the dependable consumers was reflected in their shopping-orientation, beliefs and perceived-risks.

A similar concern for price by heavy users of a product was also highlighted in the findings of study carried out by May et.al. (1992). In an attempt to discriminate heavy and light Tuxedo users, they found that heavy users were more concerned with the practical aspects of the Tuxedo: comfort, fabric type and quality, quality of construction, and value for the price, while, the light users relied more on the fashion advice and guidance of sales personnel. Moreover, Cassill and Drake (1987) investigated the relationship of lifestyle and evaluation criteria's for apparel, and found that the consumers who were high on their economic-factor, emphasized on price, ease of care and durability, and were characterized by concern for economy.

Another explanation for the dependable consumers in the present study who in-spite of belonging to high S.E.S., were price conscious, might be that they were the individuals who were previously part of a relatively lower socio-economic rank, and by virtue of their education and professional status in the growing economy, have acquired considerable wealth within their generation, and have moved into the upper-section of the society. However, in-spite belonging to the upper strata of the society, these 'nouveau riche' consumers continue to hold the middle-class psyche and lack skill of lavishly spending money.

The core concern for price amongst these dependable consumers can give direction to the marketers of the product, by endowing their marketing strategies that would correspond to concerns of the dependable consumers. Being price-conscious, the dependable consumers appeared to be more sensitive towards 'price' stimuli then other segment of consumers. In-view of the above, the marketers need to be tactical in designing the promotional strategies for this segment of the consumers. When targeting this segment, if price of the product is not sensitively handled, it can result in adverse response, and can even alienate consumers from the use of product. The marketers can follow the principle of 'Just noticeable difference' when working on price of the product for the dependable consumers. The marketing strategies of

'upward pull' can be adopted, which involves positioning a product for mainstream consumers, but portraying the product as being consumed by upper class consumers (http://www.consumerpsychologist.com/food_Introduction.html).

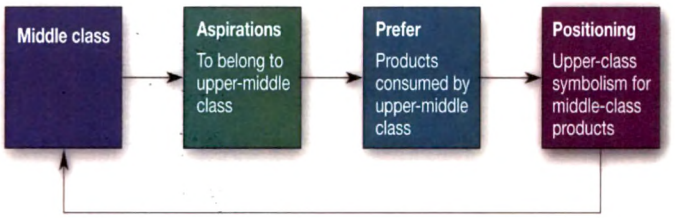

Fig. 61: Diagrammatic representation of Upward-Pull Strategy

Secondly, the data brought forth that the beginners were lower in their education level, had larger size families, had more number of joint families, and belonged to the lower S.E.S. as compared to the dependable consumers. The beginners were found to be more nutrition-oriented in their lifestyle as compared to the dependable consumers. They were also found to hold a more positive attitude towards the advantages, characteristics, and consequences of use of RES in comparison to the dependable consumers and sporadic consumers.

They were the segment of consumers who were consuming RES since last 1 to 2 years, and were at a stage of experimenting and exploring the product. They perceived lower financial and physiological risk in the purchase and consumption of RES, and believed that RES were reasonably priced. The fact that they had already developed a positive attitude towards the product, attributed to their strong inclination for the product, and reflected that they can become the target consumers for the marketers and had greater potential to become sustainable consumers.

The prominence of nutrition oriented lifestyle came out as an aspect that this segment of consumers strongly hold, can be captured upon by the marketers. In this regard, the marketers can choose to strategically opt for 'affiliation method' of positioning the product, wherein, the nutritional features of the product can be brought forth in their promotional efforts. With an assumption that the consumers will buy the products that fit into their lifestyle, promotional strategies of these kind may evolve as useful ones. This can be supported by the findings of a study carried by Cassill and

Drake (1987), who found that significant relationships existed between the lifestyle and evaluative factors, suggesting that consumers choose apparel items that fit into lifestyle.

Thirdly, the sporadic consumers were found to be more oriented towards value-for-money while shopping for food as compared to the beginners. Also, in contrast to the beginners, their beliefs were more stronger with regard to (i) all brand of RES were the same (ii) discount coupons received during previous purchase etc., represent real savings for the consumers, and (iii) when you buy heavily advertised products you are paying for the label not for higher quality. Further, they perceived high physiological risk in the purchase and consumption of RES. Also, they did not held positive attitude towards the RES as compared to the beginners.

The fact that the sporadic consumers were the segment of consumers who had already tried-and-tested the product, and now over course of time had consciously decided not to make it a part of their day-to-day life, made them tough targets for the marketers. It might be possible that if they were not prioritized by the marketers, they may even stop consuming the RES. Therefore, the marketers need to 'reposition' the product for this segment of the consumers. It would involve an attempt to change their perception for the product, because the existing position that the product held in the mind of the consumers had become less attractive. The most important consideration for the marketers in repositioning would be to understand their own product visa-vise the competitors' product. Attempts can also be made to move the product in a more desirable direction by selectively promoting certain aspects of the product. As the sporadic consumers were found to be high on their value-for-money orientation so in order to target this segment, the marketers can position the product in a fashion that the consumers feel worth spending their money on its purchase. Moreover, since they indicated a strong belief in favor of discount coupons, the marketers can use this data base in their sales and promotion efforts by introducing discount schemes to tap this section of consumers.

The present study has evolved data pertaining to the segmentation of consumers of RES, which can be utilized by both, manufacturers and marketers. With the tremendous growth opportunities in the current expanding market of RES, it becomes crucial to identify which portion of the larger market has inclination towards

convenience foods. The market of convenience food has gown multifold over the last two decades. Targeting the right set of market has become all the more important, since now the consumers have become increasingly more sophisticated and demanding with the availability and abundance of products, services, information, and technology, as well as a new abundance of retail stores and channels. The multiple social cultural changes, increased trend of dual income, small size families, heightened interest in health and nutrition increase in the felt need for convenience and convenience food, indicate towards the changing needs of the consumers and rationalize the importance of segmenting the market of RES.

The data obtained in the present study provides a direction to estimate the longevity of the three identified segments. This would enable the marketers to start prioritizing the actual consumers. Also, important aspects that determine the profitability of the segment have been suggested in terms of proportion of heavy-sporadic-light users, their purchasing power, their background characteristics and psychological makeup.