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A MODEL OF SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR
FOR A SELECT SAMPLE
OF PEOPLE IN
GREATER CAPE TOWN.

BY

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SCOPE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY.

This study is an analysis of consumer shopping behaviour. In particular the study focuses on the amount of time consumers spend shopping for various products, before making a purchase decision.

The study examines the relationship between the consumer's motivations, his cognitions and his learning and the amount of time he devotes to shopping and comparing products.

The first hypothesis of the study is that the amount of time consumers spend shopping for a product is a function of the price of the product, its distribution, and the number of available competing brands. The second hypothesis is that shopping time is also a function of the status of the product and the status of the brand.

These two functions have been combined in the study, and the final or major hypothesis is as follows:

The higher the price, the more selective the distribution, the greater the heterogeneity of brands, and the greater the product and brand status of a product, the greater will be the amount of time spent shopping for that product.

The relationship between the above variables and shopping behaviour has been expressed in the form of a descriptive model. Four appliances were used to test the model, and the results indicate that the amount of time consumers spend shopping can be measured. (In addition products can be ranked in terms of the amount of time consumers spend shopping for them. Expensive, selectively distributed products that have high status do require more shopping time than cheap low status intensively distributed products.)

The major contribution of the model is that it explains the critical factors that affect the amount of time consumers are prepared to spend shopping for different products. In other words, the model indicates to the manager how intensively he must distribute his products, or how much emphasis he should place on the status of his products.

The model also provides guidelines for decision making. It enables management to make decisions on store layout. Products consumers are not prepared to spend time shopping for are likely to be readily accessible or even self service. Products that consumers are prepared to spend time shopping for are likely to require greater personal sales effort and less self service.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page.
Acknowledgements	i
Scope and Contribution	ii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Figures	viii
List of Chapter Tables	ix
List of Q Tables	x

PART ONE.

FRAMEWORK FOR CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR: THE INDIVIDUAL

CHAPTER I - MARKETING AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR.	1
A. Brief History of Marketing and Consumer Behaviour	1
B. Approach to the Study of Consumer Behaviour	8
C. Microeconomic Model of Consumer Behaviour	13
CHAPTER II - INDIVIDUAL FACTORS - MOTIVATION	21
A. Introduction	21
B. Motivation	25
C. Need Hierarchy	26
D. Risk Taking and Emotion	30
CHAPTER III - INDIVIDUAL FACTORS - COGNITION	35
A. Introduction	35
B. Traits, Attitudes and Beliefs	36
C. Perception	40
D. Personality	45
E. Cognitive Dissonance	48
F. Learning	53

PART TWO.

Page.

FRAMEWORK FOR CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR: THE INDIVIDUAL AND
SOCIETY AND THE BUSINESS FIRM.

CHAPTER IV -	SOCIOCULTURAL AND POLITICAL FACTORS	62
	A. Introduction	62
	B. Culture	63
	C. Political and Legal Environment	67
	D. Social Class	71
	E. Ethnic Religious and Racial Factors	77
CHAPTER V -	GROUP INFLUENCES AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR	87
	A. The Nature of Groups	87
	B. Role and Status	89
	C. Family Influences	92
	D. Reference Groups	97
	E. Opinion Leaders	103
	F. Adopter Categories	105
	G. Flow of Communication and Diffusion	110
	H. Diffusion and the Change Agent	114
	I. Model of the Diffusion Process	118
CHAPTER VI -	BUSINESS FIRM FACTORS	133
	A. Company Image and Buying Environment	135
	B. Product Brand and Package	141
	C. Price and Distribution	151
	D. Promotion	157

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PART THREE.

Page.

SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR: AN INTEGRATED MODEL

CHAPTER VII - SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR - A MODEL OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR	181
A. Introduction	181
B. Shopping Behaviour	185
C. A Model of Shopping Behaviour	194
CHAPTER VIII - PRODUCT AND BRAND DIFFERENTIATION - A MODEL OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR	207
A. Product and Brand Status	207
B. A Model of Shopping Behaviour	213
CHAPTER IX - INTEGRATED MODEL OF SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR	227
A. Integrated Model	227
B. Additional Methods of Classifying Products	231
C. The Model and the Environment	241
CHAPTER X - TESTING THE MODEL - PRODUCT SELECTION	253

PART FOUR.

VALIDATING THE MODEL: THE EMPIRICAL SURVEY.

CHAPTER XI - TESTING THE MODEL: THE SAMPLE, THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND THE INTERVIEWING METHOD.	268
A. Introduction	268
B. The Population	271
C. Categorization of Population	275
D. Final Sample	280
E. The Questionnaire	281
F. The Interviewing Method	282

	<u>Page.</u>
CHAPTER XII - THE NATURE OF APPLIANCE OWNERSHIP AND THE VARIABLE SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR - SB	294
A. Nature of Appliance Ownership	295
B. Shopping Behaviour = SB	299
CHAPTER XIII - ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST THREE VARIABLES -PxDxH	310
A. The Variable Price	310
B. The Variable Distribution	321
C. The Variable Homogeneity of Available Competing Products	328
CHAPTER XIV - ANALYSIS OF THE LAST TWO VARIABLES PS + BS	336
A. Product Status	337
B. Brand Status	348
C. Status of the Total Offering	357
CHAPTER XV - TESTING THE MODEL AND FINAL CONCLUSIONS	367
A. The Exogenous Variables (PxDxH)	368
B. The Endogenous Variables (PVxPD) + (BVxBD)	372
C. Testing the Total Model	376
D. Final Conclusions of the Study	379
APPENDIX - A. Q Tables and Results From The Questionnaire	391
B. The Questionnaire	436
C. Selected Bibliography	450

LIST OF FIGURES.

<u>Figure.</u>		<u>Page.</u>
I.1	Model of Factors Influencing Consumer Behaviour - Outward Approach	17
I.2	Model of Factors Influencing Consumer Behaviour - Inward Approach	18
V.1	Distribution of Consumers by Adopter Category	120
V.2	Diffusion from Manufacturer to Opinion Leaders	124
V.3	Diffusion through Distribution Network to Opinion Leaders	125
V.4	Diffusion - Personal and Impersonal Influences	126
V.5	Complete Diffusion of Innovation Model	127
VII.1	Model of Consumer Shopping Behaviour	204
VIII.1	Product and Brand Classification as a Function of Status	222
VIII.2	Model Depicting Effects of Status on Shopping Behaviour	223
VIII.3	Model Depicting Effects of Status on Shopping Behaviour for Automobiles	224
VIII.4	Model Depicting Effects of Status on Shopping Behaviour for Bread	225
IX.1	Combined Model of Consumer Shopping Behaviour	250
IX.2	Combined Model of Consumer Shopping Behaviour with Framework Factors	251
X.1	Classification of Appliances in terms of Status	264
X.2	Product Categorization of Shopping Behaviour and Status for Household Appliances	266

LIST OF CHAPTER TABLES.

<u>Table.</u>		<u>Page.</u>
V.1	Predicting Innovativeness - Total Value Method	121
V.2	Characteristics and Communication Behaviour of Adopter Categories	123
VI.1	Rating of Favourable Qualities in Salespersons	169
VI.2	Rating of Unfavourable Qualities in Salespersons	170
VII.1	Electrical Household Appliances Available in Cape Town	203
X.1	Classification of Appliances in terms of Shopping Behaviour	265
XI.1	Categorization of Population	284
XI.2	Homogeneous Sample	291
XIV.1	Known Appliance Ownership by Neighbour, Friend, Family Member - Expressed as a Percentage	362
XIV.2	Frequency of Actual sight of Appliance at Neighbour, Friend, Family - expressed as a percentage	363
XIV.3	Knowledge of Brands owned by Neighbour, Friend, Family member - expressed as a percentage	365
XIV.4	Total Number of Brands owned by Neighbour, Friend, Family Member	366
XV.1	Matrix of values for P x D x H	369
XV.2	Matrix of values for (PV x PD) + (BV x BD)	372

LIST OF Q TABLES

APPENDIX C.

<u>Table.</u>		<u>Page.</u>
Q1	Appliance Ownership	392
Q2	Appliance Acquisition	393
Q3	Length of Appliance Ownership in Years	394
Q4	Price paid for Appliances in Rand	395
Q5	Knowledge of Brand of Appliance Owned	396
Q5a	Brand Ownership of Appliances	397
Q6	Type of Store where Appliance was Purchased	398
Q7	Location of Store where Appliance was Purchased	399
Q8	Number of Stores used to Compare Appliances	400
Q9	Reason for Buying Appliance, at Particular Store	401
Q10	Length of Time, In Months, from Desire to Purchase to Actual Purchase of Appliance	402
Q11	Who in Family Decided on Purchase of Appliance	403
Q12	Major Comments on Likes of Shopping	404
Q13	Major Comments on Dislikes of Shopping	404
Q14	Best way of Getting Dependable Appliance at a Reasonable Price	405
Q15	Sources of Advice for Purchase of Appliance	406
Q16	Perceived Ownership of Appliances	407
Q17	Perceived Brand Ownership of Appliances by a White Doctor, Coloured School Teacher, White Truck Driver and Bantu Businessman	408

<u>Table.</u>	<u>Page.</u>	
Q18	Expected Store Type for Future Purchase of Appliance	412
Q19	Work Done by Husbands of Two Closest Friends	413
Q19a	Categorization of Work Done by Husbands of Two Closest Friends in Terms of Method Used to Select Original Population	414
Q20	Work Done by Husbands of Two Closest Neighbours	415
Q20a	Categorization of Work Done by Husbands of Two Closest Neighbours in Terms of Method Used to Select Original Population	416
Q21	Frequency of Home Entertaining a Month	417
Q22	Perceived Price Utility of Appliances	418
Q22a	Perceived Ranking of Appliances in Terms of Price Utility.	419
Q23	Perceived Intensity of Appliance Distribution	420
Q23a	Perceived Ranking of Appliances in Terms of Distribution	421
Q24	Estimated Time that Would Be Spent in the Purchase of Appliances	422
Q24a	Ranking of Appliances in Terms of Estimated Time that would be spent in Purchase	423
Q26	Perceived Product Differences Between Appliances	424
Q27	Perceived Price Differences Between Appliances	425
Q28	Product Ownership of Appliances by Neighbour, Friend, Family	426
Q29	Frequency of Actual Sight of Appliance at Neighbour, Friend, Family	427

<u>Table.</u>		<u>Page.</u>
Q30	Actual Brand Ownership of Appliance by Neighbour, Friend, Family	428
Q31	Belief that Certain Appliances have More Status than Other Appliances	431
Q32	Ranking of Appliances in Terms of Status	432
Q33	Belief that Certain Brands of Appliances have more Status than Other Brands	433
Q34	Ranking of Appliance Brands in Terms of Status	434
Q34a	Ranking of Appliance Brands in Terms of Status by scoring 3 for First, 2 for Second and 1 for Third.	435

PART ONE

Framework for Consumer Behaviour: The Individual.

Chapter I.

Marketing and Consumer Behaviour.

- A. Brief History of Marketing and Consumer Behaviour
- B. Approach to the Study of Consumer Behaviour
- C. Microeconomic Model of Consumer Behaviour

Chapter II.

Individual Factors: Motivation.

- A. Introduction
- B. Motivation
- C. Need Hierarchy
- D. Risk Taking and Emotion

Chapter III.

Individual Factors: Cognition and Learning.

- A. Introduction
- B. Traits Attitudes and Beliefs
- C. Perception
- D. Personality
- E. Cognitive Dissonance
- F. Learning

CHAPTER I.

MARKETING AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

A. BRIEF HISTORY OF MARKETING AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Many leading marketing academicians and practitioners agree that the beginnings of marketing are lost in antiquity. Historical accounts of trade lead one to conclude that marketing has always existed.¹ Whether this can be construed to mean that conscious marketing thought has always existed is another question. It is believed that the term marketing was first used as a noun in contrast to its earlier usage as a verb, between 1906 and 1911.²

According to McCarthy³ the beginnings of simple marketing can be traced to the rise of economies above subsistence levels. This phenomenon can therefore be traced to earliest times, albeit in isolated environments.

Beckman and Davidson⁴ accept the theory that marketing existed in ancient times, but like McCarthy qualify this view by stating that marketing does not exist until trading or

exchange evolves in society.

An extensive survey of the literature seems to indicate that marketing is as old as trade. This does not mean, however, that marketing thought or theory can be traced so far back.

The development of a body of marketing theory or thought is a more recent innovation. "The roots of marketing theory are based on the problems and concerns of marketing men shortly after the end of the last century"⁵ Many attempts have been made to trace the development of marketing theory by such people as Hutchinson,⁶ Butler,⁷ Bartels,⁸ and Lockley⁹ to mention but a few. In the opinion of Halbert, however, it is not possible to identify clear bench marks in the history of marketing.¹⁰

"Modern marketing came of age after World War I when the words, surplus and overproduction became increasingly common words in our economics vocabulary."¹¹ For the development of marketing theory as a consistent body of knowledge, however, the years since 1941 have been of greatest significance.¹²

It was only after the second World War that marketing

became interdisciplinary. The last twenty-five years have seen a significant growth in the application of sociological, psychological, anthropological, economic and mathematical concepts to the field of marketing. This study is primarily concerned with the application of the behavioural sciences to marketing and particularly that section which concerns consumer or buyer behaviour.

In order to appreciate the significance of consumer behaviour in the field of marketing it is necessary to examine the marketing concept as it is practised and taught today.

The major emphasis in marketing today is on the marketing management approach. Five definitions are used in order to illustrate this approach and also to indicate the significance of the consumer or consumer behaviour in the field of marketing.

"Marketing is the performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and services from producer to consumer or user in order to satisfy customers and accomplish the firm's objectives."¹³

"We feel that marketing is a fundamental business philosophy ... Fundamental to this philosophy is the recognition and acceptance of a customer oriented way of doing business. Under marketing the customer becomes the fulcrum, the pivot point about which the business moves in operating for the balanced best interests of all concerned".¹⁴

"Marketing is the process in a society by which the demand structure for economic goods or services is anticipated or enlarged and satisfied through the conception, promotion, exchange and physical distribution of such goods and services."15

"Marketing is the process of discovering and translating consumer needs and wants into products and service specifications creating demand for these products and services, and then in turn expanding the demand."16

"Marketing is defined as those activities which direct the flow of goods and services from production to consumption."17

In all of these five definitions emphasis is given to the task of either moving goods or services to the consumer, or of satisfying consumer demand, or of translating consumer needs into products and services, or of directing the flow of goods toward consumption. Little more need be said then on the critical importance of the consumer to the field of marketing. For the rest of this study, the consumer is considered to be king, and all marketing efforts are considered as stages in the process of satisfying consumer demands, while at the same time accomplishing the objectives of the firm.

If the theory that the consumer is king holds true, then it becomes vitally important for the marketing practitioner and academic to study and understand the consumer. It becomes necessary to know not only how he acts, but why he acts.

For many years marketing has been principally concerned with the how of consumer behaviour. Studies of how many, how old, how educated, how rich, how poor, how located, etc., have been conducted without sufficient thought to the why of consumer behaviour.

One of the principal reasons for the neglect of the why approach to consumer behaviour has been the difficulty of understanding, measuring and interpreting such things as why a housewife will shop at store A for one item, and store B for another item when both could have been purchased at the same outlet. The field of consumer behaviour is, and must by definition, be complex because it deals with the human element. Generalizations are difficult, and with the exception of economic models, inadequate empirical research has yet been conducted for the development of a body of valid scientific principles of consumer behaviour.

One clear fact has, however, emerged from the present work on consumer behaviour, and that is that man is not a rational economic animal. He may be partly rational and partly economic, but he is also a large number of other things including emotional and sometimes apparently irrational.

As mentioned previously, the growing appreciation of the importance and complexity of consumer behaviour has received much of its impetus and assistance from other disciplines, particularly the behavioural sciences. Halbert has found that the largest proportion of the articles with some theoretical content appearing in the marketing literature is concerned with consumption and consumer behaviour. He further asserts that until the 1950's most literature in this area dealt with the demographic and income dimensions of the consumer, i.e. the how of consumer behaviour and not with the why. Since the 1950's, however, greater attention has been directed to the sociological, psychological and anthropological influences on consumer behaviour.¹⁸

Bartels endorses this view by stating that not until marketing was conceived as a broad economic function or social institution did the values of inter-disciplinary thought begin to appear.¹⁹

Many attempts have been made to explain and define the phenomena of consumer behaviour and, according to Britt,²⁰ between 12,000 and 15,000 articles, books and monographs are published in English each year in the field of behavioural sciences, most of which have some relevance to the field of

consumer behaviour.

In spite of the mass of literature in the field of consumer behaviour, few people appear willing to define the term or to explain the nature of the subject. Kassarian and Robertson²¹ define consumer behaviour in the following way.

"As an academic discipline the study of consumer behaviour focuses on only one aspect of the total marketing system. Although participants in this system include producers, middlemen and consumers and the action of any one party often provokes reaction in another, the object of consumer behaviour research and study is the end purchaser".

Another author in the field explains consumer behaviour as being more than a study of who buys what where. While this information is vital, it is still necessary to require additional qualitative dynamic knowledge about the consumer, over and above information relating to age, income or family status. For this author, consumer behaviour involves an understanding of why consumers buy a particular product and how current non-users can be switched to a specific brand.²²

A more comprehensive explanation of the nature of consumer behaviour is provided by Burk.²³

"Major aspects of consumer behaviour may be delineated thus: The psychological, sociological, anthropological and economic phenomena related to the behaviour of individuals, families, and groups as they take consumer roles in individual and group decision-making or problem solving processes related to buying and using goods and services and the economic phenomena of consumption and expenditures which result from the socioeconomic structure of consumption."

One final description of the field is given by Andreasen who views consumer behaviour as a decision making process based on specific conceptions about attitude formation and change, drawn from social psychology.²⁴ In other words, consumer behaviour is the result of the effect of consumer attitudes on the decision making process.

An examination of these ideas on consumer behaviour indicates that the field is complex and involves a series of interrelated subjects. An extensive survey of the literature indicates that the field can be broken down into several major categories and sub-categories. Furthermore, the approach to this classification can take two distinct forms as described in the next section.

B. APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

One approach to the study of consumer behaviour is

to start with the individual at the centre and work outwards through the various factors that influence his behaviour. This is the approach normally adopted by marketing men and this will be the approach adopted in this study. For purposes of classification this approach is termed the outward approach.

The second approach to the study of consumer behaviour is termed the inward approach and rests on the theory that individual behaviour is conditioned by the environment and therefore one should start with the broadest influence on the individual namely the socio-cultural and political environment and work inwards to the individual.

Regardless of the approach adopted, it is possible to describe the major variables relating to the field in the following way:

A. Individual Factors

- 1) Motivation
- 2) Cognition
 - a) Traits, attitudes and beliefs
 - b) Perception
 - c) Personality
 - d) Cognitive dissonance
- 3) Learning

B. Social and Group Factors

- 1) The Family
- 2) Social Influences
- 3) Role Influences
- 4) Opinion Leaders
- 5) Religious Influences

C. Socio-cultural and Political Factors

- 1) Social Class
- 2) Culture
- 3) Norms of Behaviour
- 4) Political Constraints
- 5) Legal Constraints

D. Business Firm Factors

- 1) Product
- 2) Service
- 3) Promotion
- 4) Distribution
- 5) Price
- 6) Availability

This breakdown of the factors relevant to consumer behaviour clearly indicates that the way a consumer behaves will depend on individual factors, social and group factors, socio-cultural and political factors, and business firm factors. This can be represented by a simple descriptive model or function. As a function, consumer behaviour can be expressed as:

$$CB = f(x) \text{ IF } (x)(+) \text{ SGF } (x) (+) \text{ SCPF } (x) (+) \text{ BPF}$$

where

CB = Consumer Behaviour

IF = Individual Factors

SGF = Social and Group Factors

SCPF = Socio-cultural and Political Factors

BFF = Business Firm Factors

This function is descriptive and no attempt has been made to determine whether it is linear or exponential, or whether it is additive or multiplicative. Figure I.1 is a model depicting this function.

The major use of this model is that it assists in describing the research and theory in the field, and in understanding the multitude of inter-relationships that can and do exist. Just how all the variables relate is not known. Numerous theories exist in this field, and the rest of Part One will be devoted to an examination of the major factors, their sub-variables, and significant theories on consumer behaviour. The above function and method of classification is based on the outwards approach to the field. This is the approach that will be used in this study.

In the inwards approach, the consumer's behaviour is viewed as being largely influenced by his environment.

This approach is best described by the diagrammatic representation in Figure II.1. In this diagram, the individual's behaviour is shown as being partly influenced by his family, by his church, by his reference groups, by his community, by the laws of the country, by the socio-cultural and political environment in which he lives and by the actions of various business firms.

As in the outward approach, the inward approach also stresses the inter-dependence of the various variables but concentrates on understanding the broader and more general influence of environmental factors, rather than individual factors, on consumer behaviour.

Before embarking on an examination of the field of consumer behaviour it is necessary to distinguish between the macro approach and the micro approach to consumer behaviour. An analysis of the behaviour of one single consumer is referred to as micro behaviour and a study of the behaviour of a mass or aggregate of individuals is referred to as macro behaviour. In a 1964 article by Glock and Nicosia in the Journal of Marketing the authors refer to micro behaviour as consumer behaviour, and macro behaviour as consumption behaviour.²⁵ While this distinction is logical, it is seldom used in the literature, and

hence in this study consumer behaviour is used to denote the macro aspect unless otherwise specified.

C. MICROECONOMIC MODEL OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Any examination of the field of consumer behaviour can begin with, at least, a brief survey of the traditional economic approach to the question, "Why does the consumer behave the way he does?"

Economic theory, particularly utility theory, is an attempt to explain the behaviour of any single individual in rational and economic terms. The model rests on the principle of utility or satisfaction. It asserts that the consumer will buy those quantities of products or services where the marginal utility (additional satisfaction from consuming one more unit) per Rand worth of any one product equals the marginal utility per Rand worth of any other product for a given period of time. In equation form the relationship is

$$\frac{MU_x}{P_x} = \frac{MU_y}{P_y} = \frac{MU_n}{P_n}$$

where:

the marginal utility MU of product x over the price P of x equals the marginal utility of product y over the price of y which equals the marginal utility of any product n over the price of that product.

"The antecedents of this theory can be traced back to the writing of Adam Smith and Jeremy Bentham."²⁶ Smith in his "Wealth of Nations" in 1776 established the principle that man is motivated by self interest in all his actions. Bentham with his hedonistic calculus went one stage further by picturing man as a rational economic calculator weighing up the expected pleasures and pains to be derived from any particular action.

It was not until a hundred years after Bentham that modern utility theory really took root. The great consolidator of classical and neo-classical economics, Alfred Marshall, was largely responsible for developing the economic model of consumer behaviour as described previously.

The microeconomic model of consumer behaviour has been criticized by most leading marketing men and behaviouralists at one time or another. Perhaps the most potent criticism of economic theory is its failure to consider the interdependence of human behaviour.

Psychologist Karl Smith²⁷ makes the following judgment on economic theory.

"Economic theory equates the logic of motivation and the rational interpretation of market processes of the businessman with that of the ordinary housewife, the common labourer, the unemployed and the old man or woman due for retirement".

The author goes on to say that discrepancies between such individuals are attributed to imperfections of economic insight and the intervention of noneconomic motives. The result of this orthodox concept of economic motivation constitutes a theoretical barrier to an objective understanding of human nature, needs and motivations.²⁸

While the above criticism appears unduly harsh, most marketing men and economists recognize that the microeconomic model of consumer behaviour falls short of satisfactorily explaining consumer behaviour, because of the difficulties of measuring utility and because the other factors previously mentioned are not considered as being relevant to the model.

Kotler, while agreeing that individual, social, group, cultural, political, and business firm factors cannot be disregarded when examining consumer behaviour, does nevertheless state that the Marshallian model is of considerable use in

understanding behaviour. He suggests that numerous behavioural hypotheses can be derived from the model such as 1) the lower the price of the product the higher the sales; 2) the lower the price of substitute products the lower the sales of this product, etc. When analyzing a mass market, Kotler suggests that these hypotheses are by and large validated, and hence concludes that for a general understanding of consumer behaviour, the microeconomic model is of value.²⁹

Thus without denigrating the Marshallian model it is plain that, in order to derive greater understanding of consumer behaviour, it is necessary to understand those other factors which influence behaviour.

FIGURE I.1

MODEL OF FACTORS INFLUENCING

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

OUTWARD APPROACH

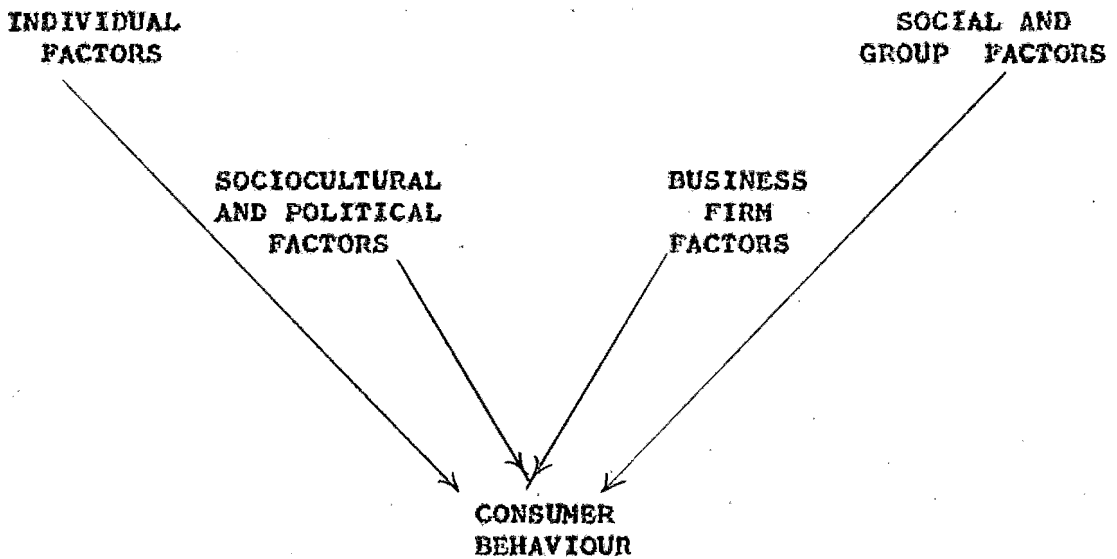
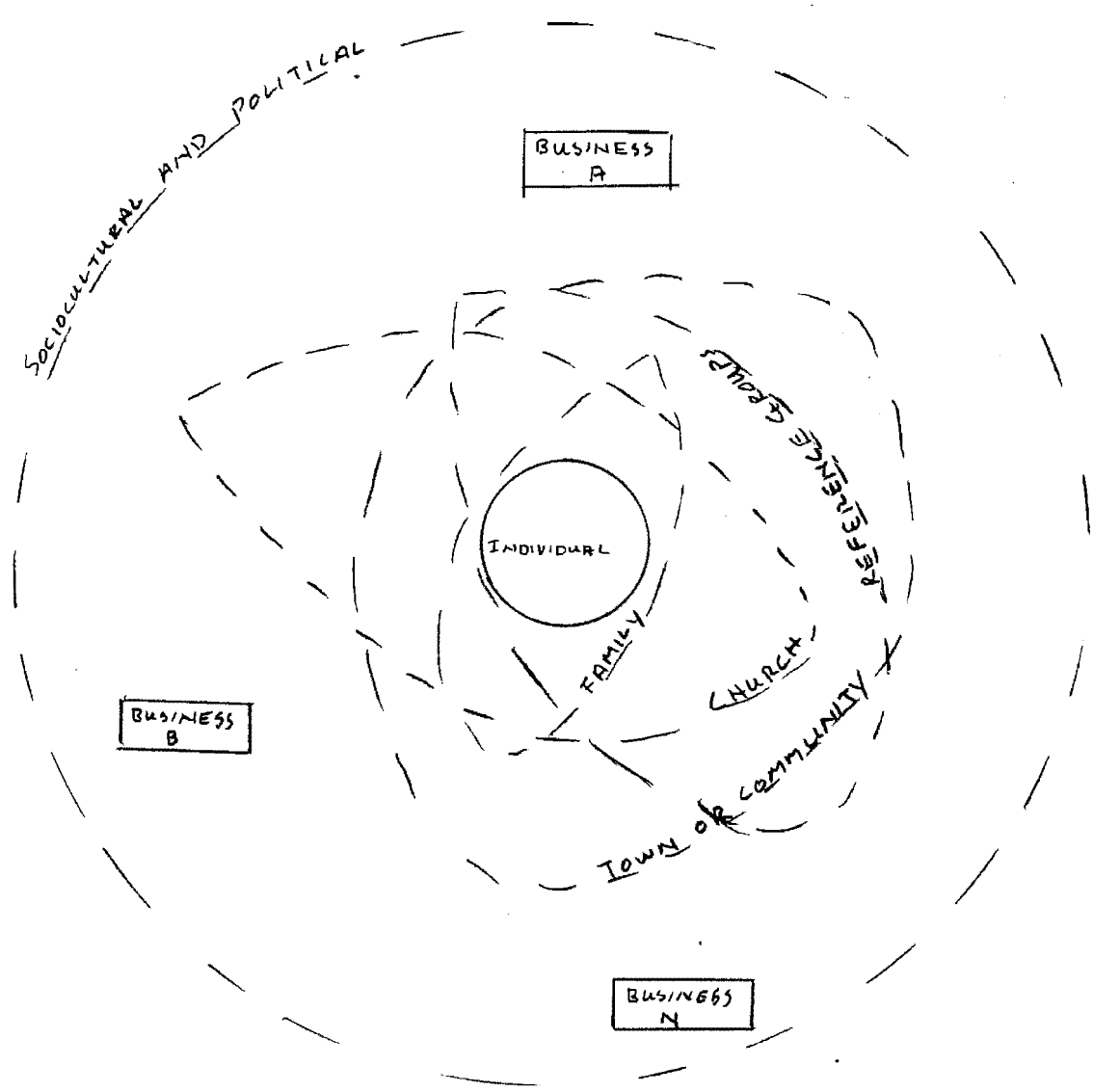


FIGURE 1. 2

MODEL OF FACTORS INFLUENCING

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

INWARD APPROACH



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CHAPTER II

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS - MOTIVATION

A. INTRODUCTION:

In some ways all men are alike; in some ways some men are alike; in some ways all men are different. This somewhat trite description of the human race is tautological and yet frequently not understood or appreciated by businessmen. All too few marketing men particularly in South Africa are prepared to accept the significance of the diversely motivated and complicated animal known as man. The idea that a mass market can be aggregated into one typology is not only false, but may result in costly error involving both out of pocket costs and opportunity costs.

The dimensions of man are many. He is diversely motivated and apparently irrational in that he does not always perform according to expectation.¹ Many behavioral theorists do not accept the theory that man is irrational; they say that man is never irrational because there is always an internal logic to his behaviour. What appears to be irrational then is

rather construed as being emotional, or acting upon unknown premises.

Furthermore, man exists in an environment and is dependent on this environment for survival, consequently man is an interdependent animal and cannot be seen as operating in isolation. This failure to appreciate the interdependence of man is one of the most cogent criticisms of the microeconomic model of consumer behaviour.

Man is also describable in non-value terms. In order to understand him, and influence him, it is not necessary to assume he is either good or bad.²

A study of consumer behaviour must begin with an appreciation of these dimensions of man. The theorist accepts them and the practical businessman is frequently aware of them even though he generally refuses to heed them at the operating decision level.

A first approach to the study of consumer behaviour, then, must begin at the individual level (micro-behaviour). Comprehending and predicting the behaviour of groups (macro-behaviour) depends largely on an understanding of why the individual consumer behaves the way he does.³

Each person responds to stimuli in terms of his conceptual system or cognitive world. The individual's total system is unique, with similarities at the aggregative level. It is formed and determined by the individual's background, needs, motives, personality, values, attitudes, social and geographic environment, etc.

Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachy⁴ define an individual's cognitive map, sometimes referred to as a conceptual system, in the following way.

"The cognitive map of the individual is not a photographic representation of the physical world; it is rather a partial personal construction in which certain objects selected out by the individual for a major role are perceived in an individual manner. Every perceiver is, as it were, to some degree a non-representational artist, painting a picture of the world that expresses his individual view of reality."

To the marketing man, or to the businessman in general, this means that every product or service, every advertisement, every guarantee, all service, etc. is viewed somewhat differently by every consumer. "In short consumer decisions are made in conformity with the consumer's own view of reality, and his behaviour follows from this view."⁵

This statement on consumer individuality by no means precludes an understanding and aggregation of consumers into a typology whereby general predictions of consumer behaviour can be made. The statement rather highlights the importance of a rigorous analysis of consumers in order to predict macro-behaviour.

According to Bayton, "human behaviour can be grouped into three categories - cognition, motivation and learning."⁶ He defines motivation as the drives, urges, wishes, or desires that initiate behaviour. Cognition is the area in which all of the mental phenomena (perception, memory, attitudes, etc.) are grouped. Learning refers to those changes in behaviour which occur through time, relative to external stimulus conditions.⁷

Furthermore cognition, motivation and learning are influenced by a large variety of environmental factors including culture, reference groups, family groups and religious beliefs.

While the logic of Bayton's essay is accepted in this study, it might be suggested that all consumer behaviour, other than that generated by biogenic needs, is eventually determined by the individual's cognitive world. His needs and drives, and his learning will all be influenced by his cognitions of reality.

B. MOTIVATION:

According to psychologists Cofer and Appley, "It is clear that a comprehensive definitive psychology of motivation does not yet exist."⁸ The vastness of the literature, however, points the way to a clearer understanding of this concept.

Motivation has been variously defined as:

"Arising out of tension-systems which create a state of disequilibrium for the individual."⁹

"The general name for the fact that an organism's acts are partially determined by its own nature or internal structure."¹⁰

"Referring to a state of need arousal - a condition exerting push on the individual to engage in those activities which he anticipates will have the highest probability of bringing him gratification of a particular need pattern."¹¹

The explanation of psychological phenomena by reference to psychological phenomena. ¹²

These definitions provide a working framework for understanding motivation. Using these theories, motivation can be explained as being a psychologically determined need or drive, the satisfaction of which will enable the individual to move toward a state of equilibrium which will be gratifying to his well being. In other words a motive is something that excites the organism to action.

As a working definition for this study, this theory of motivation needs further clarification. It is necessary to understand what man's major motives, or needs or drive or wants are.

C. NEED HIERARCHY:

According to Maslow's well known theories on motivation, all human behaviour is directed toward the satisfaction of a hierarchy of needs. These needs in order of ascendancy are:

Physiological and Safety

Social

Ego

Self-Fulfillment¹³

Physiological needs include instinctive needs such as breathing and biogenic needs such as eating and sheltering oneself from the elements.

Social needs include the desire for belonging, for association, for acceptance by fellow man, for love and friendship. Man strives to become part of a group and avoid "anomie."

Ego needs relate to the desire for self esteem such as self

confidence, independence, achievement and competence. Ego needs also relate to one's reputation such as needs for status, for recognition, for appreciation, and for respect.

Self Fulfillment needs, or as ¹⁴ Chris Argyris ¹⁵ calls them, self-actualization needs, relate to man's desire for self fulfillment, his desire to realize his potentialities, to be creative and to develop.

Human behaviour, and consumer behaviour could be viewed as a continual struggle or drive to satisfy the need hierarchy. In theory, every product or service purchased by every consumer will in some way satisfy one of the four levels or groups of needs whether the consumer is conscious of this or not, and whether the purchase was specifically made to satisfy a conscious need or not.

It must be pointed out that satisfaction of this need hierarchy differs from individual to individual as does the relative importance of each need, over time. In the normal course of events, however, the consumer will attempt to satisfy physiological needs first, then social needs, then ego needs, and finally self fulfillment needs. For the marketing man this means that products aimed solely at satisfying physiological needs in an upper income

market are likely to fail as will low status products and products used by sub-economic groups. The marketing manager must, therefore, understand the need hierarchy of his market, and must appreciate what needs the consumer is attempting to satisfy. He must design his product and its appeals in order to satisfy those needs that the consumer is most highly motivated to satisfy.

According to McGregor, a satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour. Once hunger is satiated man's need for food, in order to sustain himself, will temporarily vanish.¹⁶ This view is elaborated by Barnes¹⁷ who suggests that all of man's needs are operative at the same time. For example, a man may satisfy some of his social needs once all his critical physiological needs have been satisfied.

A further critical factor in understanding needs and the motivation of consumer behaviour is an appreciation of the multi-valent satisfying qualities of a product. For example, a leading author in this field suggests that an automobile may satisfy any of the following needs and generally satisfies many of them. An automobile is a symbol of initiation into society; it provides status; it gives a feeling of power; it allows one to channel

aggression; it symbolizes freedom; it satisfies social needs by bringing people together; it is a means of transportation; it enables us to act out a death wish; it enables one to feel a hero, a saviour, a protector; it provides security and protection similar to the womb; it becomes a friend; it establishes self confidence; it serves as a mistress; it enables one to feel opulent, young, sporty, strong, virile, sexy, etc., etc.¹⁸

While an automobile may be one of the most complex products to understand from the consumer's point of reference, it is certainly not alone in providing satisfaction over a wide range of needs. Every product made satisfies more than one need for any individual and when consumers are taken in mass the possible number of need satisfying qualities of a product are enormous.

In summary, consumers buy products in order to satisfy physiological, social, ego and self fulfillment needs. These needs may be conscious or unconscious and they may be operative one at a time or in conjunction with each other. Each product satisfies a wide variety of needs at both the micro and the macro level. Frequently the consumer and the supplier are

not aware of all the need satisfying qualities that a particular product is providing, and hence neither the supplier nor the consumer is aware of what the consumer's true motives are in purchasing a particular product.*

D. RISK TAKING AND EMOTION:

One further aspect of consumer motivation that is of relevance, relates to what Bauer calls "consumer behaviour as risk taking."¹⁹ According to Bauer, consumer buying involves risk in the sense that any action of a consumer will produce consequences which he cannot anticipate with great certainty. Some of these consequences may be most unpleasant, and consequently consumers attempt to reduce the risk of unpleasant results when purchasing a product. This does not mean that consumers carefully weigh up the pros and cons of each purchase before making a decision

* Maslow's need hierarchy has been used in this study as it represents a comprehensive approach to the problem. Numerous other authors have developed similar need hierarchies, and one in particular is of relevance in marketing, viz. Dayton's hierarchy of affectional needs; ego bolstering needs; ego-defensive needs. (See Ref. 6).

but rather that they develop decision strategies and ways of reducing risk that enable them to act with relative confidence and ease in situations where the outcome of events is uncertain.²⁰

One example of a consumer decision strategy to reduce risk is the development of brand loyalty. Consumers, in order to reduce the risk of failure of a product, will continue to buy a brand that has proved reliable in the past. The more important the purchase the greater will be the reliance on a proved brand.

A further example of such strategies is the desire on the part of the consumer for legitimization of a purchase. By legitimization is meant at least partial group approval by one's actions. Many studies including the diffusion of innovation studies²¹ and the flow of communication studies²² indicate that consumers seek advice, testimony and legitimization from friends and experts before and after purchasing in order to reduce risk.

This theory of risk reduction as a motivation element in consumer behaviour may be likened to the theories on the drive toward balance and the homeostatic tendency in organizations. Several authors have suggested that man continually strives for balance and equilibrium of his cognitive world, and hence is motivated to both reduce change and the risk involved in change.²³

A final aspect of motivation theory relates to emotion. Some authors²⁴ categorize emotions as being part of the consumer's cognitive world, while others treat emotion as being an extension of motivation theory.²⁵ Generally mild states of arousal such as being kept waiting for an appointment are referred to as feelings, while the term emotion is reserved for more profound stirred up states.

Like motives, emotions stimulate people to take action for some reason or another.

"Emotion is best defined as a stirred up condition of the organism. Some emotions are specific to a present need: pain, hunger, fear, sexual desire; others are more pervasive and longer lasting: anxiety, depression, tenderness, reverence."²⁶

As described previously, people strive for a state of balance in their cognitive world, and consequently take action to either alleviate or stimulate the stimuli causing the emotion.

Emotion can be viewed as a subjective colouring of motives, especially motives in conflict or under threat.²⁷

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CHAPTER III.

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS: COGNITION

A. INTRODUCTION:

During the period in which a consumer is motivated to take action in order to satisfy some need, the cognitive processes become operative.

"We can view these cognitive processes as being purposive in that they serve the individual in his attempts to achieve satisfaction of his needs. These cognitive processes are regulatory in that they determine in large measure the direction and particular steps taken in his attempt to attain satisfaction of the initiating needs."¹

In order to comprehend the cognitive process, it is necessary to delineate those areas of major importance, viz.:

Traits, attitudes and beliefs

Perception

Personality

In addition, the cognitive process is also vitally affected by cognitive dissonance or incongruent cognitions.

A consumer's view of reality (his cognitive world) will be determined by his perceptions, traits, attitudes, beliefs,

emotions and personality. These factors will influence his behaviour and will affect his motives and his need hierarchy.

It must be reiterated that an analysis of these factors is done in non-value terms. Whether a marketing manager considers the attitudes of his consumers as good, bad or indifferent should have no bearing on his job of satisfying them.

B. TRAITS AND ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS:

"Our traits, attitudes and beliefs play a significant part in determining our judgements of events in the world around us."² They help determine whether we are innovative or conservative; savers or spenders; brand loyal or venturesome; slow shoppers or impulse buyers; status conscious and snobbish or non-status conscious and unaware of class differentials, etc.

A trait is a unique and personal way of responding to one's environment. Allport³ defines a trait as being more generalized than a habit and being deterministic in that once formed, it actually directs responses to particular stimuli. He further states that traits cannot be viewed as being independent of each other.

Perhaps the most critical factor from the consumer behaviour viewpoint is the macro aspect of traits. While each trait is unique to the individual, aggregations of consumers do exhibit similar traits that are of significance in marketing a product or service.

Confusion frequently arises between attitudes and beliefs, and while they are interrelated, there are differences. Beliefs are things people feel to be true; they may be based on factual or empirical evidence, e.g., vitamins are good for you, therefore a cereal with vitamins is good for you. They may be in the nature of an opinion not yet proven or known to be true to the individual, e.g., purchase of an expensive dress will provide status. Finally, beliefs may rest on faith and presently non-verifiable concepts, e.g., the Bantu is different to the European and consequently the Bantu does not desire the same products and services as the European.

Unlike beliefs, which are generally seen as being motivationally and emotionally neutral, attitudes are definitely motivational and emotional aspects of cognition.⁴

Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey define attitude as, "an enduring system of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings and pro or con action tendencies with respect to a social object."⁵

Katz supports this definition of attitude and defines it as being a predisposition to evaluate symbols or objects in a favourable or an unfavourable light. He stresses in his definition, however, the intensity or valence of the attitude held.⁶ Valence is here defined as the degree of positivity or negativity of the cognitive, or action tendency components of an attitude system. This valence is of critical importance to the marketing man when evaluating consumer behaviour. The list of product failures, as a result of incorrectly assuming high attitude valence for a particular product attribute, is long.

The importance of understanding, measuring and predicting consumer attitudes toward products, service, package, price, colour, taste, smell, size, advertising, image, distribution, etc., is recognized as being of major importance in the field of consumer behaviour. Thousands of attitude studies from a highly sophisticated to a somewhat asinine nature are undertaken each year in the United States. A lesser but growing number of such studies are also being undertaken in other parts of the world, including South Africa.

Some examples of sophisticated marketing studies of consumer attitudes will now be discussed in order to indicate how and

why they are important in the field of consumer behaviour.

One study conducted at a general level sought to determine whether consumers' attitudes towards the future state of the economy influenced their spending patterns regardless of individual income changes. An index of consumer attitudes was constructed which included questions relating to their expectations of future prices, business conditions, personal financial position, etc. The conclusions of this study were that attitudinal variables do contribute significantly toward an explanation of fluctuations in consumer spending.⁷

In another study, on the relationship of brand preference to brand purchase, it was found that housewives' attitudes towards various brands correlated closely with their buying behaviour. For example, 96% of the panel included their most preferred brands in their purchase intentions. Furthermore, the correlation between preference for a brand and the relative share of purchases obtained by that brand was .918 for seven product classes.⁸

Crespi states that the interrelated nature of attitudes causes them to form a system and in order to understand consumer buying behaviour it is necessary to know how any attitude fits

into this system, since this can affect what role it will play in the purchase decision. For example, if attitudes are closely related to the individual's value system, then they will be more difficult to change. If a housewife's attitudes towards a brand of soap are closely related to her values concerning her role of keeping a clean house, then it is more difficult to induce a change in her purchasing pattern than if her attitudes toward the soap are isolated from such consideration.⁹

C. PERCEPTION:

Consumer perceptions, like consumer traits, attitudes and beliefs, are highly individualistic. People view their environment in a subjective manner, each man seeing and interpreting stimuli in a different fashion. Even the microeconomic model takes cognizance of consumers' perceptions. The model states that consumers purchase in a rational and economic fashion in order to maximize utility. This, then, involves an understanding of an individual's perception of utility.

The principles of perception can be grouped into two major categories, stimulus factors and personal factors.¹⁰ Perception is

influence partly by physical stimuli such as colour. So, for example, a four page colour advertisement will be noticed by a larger number of people than will a black and white advertisement regardless of the attitudes and motivations of the perceivers.¹¹ In line with this concept, thousands of dollars are spent each year in the U.S.A. testing such things as the consumers' perception of colour, advertising layout, package dimensions etc. The whole crux of the theory being that consumers perceive and react to physical objects or stimuli in a relatively isolated fashion.

The second categorization of perception by personal factors assumes that what an individual sees depends on what he wants to see, and on his attitudes, traits, beliefs, motivations, needs, etc. A rather well known story serves to illustrate this point. A man went to his psychiatrist and was shown a series of 12 inkblots (Rorschach Test) and asked to describe what he saw. For each picture the patient referred to some aspect of sex. When asked by his analyst why he was so pre-occupied with sex, he countered with, "Look who has the dirty pictures."

According to Bruner¹² perception also involves the act of categorizing stimuli in order to make our reaction to our environment

more manageable. Triandis, in a recent and somewhat unusual study, further endorses this view, and goes on to say that one of the major similarities between cultures is the categorization of perceptions into meaningful clusters.¹³ This finding is of considerable importance to the field of consumer behaviour, for it means that while perceptions are individual, they are nevertheless categorized in some discernable pattern, and that this process is common to all cultures and groups, and hence perception can be viewed at a macro consumer behaviour level.

The famous American writer and columnist Walter Lippmann suggests that the development of stereotypes is closely related to consumer perceptions. He suggests that people do not first observe and then define, but rather, based on their cognitive system, they define first, and then see.¹⁴

The implication of this theory is significant to marketing. The theory suggests that a consumer or an aggregate of consumers may hold an opinion, for example, that the Bantu have no idea of suitable dietary habits. This becomes part of their cognitive world. From this point they may observe (perceive) a Bantu eating a bun and drinking Coca Cola. This perception is then not defined on the basis of observation, but acts merely to reinforce a previously held opinion.

One further aspect of perception, that relates to advertising, and especially to subliminal advertising, concerns the subvisible or subaudible nature of perception.¹⁵ Consumers generally perceive at a supraliminal level, where the stimuli are above the threshold of consciousness and awareness. Many consumer perceptions, however, take place at subvisible and subaudible levels, i.e., below the consumer's threshold of seeing and hearing.

The use of subliminal advertising relies solely on hitting the consumer below his threshold of consciousness. Apart from the moral and ethical considerations involved, it is questionable whether this form of advertising is more effective than supraliminal advertising. Certain experiments relating to popcorn and Coca Cola indicated an increase of 57% and 18% in sales respectively when consumers were subjected to subliminal advertising.¹⁶ Numerous other experiments have, however, failed and more empirical evidence is necessary before conclusions can be made on the effectiveness of this form of advertising.

An understanding of the concept of perception leads one to the conclusion that there is no such thing as a product or service which exists either absolutely or in isolation. Products only exist in terms of consumers' perceptions of them and in terms of

consumers' perceptions of them and in terms of consumers' attitudes and motivations towards them. Even if a consumer is exposed to a product or an advertisement he may not perceive it. Selective perception will block out what the consumer does not want to see.¹⁷

The concept of selective perception is of great importance to the marketing process. It highlights the fact that consumers may be exposed to products or advertisements, etc., without perceiving them as being of any utility. Thus the marketing man must select and promote products to those people who will perceive them as having utility. This will involve some form of research into consumer perceptions of the company's offering.

A considerable amount of research has been undertaken in the U.S.A. to test consumer perceptions of products, advertisements, package design, etc., in order to more effectively satisfy consumer desires at a profit.

One such study sought to determine wrapper influence on the perception of freshness in bread.¹⁸ The results of this study validated the hypothesis that tactual sensations aroused by the wrapper influenced the perception of freshness in bread.

"Respondents perceived fresh bread of equal freshness to be

fresher when wrapped in cellophane than when wrapped in wax."¹⁹

In another study, the researchers tested consumer brand identification with respect to beer consumption.²⁰ It was hypothesized that beer drinkers were not able to distinguish among major brands of unlabeled beer either on an overall basis or on selected characteristics. The research concluded that participants were not able to discern the taste differences among the various brands but apparently labels and their associations did influence their evaluations.

"In other words product distinctions, or differences in the minds of the participants arose primarily through their receptiveness to the various firms marketing efforts rather than through perceived physical product differences.²¹

D. PERSONALITY:

As with all other dimensions of consumer behaviour, the individual's personality will influence his behaviour. It is not intended to delve deeply into the complexities of personality theory, but rather to highlight those aspects that are of major significance to the field of consumer behaviour.

The term personality has two current uses. In the commoner usage personality embraces the sphere of individual differences or those differences that are relatively persistent, or are effective and volitional, as distinct from intellectual. The second aspect of the term personality embraces the thing which all personalities as such possess - the thing that marks off a personality from other things.²² In this study, personality is used to mean the arrangement or configuration of individual characteristics and ways of behaving that determine an individual's unique adjustment to his environment.

Allport defines personality as the substantial concrete unit of mental life that exists in forms that are definitely single and individual.²³ In spite of this assertion writers, scientists, marketing men, etc., have always had a propensity to assume or posit the existence of personality stereotypes. One of the most famous management scientists, Douglass McGregor, has suggested the assumed existence of two types of workers. The first type are lazy, dislike work, prefer direction and require coercion. This view of the worker personality is called Theory X by McGregor. Theory Y suggests that workers find work natural, that they will be self motivated if committed to a goal, that they have a capacity for imagination and that under suitable

conditions actively seek responsibility.²⁴

Regardless of the validity of these two theories, their effect has been significant in the industrial work place, and it is not uncommon to hear a manager referred to as a theory X or theory Y man.

One study on personality typing among women concluded that on an extremely general level all women wanted to look right, and rightness almost universally connoted femininity. Beyond this point, however, stereotypes differed according to age, income, and background.²⁵

In one study on personality and product choice of automobiles,²⁶ the author concluded that personality characteristics are of little value in indicating whether an individual owns a Ford or Chevrolet.

In another major study headed by Karen Horney, a tripartite interpersonal model was constructed in which individuals are classified as compliant (those who move toward people), aggressive (those who move against people), detached (those who move away from people).²⁷

This paradigm has been used to explain consumer market behaviour with respect to certain products. Some of the findings of the research are interesting. For example, aggressive men use cologne significantly more often than non-aggressive people. High detached people were significantly greater consumers of tea than low detached ones.²⁸

Numerous other studies have been conducted relating personality to consumer behaviour. Many are inconclusive and most are so closely related to research into consumer motivations, attitudes and perceptions that it becomes difficult to distinguish a personality study from a general consumer behaviour study.

B. COGNITIVE DISSONANCE:

Any survey of the cognitive process of consumer behaviour must include a section on cognitive dissonance. It is logical to treat this subject as a capstone to the theory of cognition.

Cognitive consonance is defined as: "The characteristic of a cognitive system which refers to the internal harmony existing among the component cognitions in the system"²⁹ The greater the congruence between the component parts of the system, the

greater the consonance.

The theory of cognitive dissonance was developed by Festinger³⁰ in order to explain the inconsistencies of human behaviour. Festinger sought to explain such things as why a consumer who knows smoking is bad for his health continues to smoke, and what effect this inconsistency of behaviour has on the individual. He suggests that people may attempt to rationalise inconsistent behaviour, but even under these conditions, consistency or balance within the cognitive system may fail. When such inconsistency exists, the individual feels psychological discomfort. Festinger defines this inconsistency and discomfort as cognitive dissonance. His formal definition asserts that

"an individual experiences discomfort when he holds logically inconsistent cognitions about an object or event, and that he is thus motivated to reduce the dissonance through cognitive and attitudinal changes."³¹

This definition then implies that dissonance is a motivating factor aimed at reducing discomfort and increasing harmony. As such, cognitive dissonance was also treated under the heading consumer motivation. In that chapter, it was viewed as being primarily a breakdown in the balance or homostasies

of the individual's cognitive world. An excellent review of the theory of dissonance and balance is provided by Zajonc³² in the 1960 Public Opinion Quarterly.

Many consumer behaviour studies have been undertaken to test the relevance of the dissonance concept to consumer behaviour. One such study sought to determine the reactions of cigarette smokers to dissonant information linking cigarette smoking to lung cancer.³³ The researchers hypothesized that in order to reduce the discomfort felt by the dissonant information, smokers would react in one or more of the following ways: (1) Change behaviour, i.e., stop smoking; (2) Deny or distort reality by refusing to believe the evidence; (3) Minimize the importance of the issue; (4) Add new cognitions by seeking social support for the dissonant behaviour. The research concluded that smokers are motivated to reduce dissonance and that they do react in one or more of the four hypothesized manners in order to do so. The research did not indicate whether any other courses of action would be likely to occur, perhaps the subjects in fact felt no discomfort as a result of the information.

In a survey on the influence of product preference on dissonance reductions, the researchers tested 75 women and their reactions to being given a choice of one out of two long playing

record albums free.³⁴ The research confirmed the hypothesis that consumers suffer dissonance when forced to choose between various products. The hypothesis, that subjects asked to choose between two records of dissimilar desirability ratings would experience less dissonance than those subject to selection of equally desirable records, was also validated. The third hypothesis that past purchase decisions would result in an attempt to reduce dissonance by some form of rationalization was also validated, as was the final hypothesis that dissonance continues over time, and consumers attempt to reduce this discomfort over time.

From the above theory and research on dissonance, it is clear that this is a critical field for the marketing practitioner to become more familiar with. It is necessary for him to provide mechanisms that assist consumers in reducing dissonance and it is also necessary to ensure that the dissonant implications of his product or service are minimal.

Many advertising executives are aware of the importance of Festinger's theory, and have taken steps to minimize consumer dissonance for products advertised. Most advertisements now attempt to provide either copy or symbols that will enable the consumer to rationalize his purchase. For example,

"Less tar and nicotine"

"You owe it to your family to ..."

"For people who are progressive"

"For your family's health"

"Remarkable resale value"

are all slogans and copy lines that provide the consumer with some way of rationalising a purchase he may have felt inconsistent with.

Consumers have inconsistent attitudes towards a host of products for one reason or another. These attitudes may be the result of societal pressure, or the result of individual background experiences. Frequently these attitudes are clustered among fairly large segments of the population and can be measured. For example, numerous consumers enjoy sweets and chocolates but for many there are conflicting cognitions about the harmful effects of these products. In cases like these, the marketing practitioner should seek out reasons for the inconsistencies and then try to reduce them by either removing one of the cognitions or by providing rationalisations that reduce consumer dissonance.

F. LEARNING:

"Starting with need arousal, continuing under the influence of cognitive processes, and engaging in the necessary action the consumer arrives at consumption or utilization of a goal object let us say that the consumer bought brand A and is now in the process of consuming or utilizing it."³⁵

Immediately utilization of a purchase begins the consumer arrives at a critical point in the psychological sequence of his behaviour - he begins to learn.

Learning is defined as a more or less permanent change in behaviour which occurs as a result of experience and practice.³⁶

Hilgard and Bower suggest a more inclusive definition of learning as

the process by which an activity originates or is changed through reacting to an encountered situation provided that the characteristics of the change in activity cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, motivation, or temporary states of the organism.³⁷

Learning consists of many activities: acquiring knowledge of critical attributes of products, determining preferred foods, and deciding if a product's value is intrinsic or just advertising.³⁸ As such learning theories are of major significance to the field of consumer behaviour.

The two major streams of development in learning are 1) Stimulus-Response Theory, and 2) Several Cognitive Theories.

The stimulus-response theory of learning received much of its impetus from psychologists such as Pavlov and Hull. This theory posits that only the temporal contiguity of the two elements, stimulus and response, are necessary for learning.³⁹

Howard does not view reinforcement as being a prerequisite for learning but suggests that the inclusion of reinforcement results in a new theory of learning.⁴⁰ Under these conditions, then, stimulus-response theory involves four central concepts: drive or need, response, use and reinforcement.

The proponents of the cognitive theories of learning do not accept the viewpoint that all learning is of a stimulus-response nature but instead borrow from such concepts as memory, expectations and goal seeking.⁴¹

At a cognitive level, the consumer is motivated to satisfy a need, and hence his behaviour is goal directed. Once achievement of the goal takes place, let us say purchase of product A, consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the purchase and the perceived utility of the purchase will result. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction will take place on a continuum, and will

involve different attitudes toward different attributes of the product.

If the consumer is satisfied or gratified by his purchase, then at some later date when the same needs are aroused the consumer will repeat the purchase that previously satisfied those needs. Each time a consumer purchases the same brand, if need gratification takes place, then further reinforcement occurs, thus further increasing the likelihood that in the future with the same given needs, the same brand will be selected.⁴²

An increase in the likelihood of an act is a behavioural change and involves learning. The cognition theorists state that reinforcement is necessary for this type of learning to take place. Continued reinforcement will increase the consumer's memory of the goal object, and cues and symbols will become more firmly established.

At some point in time reinforcement will be so complete that when need arousal occurs, consumer behaviour will become automatic. This behaviour will be repetitive and will require a minimum of cognitive activity. Howard⁴³ refers to it as ARB (automatic response behaviour), but in simple terms it is a habit.

According to Dayton, the frequency of repeating a response is not a valid criterion for determining whether or not a habit exists. An act repeated once a week may be just as much a habit as one repeated five times a day.⁴⁴ The critical factor is the amount of cognitive activity. The lower the activity the greater the habit.

It is not uncommon to find habits persisting even after the act ceases to provide need gratification. This is merely symptomatic of the strength of some of our habits.

The learning process is of major significance in explaining consumer behaviour. For example, the phenomenon of consumer brand shifting is a central element underlying the dynamics of the market place, and this phenomenon can be partially explained by consumer learning.⁴⁵

Kuehn⁴⁶ in a study on consumer brand choice as a learning process uses a stochastic model to explain consumer behaviour over a relatively short period of time. A sample of 600 Chicago families was used to determine whether sequential purchase data could provide some insight into consumer brand switching of frozen orange juice. Kuehn's major aim was to demonstrate that the consumer's most recent purchase was not

the only one that influenced subsequent brand choice. This hypothesis was validated, and it was demonstrated that the effects of earlier purchases decline exponentially, i.e., the ratio of the importance of the first purchase to that of the second is approximately equal to the ratio of the second to the third. The exponential weights of earlier purchases was validated in subsequent studies, but the weights for various product classes differed substantially.⁴⁷

Of major significance in the Kuehn study was the doubts it raised about the current use and validity of Markov chain analysis as a predictor of consumer choice.*

*In a finite Markov chain the conditional probability of transitions to future states depends only on the state presently occupied by the system and not on the history of the system prior to entering that state. More sophisticated Markov chains have been developed that take cognisance of the effect of prior or earlier states on the outcome of a transition. In a simple finite Markov chain, then, history of consumer purchase behaviour with the exception of the present state is of no significance.

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PART TWO

Framework for Consumer Behaviour: The Individual and Society and the Business Firm.

Chapter IV.

Sociocultural and Political Factors and Consumer Behaviour

- A. Introduction
- B. Culture
- C. Political and Legal Environment
- D. Social Class
- E. Ethnic Religious and Racial Factors

Chapter V.

Group Influences and Consumer Behaviour

- A. The Nature of Groups
- B. Role and Status
- C. Family Influences
- D. Reference Group Factors
- E. Opinion Leaders and the Diffusion Process
- F. Adopter Categories
- G. Flow of Communication and Diffusion
- H. Diffusion and the Change Agent
- I. Model of the Diffusion Process

Chapter VI.

The Business Firm and Consumer Behaviour

- A. Company Image and Buying Environment
- B. Product Brand and Package
- C. Price and Distribution
- D. Promotion

CHAPTER IV

SOCIOCULTURAL AND POLITICAL FACTORS

A. INTRODUCTION:

Consumer behaviour takes place in an environment. This environment has cultural, political, class, and ethnic dimensions. The environment also has numerous other facets which will be considered in later chapters.

Every individual is partially a product of his culture. All aspects of life are carried out against the background of the society in which the consumer exists.¹ The consumer's behaviour - his motivations, cognitions and learning are all influenced by his environment and the antecedents of and the nature of this environment affects every action he takes.

The cultural, political, class and ethnic environment is complex and defies sweeping generalizations. In South Africa where there are a series of laws and regulations limiting the political, social and economic behaviour of the four main population groups - Whites, Bantu, Coloureds, Asiatics - the environment takes on added complexity. In order to understand

the purchasing behaviour of the various population groups, then, it is necessary to have at least a general understanding of the cultural, political, class and ethnic dimensions of our society.

B. CULTURE:

Culture refers to the total way of life of any society; it carries none of the overtones of evaluation common to it in popular usage.² Linton defines culture as "the configuration of learned behaviour and results of behaviour whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society."³ The term configuration is here used to imply that the behaviour which composes the culture is organized into a patterned whole.

Moore and Lewis suggest that culture has at least the following dimensions. It is learned and not instinctive. It is inculcated by being passed on from generation to generation. It is social in that it is shared by aggregates of organized human beings. It is ideational and involves the learning of linguistic and symbolic behaviour. It is gratifying and satisfies man's needs. It is adaptive and changes in an evolutionary manner, and finally, it is integrative in that it forms a

patterned whole.⁴

Culture, then, is the pattern of all those arrangements, material or behavioural, which have been adopted by a society as the traditional ways of solving the problems of its members. Culture includes all the institutionalized ways and the implicit cultural beliefs, norms, values and premises which underlie and govern conduct.⁵

"Despite their great differences in other respects, all cultures have a number of characteristics in common - the so-called cultural universals."⁶ Marriage, family life, language, education, etc., are common to all cultures in a general way.

Within a complex heterogeneous culture such as that found in South Africa, a number of sub-cultures may be said to exist. Cultural differences such as language, religion, skin colour, eating habits, etc., are observable among the four population groups in South Africa. These sub-cultures can be further broken down within each group. So, for example, the white culture is different from the Bantu culture, and within the white culture observable differences exist between the English, Afrikaans and Jewish population groups.

Dichter, in analyzing the effects of culture on consumer behaviour, makes the following observations.

"Shadows, reflections, photographs and portraits in many cultures, particularly among primitive people, are considered visible manifestations of a person's soul".⁷

"The visual aspects of foods and the way they are eaten represents very important aspects of certain cultures".⁸

"There are many objects of love in our culture and folklore. A prime example of such symbols of affection are flowers".⁹

"Play and playthings have always been important elements in our lives. Leisure-time products have become a major part of advertising and marketing and will continue to be so in the future".¹⁰

Dichter suggests hundreds of other cultural influences on consumer purchasing behaviour, all based on over 2500 studies in the U.S.A., Canada, Europe, Latin America, Africa, and Australia.¹¹

In another paper, Dichter suggests that the world is made up of six groups of nations defined in terms of their culture and class structure. Group one are the almost classless societies, e.g., Sweden. Group two are the affluent countries, e.g. U.S.A., Germany, Holland and Canada. Group three are countries in transition where there still is a working class in the nineteenth century sense, e.g., England, France and South Africa. Group four are revolutionary countries just emerging from near starvation, e.g., Brazil, Chile and India. Group Five are primitive

countries, e.g., most of Africa. Group six are the new class societies, e.g., the Communist world.¹²

Many behaviouralists would disagree with Dichter's categorization of countries into these six groups; nevertheless, based on empirical research, Dichter has developed a significant categorization of nations by their behaviour and development.

One final aspect of culture that is of relevance in a study of consumer behaviour is cultural change. "Cultural change is the process by which a society improves or revises its adjustment to its environment through questioning traditional solutions and establishing new ways of living."¹³

Cultural change is an on-going process, and offers great opportunity to the marketing practitioner who is able to interpret and understand this process. Many significant cultural trends are observable today; the increase in automation and the rise in disposable income have changed the macro aspect of consumer behaviour.

The trend toward greater leisure time for large segments of the white South African population generates a need for more leisure products and forms of amusement.

The effect of the trend toward international travel and greater mobility permeates the entire economy and offers opportunities for new products and services.

There are many other cultural changes that affect consumer behaviour and that provide opportunity for new product development. A few of these trends are: the do-it-yourself trend; the trend toward informal living; the trend toward miniaturization of products; the trend toward convenience shopping; the trend toward a more permissive society, etc.

C. POLITICAL AND LEGAL ENVIRONMENT♦

The nature of the political and legal environment and the influence of this environment on consumer behaviour is not well covered in the literature. A possible explanation for this omission may lie in the fact that most of the literature and research in the field originates in the U.S.A. where the free enterprise system does not exert much of a constraining influence on consumer behaviour. Even this explanation is, however, questionable, for in the U.S.A. there are a multitude of laws and regulations that either assist or impinge on the free action of the consumer.

Most of the Western democracies are so-called free enterprise systems in which to a large extent the forces of supply and demand govern the nature of the economic process. In these societies, men are free to manufacture and supply at their discretion, and consumers are free to buy or reject at their discretion. In reality, the complexity of modern life renders this laissez faire doctrine dangerous and hence rules and regulations proliferate the market place.

In South Africa, the policy of Apartheid complicates what would be a complex system without Apartheid.

There are politically inspired laws which affect the consumption behaviour of 80.8% of the country's population.¹⁴ These people are limited in respect of the homes they may purchase, in respect of the travel they may indulge in, and in respect of the investments they may make.

There are also limitations on the degree to which they may participate in the economy of the nation. They cannot own stores in many locations. They cannot occupy many skilled positions, and they cannot mix socially with members of the white society.

These factors and many of the other implications of Apartheid exert a considerable influence on the purchasing behaviour of

the Bantu, the Asiatic, and the Coloured. In addition to the political and legal constraints placed upon the purchasing behaviour of these people, they are subject, as in many other cultures, to racial prejudice that also affects their purchasing behaviour.

While the policy of Apartheid is generally viewed as being a constraining influence on only the non-Europeans in South Africa, it must be realized that it also has an effect on the behaviour of White South Africans. The policy limits the discretion a European has in marketing his products or services. For example, he cannot employ Bantu salesmen to sell in white stores or to white customers. He cannot own stores in the densely populated Bantu or Coloured townships. He cannot allow non-Europeans to patronize white cinemas, restaurants, or night clubs.¹⁵

In addition to the complex legislation supporting the system of Apartheid, the South African consumer is constrained by a series of enactments affecting the conduct of business.

There are laws governing the hours during which stores may be open to the public. This greatly affects the behaviour of the consumer. He cannot shop in the evening for products

other than staples. This is in direct contrast to the U.S.A., where shopping hours are unlimited. The effect of this law is far reaching; family shopping in the evening is eliminated, and total consumption is therefore reduced.

There are laws governing the nature and composition of products offered. The Bureau of Standards exerts considerable influence on the quality of and the nature of both domestic and imported goods.

Import control, credit restrictions, protection of infant industries are all political and legal factors that influence the nature of consumer behaviour in South Africa and in all countries to a lesser or greater degree.

From the marketing practitioner's viewpoint the political and legal environment of the country must be understood and must be viewed in non-value terms. It is important to know how this environment influences consumer behaviour without becoming embroiled in the moral or ethical complications of the system. These complications are a private matter and should not cloud or confuse an understanding of the environment.

D. SOCIAL CLASS:

"In a sense, some very real distinctions exist in the buying behaviour of different social classes."¹⁶ The existence of a class structure is to be found in every country of the world, and has been a characteristic of man's culture through the ages. Many countries deny the existence of a class order, and most nations tend to decry the existence of such an order both at home and abroad.

The problem is not one of establishing that a class structure does exist, or is natural to man, but rather one of meaningful description and understanding of the nature of this structure.¹⁷

Society has traditionally been divided into three social classes: the upper, middle and lower classes. Within each class, people are assumed to possess similar emotions, values, ambitions, goals, etc., all of which influence their buying behaviour. Marketing programs, to be effective, must then be tailored to reach the social class that fits the product in question.¹⁸

Recognizing the existence of a class order is one thing; determining those attributes that separate one class from another is, however, more complex and less objective.

One author views social class as being defined in terms of the group's own perception of itself and its members.¹⁹ A class, then, exists when people of similar education, income, occupation etc., band together. Kahl suggests that there are six variables of social class: personal prestige, occupation, possessions, interactions, class consciousness, value orientation.²⁰

One of the most significant works on class structure is a book by W. Lloyd Warner on social class in America.²¹ In this work Warner and his associates define social class in terms of how members of a community regard each other, emphasizing the concept of reputation or participation in a community as the key to social class placement.²²

Like Bliss,²³ Warner views social class as being a function of a community's perception of its members. In order to measure and describe social class, however, Warner, like other writers, has used more concrete variables such as source of income, occupation, residential area, and type of dwelling.²⁴

The Warner Social Class System is comprised of six classes:

Upper Upper, i.e. the aristocracy

Lower Upper, i.e. the new rich

Upper Middle, i.e. professionals and managers

Lower Middle, i.e. white collar workers

Upper Lower, i.e. blue collar workers

Lower Lower, i.e., unskilled labourers²⁵

It must be remembered that this class structure was developed as a result of empirical research conducted in America, and consequently may not be applicable to other societies. For example, on the African continent, the existence of an aristocracy in Warnerian terms is questionable. There certainly are prominent families with third and fourth generation wealth in these areas, but their numbers are so few as to preclude them being termed a social class.

Coleman suggests that while the Warnerian class structure is of great value in the marketing of products and services, it is nevertheless still too crude and oversimplified to be realistic.²⁶

In short, not only must the sophisticated marketer abandon social class in favour of income categories on occasion in his analysis and interpretation of a market, he must recognize that at times both income and class are superseded in importance by divisions of the public into brow levels, by divisions into high mobiles, and low mobiles, innovators and non-innovators, inner directed and other directed, urbanites, suburbanites, exurbanites, ruralites or what have you . . . As a final point, let it be noted that the way of life and goals of people in each social class are in perpetual flux.²⁷

In spite of the criticism of using the class structure in order to define, measure and understand consumers, many credible studies have shown that social class is a determinant of consumer behaviour. Some examples of the effects of social class on consumer behaviour are described below.

Lower class people value education less than middle class people do, and hence purchase of educational products by the lower classes is minimal.²⁸

If you take three families, all earning around R4,000 a year but each from a different social class, a radical difference in their ways of spending money will be observed.²⁹

Social class affects how people feel about where they should shop, and how purposeful their shopping should be.³⁰

Attitudes toward advertising are affected by social class differences.³¹

One final aspect of social class influence on consumer behaviour relates to the "trickle effect". This refers to the mechanism whereby the lower social classes are able to strive for success and status by adopting products and services as they trickle down through the various socio-economic classes.³²

According to Fallers, there is a tendency in U.S. society and in other Western societies for new styles or fashions in consumption goods to be introduced via the socioeconomic elite or upper classes and then to pass down through the lower classes, often in the form of inexpensive mass-produced copies.³³ Fallers does not make clear whether this trickle effect is the result of income, education, taste, etc.; he does, however, indicate that highly standardized products such as appliances are less subject to taste and fashion, and hence they trickle down over a long period of time.³⁴

In South Africa, where there are four legally and rigidly defined population groups, the class structure becomes even more complex than in many other societies. In the melting pot that is America, there are no legal boundaries limiting the racial composition of social classes. This statement may appear naive when one considers the opportunity for a Negro, or Puerto Rican, to own an apartment on Fifth Avenue or to belong to the New York Amateur Athletic Club.

In South Africa the opportunity does not exist, by law, for an integrated class structure. As a result, each population group has its own class structure, and within each group there are sub-cultures which form independent class orders. A Jewish

doctor and an Afrikaans doctor with a similar income do not live in the same neighbourhood, do not belong to the same clubs, do not share similar values, etc. They each belong to the upper middle class, but in a different sub-culture. This situation is made even more complex when one considers the various tribal affiliations of the Bantu.

In order to appreciate the influence of the class structure on consumer behaviour in South Africa, it is necessary to understand the existing class structures in the various sub-cultures, and also the relationship between the class structure of the various sub-cultures.

At the most general level, the four population groups can each be viewed as having its own class structure in which such concepts as the trickle effect apply. This does not, however, explain the relationship of the trickle effect cross culturally or across social class.

E. ETHNIC, RELIGIOUS AND RACIAL FACTORS:

As part of the cultural, political and class environment of a society, ethnic and religious factors exert a significant influence on consumer behaviour. These factors could have been considered under the rubric of culture, political environment, or class order, but they are significant enough to warrant a separate sub-section. A considerable amount of space will be devoted to the place of the American Negro consumer in the American society, for it is this group that most closely approximates the values and position of the non-white in South African society.

The term ethnic is commonly used to designate groups characterized by distinctive origin. It refers to the minority groups of a society - groups that have an shared tradition and social life.³⁵

Race refers to people with a common biological heritage involving certain physical distinctions.³⁶

Religion refers to a common belief in God or supernatural being, and involves a common and different system of worship.

South Africa is composed of many ethnic groups, e.g., Jews, English, Afrikaners, Dutch, Coloured, Malay, Basuto, etc. These technic groups are, however, legally aggregated into four racial groups - White, Coloured, Bantu and Asiatic. This aggregation is, however, questionable in terms of the definitions of a race. For purpose of this study, however, the four population groups in South Africa will be viewed as being racially distinct.

Few subjects have generated as much argument or as many fallacies as the subject of race. One of the most common racial fallacies is the fallacy of the racial average or stereotype. In marketing this fallacy has cost millions of Rands. It is ludicrous to assume that all Bantus can be aggregated into a stereotype, and yet this happens every day. The number of conflicting statements about this group's purchasing behaviour is remarkable. For example, many businessmen assume that the Bantu cannot distinguish quality products, that Bantus are irrational buyers, that they are addicted to gaudy fashions, that they are motivated to buy what the white man buys, etc.

With this in mind, it can be said that ethnic and racial differences do affect consumer purchasing behaviour, but that sweeping generalizations of expected behaviour of one race are dangerous and often misleading.

Religion also plays a part in influencing consumer behaviour. Some of the effects of religion are directly related to religious law, and are common knowledge to most people. The fact that Jews are not supposed to eat non-Kosher meat, or shellfish, definitely affects their purchasing behaviour of food and their eating habits, both at home and in restaurants. Moslems are forbidden to drink spirits and consequently no bottle store is likely to be successful in a predominantly Moslem neighbourhood.

Religious law is not the only factor influencing consumer behaviour; in many cases the overall nature and philosophy of the religion influences behaviour. Max Weber³⁷ saw the Protestant ethic as being responsible for the rise of capitalism, and Emile Durkheim³⁸ saw a correlation between religion and suicide.

In South Africa, for example, the Calvinist religion affects women's fashions; mini-skirts are frowned upon as are bikinis,

and see-through blouses. The type of entertainment available and desired is also influenced by the religion; night clubs with strip shows are rare, so are girlie magazines, pornographic, violent or racially integrated movies or plays. The degree to which consumers are spenders or savers, conservative or hippie, permissive or amoral is affected by the various religions of the country.

While the South African racial and religious environment is unlike that found anywhere else, it does have certain similarities with the American scene. Of particular interest are the similarities between the American Negro and the South African non-European, and the relationship of these groups with the white segments of both countries. A considerable amount of research has been conducted on the purchasing behaviour of the American Negro, and these studies are of some relevance when viewing the behaviour of the South African non-white.

The drive to belong gives black and white consumer special kinds of market orientations. One of the most important of those fostered among Negroes is the pronounced inclination to trade across racial-cultural boundaries. They are inclined to cross boundaries as to the kinds of goods they buy, and the places where they buy them.³⁹

In spite of the drive to trade across-culturally and to emulate the whites, the Negroes are different in buying behaviour from any other group with low income and education in America.⁴⁰

Negroes have accepted the values of the majority of white middle-class culture but are at a disadvantage in obtaining those values or of being accepted by the whites. The consequence of this is the split of the Negroes into two groups, one of which is made up of "strivers", those actively engaged with the world around them, and the other of people more withdrawn and less intent on pursuing white middle-class products or values.⁴¹

In a major study of the marketing dilemma of Negroes, Bauer, et al., synthesized data from over a dozen surveys in order to test the extent to which a separate and meaningful Negro market exists. The basic conclusions of this research were that there is a Negro market with special characteristics other than income and education.⁴² Some of the other more significant findings of this research were: Negroes underspend as compared with whites of equal income in four major areas; housing, automobiles, food and medical care. This makes available to Negroes proportionately more money for goods in other categories, e.g., clothing, alcohol and furniture.⁴³

The evidence that Negroes underspend as compared with whites in the area of automobiles seems contrary to the observed driving habits of Negroes. In most of the large U.S. cities, even in slum areas, it is common to find Negroes driving the largest and flashiest cars available. One possible explanation for the research evidence is that while Negroes drive expensive large cars, they are not generally two or three car families as are the Whites, and therefore in total the Whites spend more on cars than the Negroes.

Negro women were at least as fashion conscious or more so than white women. An interesting finding relates to the drinking patterns of the Negroes. They consume 1.25 times as much alcohol as a white family with a similar per capita income, and over three times as much Scotch. It appears that Scotch is associated with high status among Negroes, particularly among those that are upwardly mobile.⁴⁴

In another paper by the same author, the following conclusions about Negro behaviour viz-a-viz white behaviour are made. Negroes are more likely to talk about products; they are more likely to shop with friends; they find more difficulty in making shopping decisions; they show more brand awareness; and they seek information that helps them avoid making shopping mistakes.⁴⁵

One obvious conclusion from many of the findings on Negro shopping behaviour is that they have a great desire to avoid the discomfort associated with cognitive dissonance and hence they seek support for their actions by being better informed and more brand loyal than white consumers. Negroes also seek legitimation both before and after a purchase from friends and from testimonial sources.

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CHAPTER V.

GROUP INFLUENCES AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

A. THE NATURE OF GROUPS:

Consumers do not live in isolation; they are all part of an interacting and interdependent society in which their actions are influenced by those around them. A consumer may be a member of many groups at the same time, and all these groups will exercise some influence on his behaviour.

"A group comes into being to achieve the wants of its members; in the course of interaction the members develop a group ideology which regulates their attitudes and actions and influences their satisfactions."¹

The critical factors, distinguishing a random aggregate of people from a group, are the common interests, purpose, beliefs, values and norms shared by the members of the group. The influence a group exerts on its members depends on a variety of factors including the degree to which the members adhere to the group's norms or standard ways of behaving.

People generally join a group because they feel it can provide some satisfaction for them - it satisfies some of their needs, particularly social needs. The cohesiveness of a group - the degree to which it sticks together - will be dependent on the ability of the group to satisfy members' needs. Research has shown that group cohesiveness is related to the size of the group, and to the similarity in background of its members.² This tends to reinforce the theory that frequent face-to-face contact generates greater attraction and influence than less frequent, impersonal contact.

The family is an excellent example of a close face-to-face cohesive group serving a vital function for its members. Even in the case of a family, however, it is not unusual to find group members satisfying different needs. When larger organizations are examined, the diversity of need satisfying attributes of the group increases rapidly.

The more a person participates in a group, the more socially integrated he tends to be in that group. Regardless of an individual's commitment to any one group, it is unlikely that this group can fulfill all the needs of its members, and hence most people belong to many groups.³

"In all groups, the positions, roles, and powers of the members become differentiated and organized into a system - the group structure - which influences the functioning of the group and the satisfactions of the members,"⁴

As groups grow larger, the group structure changes - it becomes more fractured, and smaller sub-groups or cliques spring up within the overall group. These sub-groups operate within the overall framework of the parent organization, but they usually satisfy needs over and above those for which the parent organization was formed.

B. ROLE AND STATUS:

A role refers to the prescribed and expected behaviour of an individual in a specific situation.⁵ An individual has many roles corresponding to the numerous groups he is affiliated with. The roles within any one group are interrelated. As a person moves from one group to another, however, his role behaviour will, and is expected to change in order to suit the new environment.⁶

The role behaviour of an individual depends on a series of complex factors. The individual's background, perceptions,

motivations, needs, attitudes, etc., will all affect the way he actually plays his role. The concept of role, then, has two and probably three dimensions. Each individual has a prescribed role or expected pattern of behaviour. Each individual has a perceived role, i.e., the way he views his prescribed role. Each individual has an action role, i.e., the way he actually behaves. These three dimensions of a role may all be different, depending on the motivations, cognitions and learning of the individual.⁷

The concept of role behaviour is of significance to consumer behaviour as it influences the purchasing pattern of consumers. In a buying situation, some people will buy products because they feel that these products are consistent with their own particular role.⁸ A highly successful businessman is not to be seen riding a motorcycle to work or going to a workingman's diner for lunch. This behaviour just would not be consistent with either his prescribed or perceived role.

Closely related to the role an individual has in a group is the status that the role and the individual are ascribed. Status is generally viewed as the position of an individual in the prestige system of the group, organization, or society.⁹

The status or ranking in terms of prestige of an individual has two dimensions. The role he occupies may have status, and the way he performs it may also provide status. These two aspects of status are not always congruent. In addition, role or status incongruence may also exist when an individual belongs to two totally dissimilar groups, whose views are irreconcilable. For example, the highly successful businessman could have been a "hippie" in his spare time. In this case, both groups would censure him for violating group norms, and if the violations become extreme or the discomfort to the individual becomes intolerable he would probably have to forego membership in one of the groups.

The nature of society has, and is, changing rapidly. As changes occur, so the nature of groups change, as do the roles and statuses of people in these groups. One major example of a changing role is that of the woman in society. She has become emancipated and is now of major importance in deciding what shall or shall not be purchased by the family unit. In addition, her emancipation has resulted in a host of new products being marketed and in the increased use of existing products. She now smokes, drinks, educates, travels, governs, and in the eyes of many Americans, decides the what, when, and where of the family's

consumption behaviour.

According to Hepner,¹⁰ women now fall into three role categories. The first category includes the creatives. The purchasing behaviour of these women is related to their desire to fulfill their role of being creative whether in working, home decorating or bringing up children. The second group are the true homemakers. These are the women the advertiser tries to reach through promotions such as premiums or low prices. They are not motivated to be creative; they rather want a good buy at a good price. The third group are the potential career women who feel imprisoned by the home, and are not susceptible to the advertising of home products.

C. FAMILY INFLUENCES AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR:

"Family activities account for a great deal of spending, especially in the leisure-time field; and family habits influence both the present and the future purchasing behaviour of its members. As an important unit of spending, the family and its changing patterns of living influence the total market."¹¹

Shaffer¹² views the family as a system with three basic consuming units: 1) The family as a consuming unit; 2) The household as

consuming unit; 3) Family members themselves as consuming units. The purchasing behaviour and the types of consumption differ among the three units. The family as a unit is involved with purchases that provide tangible satisfaction to all, e.g., recreation. The household is involved with purchases such as house maintenance, and the individual family members are involved with purchases that provide satisfaction primarily or only to the purchaser, e.g., personal hobbies.

Bell suggests that the norms of family consumption are related to the nature or pattern of the life style of the family.¹³

He posits three basic types of family life styles and four combinations of these basic styles. The three basic styles are 1) familism - great emphasis on family living, child rearing and early marriage; 2) Career - emphasis on career and getting ahead; 3) Consumership - emphasis on buying, spending and consuming with little emphasis on the concept of familism or career.¹⁴

A third method of viewing the nature of family consumer behaviour is suggested by Lansing and Kish.¹⁵ They state that the traditional method of predicting the purchasing behaviour of the family by using the age of the head of the family as

the independent variable is frequently fallacious. They suggest using the family life cycle (FLC) as an alternative variable. Their thesis is that changes occur in people's attitudes and behaviour as they get older, but many of these changes may be associated less with the biological process of aging than with the influence of age upon the individual's family memberships. Thus the critical dates in the life of a consumer may not be his birthdays, but rather when a change occurs in his family status, for example, when he marries or when his first child is born.¹⁶

Meyer¹⁷ also suggests that the family cycle can be broken down into phases in which the motivations, cognitions and learning of the adult vary. He suggests four cycles, but does not provide empirical evidence to substantiate the hypotheses that behaviour takes place in cycles. The first cycle is young adulthood from age 20 to 35. The period is characterized by the introduction into the adult world of life, work and individual responsibility; by a concern for vocational skills, child rearing and home relationships. The second cycle of the middle years, 35 to 50, is characterized by adult and teen-age relationships, prestige and status in the community, vocational interest and advancement, and a widening circle of friendships. The

third cycle of the free years, 50 to 65, is associated with children leaving home, general economic security, the acquisition of new leisure and the move toward retirement. The final cycle of senior citizenship from 65 on is characterized by retirement, comfort, illness and contribution of services.¹⁸

In a study on class differences in family decision making, Komarovskiy¹⁹ suggests that there is a relationship between the extent of joint decision making in purchasing and the social class and amount of inter-family communication that takes place. The research indicates that among the lower classes there is little opportunity to debate alternative product purchases because most of the income is spent on necessities; for the upper classes there is also little debate due to economic leeway. The middle classes show greater flexibility in role definitions and greater acceptance of the ideal of companionship in marriage, and as a result, there is considerable debate regarding product selection. The next step in the research indicated that, "There is greater autonomy with regard to expenditures at the bottom and at the top of the socioeconomic hierarchy than among the middle classes."²⁰

In another study on husband-wife interaction in decision making, the researchers created a controlled situation by requesting

the sample couples to assume that they had been given a gift of \$300 that had to be spent. They were then asked to discuss together how they should spend the money. The results indicate that when the spouses talked equally they were more likely to choose wife-household items than items for the husband or children. When the husband dominated, the products selected were more frequently for the use of the entire family. When the wife dominated there was a tendency for the couple to choose more products for the personal use of the wife.²¹

From the above studies, it is apparent that the family exerts a significant influence on consumer behaviour. The family is the most closely knit and the most enduring of all groups. As a result of this, the decision making process of the family unit is to some extent a joint effort, being more so for middle income families and less so for lower and upper income families.

The factors of most relevance to the study and understanding of the purchasing behaviour of the family unit appears to be the stage of the life cycle they are presently in.

D. REFERENCE GROUP FACTORS

A reference group is defined as "any group with which an individual identifies himself such that he tends to use the group as a standard for self-evaluation and as a source of his personal values and goals. The reference groups of the individual may include both membership groups and groups to which he aspires to belong."²²

The notion inherent in reference group analysis is that there are important others who influence people's behaviour.²³

Consumers are influenced by other people, particularly those people with whom they have face-to-face contact and those people with whom they have some point of reference. Consumers are constantly exposed to other groups' opinions and possessions; the extent to which they admire, respect or aspire to the group they are exposed to will influence their own buying behaviour.

Shibutani²⁴ suggests that the inconsistency in behaviour as a person moves from one social contact to another can be explained in terms of a change in reference groups. The concept has been particularly useful in accounting for the choices made among apparent alternatives, particularly where the selections seem to be contrary to the best interests of the consumer.²⁵

Shibutani suggests three ways of viewing the concept of reference group. The first and most common usage of the term is in the designation of that group which serves as the point of reference in making comparisons or contrasts especially in forming judgments about one's self. Under this definition, then, a reference group is a standard or check point which the consumer uses to form some estimation of his behaviour. Any group with which the consumer is familiar may serve as a reference group.²⁶

The second type of reference group is the one to which consumers aspire to belong. This group is generally associated with status; its symbols are thought to provide prestige. Consumers who aspire to climb the ladder of social or economic success generally use upper income groups as a point of reference or a standard of behaviour.²⁷ For example, if the son of a labourer aspires to join the ranks of the middle class, he is likely to use this class as his reference group when making buying decisions.

The third usage of the term relates to groups whose perspectives constitute the frame of reference for the consumer.²⁸ In this context, certain groups are used as anchoring points in structuring the consumer's perceptions.²⁹ These groups

help the consumer organize his cognitions; they provide the framework by which the consumer structures his behaviour. These groups need not be groups to which the consumer aspires or seeks acceptance; a member of some minority group may despise it but still see the world largely through its eyes. In summary, then, the three usages of the term reference group are: (1) groups which serve as comparison points; (2) groups to which consumers aspire; and (3) groups whose perspectives are assumed by the consumer.

An example of how these three concepts of reference group influence may converge can be seen in the women's fashion industry. A lower class woman, say, may have lived all her life among the lower classes, and hence will use this group as the one whose perspectives she assumes in matters of dress, sex, or chastity. In addition, this same woman may use other groups whom she comes into contact as a point of comparison when she buys clothes. Finally, in spite of her background she may aspire to the middle class, and may be influenced by this group's fashion when buying a dress.

Just as these three reference group concepts can converge, so can they come into conflict, and cause a state of cognitive dissonance for consumers. Using the same lower class woman

as the subject, it is apparent that if the group to which she aspires is wearing see-through blouses while her comparison groups frown upon such blouses, and her perspective groups consider them immoral, then she is likely to suffer a certain degree of psychological conflict.

The degree to which a consumer is susceptible to reference group influence depends on a variety of factors. Research indicates that those people who enjoy high status within a group are more secure than those who enjoy low status. Furthermore, while the high security members generally conform both publicly and privately to group norms, they nevertheless are the freest to deviate from such norms when, in their opinion, the situation justifies these deviations. Low security people, in spite of disagreement with group norms, seldom deviate from them.

In a study by Ash, a group of students were asked to publicly compare a series of lines of different lengths. After several runs of this test, the entire group but one was instructed to give wrong answers unanimously regarding the length of the lines being compared. The student not informed of this fact found himself in a minority of one facing a unanimous majority whose opinion on a simple fact appeared to be incorrect.

The response of the isolate to group pressure varied. One quarter of the experimental subjects were completely independent and never agreed with the erroneous judgment of the majority. Numerous respondents always agreed with the majority, and some respondents varied their responses. The major conclusions of this research were that people are disturbed by opposing group pressure even when they do take an independent stand. In addition, given the support of just one more subject, the experimental subjects' independence increased.³⁰

In a study of fashion, it was found that reference group influence provided the consumer with both the opportunity to conform and the opportunity to differentiate oneself from others. The study further indicated that as fashion trickles down to lower reference groups, it is dropped by initiating groups who do not wish to be further associated with it.³¹

In a study on the conformity and independence of consumer behaviour the researchers asked a group of male students to evaluate and select the best suit among three identical men's suits. The respondents were told that the suits were of a different quality. When the subjects evaluated the suits independently each suit was equally likely to be selected.

When the subjects were asked to publicly state their preference, it was found that group pressure was of major significance in determining the response of those subjects that responded last. The conclusions of this research were that consumers accept information provided by their peer groups on the quality of a product or of a style. Furthermore, group norms provide a point of reference which is the first stage in the consumer decision making process.³²

In a study on the effects of group influence on consumer brand preferences for bread, Stafford was able to make the following conclusions:

- 1) Informal groups had a definite influence on their members' conformity behaviour with respect to brands of bread preferred;
- 2) In cohesive groups, the probability was much higher that the members would choose the same bread as the group leader;
- 3) The extent and degree of brand loyalty within a group was closely related to the behaviour of the informal leader, i.e., the higher the leader's loyalty the higher the group's loyalty.³³

A study on the correlates of success in retail selling found that:

In a retail sales group high production as measured by sales volume and money earned seems to depend on the individual's disposition to violate the group's norms. The tendency was highly correlated with downward occupational mobility and a higher reference group or stratum than his own.³⁴

In summary, reference groups influence the consumer's buying behaviour. They produce conformity but also generate conflict and discomfort. They enable consumers to evaluate their status, behaviour and norms. They assist consumers by reducing the risk of purchase. They provide points of aspiration, degrees of legitimization and sanctification and the opportunity for belonging, respect and recognition.

E. OPINION LEADERS

There always have been and there always will be men and women who are much more influential than others in any society . . . Some of these influentials set trends by causing change or by taking courses of action, whereas others exert their influence through their opinions.³⁵

These influential people are of major importance to the marketing practitioner both for established products and

particularly for new product introduction. The adoption or rejection of a new product by these leaders frequently determines the success or failure of the innovation.)

Gifted people, whether they occupy formal positions of leadership or not, often play a decisive part in bringing about change. If they are able to generate change, or if they are imitated by others, they are leaders. Anthropologists have traditionally singled out two classes of people who have this quality. The first are the marginal men, the deviants who question traditional ways of doing things. The second group are the high status or high prestige people, who because of their wealth or position are followed by others.³⁶

Many names have been used to characterize these people. The following are the names most commonly found in the literature: innovators, opinion leaders, taste makers, trend setters, high mobiles, influentials, early adopters, and cosmopolites. Whatever name these individuals go under, it is important to understand their influence and the effect they have on other people. In order to conceptualize the effect of opinion leaders on other consumers, it is necessary to examine the diffusion process of products in society.

The diffusion process assumes the existence of several categories of consumers who all have different motivations and cognitions. These categories are linked to each other such that influence spreads from the opinion leaders on through the rest of society.

F. ADOPTER CATEGORIES

Rogers³⁷ suggests that there are five ideal adopter categories of consumers. The first category includes the "innovators", those consumers that are obsessed with innovations. They are the first to try something new, and they have certain discernable characteristics. They are cosmopolite, wealthy, enjoy risk-taking, are friendly with others of the same stamp and are generally young.

The second category of adopters are the "early adopters". These are the people who exert the greatest degree of opinion leadership in society. They are not as radical as the innovators and hence have the respect of later adopters. They are generally localites who have a higher degree of education than most. Future adopters look to them for advice and they

are used as points of reference. Early adopters are not too far ahead of the masses; they are not in tune with a different drummer and hence they are the embodiment of successful and discrete use of new ideas and products.³⁸

The third category of adopters are the "early majority", those consumers who are just ahead of the average consumer in the adoption of new products. These consumers are more deliberate than the early adopters, and they follow the adage of neither first nor last.³⁹

The fourth category of adopters is the late majority. These consumers wait until public opinion has firmly endorsed the innovation before trying it. They tend to wait until the innovation is no longer an innovation or until the pressure of their peers generates adoption.⁴⁰

The fifth category of adopters is the "laggards". These are the isolates of society, people who are suspicious of anything new. They use past generations as their point of reference. They are traditional to the extreme and when they do finally adopt the innovation it is not unlikely that several newer products will already be in the pipe line.⁴¹

It was mentioned earlier that these five adopter categories are ideal types. In reality no clear cut distinction can be made, and in many cases overlapping of categories is common.

One of the basic theories of the diffusion process is the theory that products or ideas spread or diffuse from their source through the five adopter categories in some meaningful pattern. The theory assumes that if the product or service is rejected by any one of the adopter categories, it is unlikely to spread further through the market. A further major hypothesis is that some people have more influence in the spread of new products, ideas or services; these people are the opinion leaders or early adopters. If these theories are true, then it is essential that the marketing practitioner identify those people most likely to act as either opinion leaders or rejectors of his product. These are the people who will be of major importance to the success of his product. If they accept it, it is likely to succeed, but if they reject it, it may be foolish to continue marketing.⁴²

The critical question now arises - how can opinion leaders be

identified before introduction of the new product. According to Rogers inadequate research has been conducted in this area, and most of the work that has been done is in the field of rural sociology.

Two possible methods used for predicting opinion leaderships are multiple correlation and what is here termed the total value approach. In both approaches, it is necessary for the researcher to select a series of independent variables which are believed to be of greatest significance in determining innovativeness. So for example should television be introduced into South Africa, it might be possible to determine whom the opinion leaders would be in terms of say 4 variables. These variables could be: degree of home entertaining, communication behaviour, wealth and individual attitudes.

In the multiple correlation method of prediction, it is possible to determine the relative contribution of each of the four independent variables in explaining the dependent variable namely innovativeness. The goals of this correlation being to explain the maximum of the variation in the dependent variable.

A second method of predicting innovativeness, here termed, the total value method is described below. Assume the dependent variable remains the degree of innovativeness, and the independent variables remain, degree of home entertaining, communication behaviour, wealth and individual attitudes.

It is now possible to weigh each of the independent variables in terms of their total influence on innovativeness. Assume degree of home entertaining has a weight of .4; communication behaviour .2; wealth .2; individual attitudes .2.

It is now possible through a survey, to determine the score for a sample of respondents on each of the independent variables. Assume a sample of, say, 200 people each respondent after interview and analysis can be given a score on each variable. These scores are then multiplied by the various weights, and then added to give a total value score.

Cut off points can now be established in order to group scores into adopter categories. Table V.I. demonstrates how this method operates.

G. FLOW OF COMMUNICATION AND DIFFUSION

In order to comprehend the flow of influence and information through the market, it is necessary to examine the theory of the two step flow of communication. This theory suggests that ideas often flow from radio and print to opinion leaders and from these to the less active sections of the population.⁴³⁾ Numerous studies have been conducted to test the validity of this hypothesis. To date, most of the research has been conducted in the field of agriculture and rural sociology. A recent bibliography of research on the diffusion of innovations contains 600 citations, 341 of which are in the field of rural sociology.⁴⁴

One of the classic studies of diffusion was the Deatur study of 1945-46. This study sought to trace the flow of influence among 800 women in Decatur, Illinois, with respect to movies, fashion, public affairs, and food shopping. The study concluded that opinion leaders are to be found in similar numbers in all classes, depending upon the product category being analyzed. Opinion leaders for one group of products were not usually opinion leaders for another group of products. Women with large families were generally opinion leaders for

food products, while teenagers were influential for movies, and young women for fashion.⁴⁵

This same study also found that the degree and extent of interaction with other people was a major factor differentiating leaders from followers in all the groups examined.⁴⁶

This study substantiated the claims made in an earlier study on voting behaviour where the authors suggested that influence stemming from mass media reaches opinion leaders first and they in turn pass on this information to their everyday associates who are influenced by the leaders.⁴⁷

In rural sociology the time lag between introduction and adoption of new products is most pronounced. Fourteen years elapsed between the introduction and universal adoption of hybrid corn.⁴⁸ The adoption process for agricultural products usually involves the following mental process: (1) Awareness but inadequate product information; (2) Interest in the product and the search for more information; (3) Evaluation of the possible applications of the product, and a decision to either try it or not; (4) Trial of the product usually on a small scale; (5) Adoption and integration of the product into the farm.⁴⁹

This same study found that farm leaders had more favourable attitudes towards science, placed less emphasis on security, were more venturesome, younger, with larger more profitable, affluent and specialized farms.⁵⁰

In another study on the adoption of new farm products, it was found that friends, neighbours and other personal sources of information performed a major role in evaluating new products. The role of impersonal sources of influence were also important in diffusion, but radio, television and media influence was less uniform than was personal influence.⁵¹

In the famous drug study the researchers sought to trace the importance of interpersonal influence among physicians in the adoption of new drugs. By the use of sociometric methods the study was able to show that doctors who were more highly integrated into the medical community exerted greater influence in the diffusion process than doctors less integrated. The innovative and influential doctors were consulted more often by their colleagues, they were more likely to attend out of town medical conventions, and they used impersonal sources of information to a greater degree than did the later adopters.⁵²

Hundreds of other empirical studies have been conducted on the

importance of opinion leaders on consumer behaviour. Whyte, for example, found that the location of one's house can play a major role in opinion leadership. Using air conditioners to study this, he found that influence tends to flow up and down streets rather than across streets, where there is less chance for interaction.⁵³ In another study the taste makers were found to be highly mobile, more educated, with a wider variety of friends and more selective in their politics than the rest of society.⁵⁴

Sufficient evidence has been presented to validate the hypothesis that society is categorized into groups of consumers who adopt innovations at a different rate. It is now relevant to determine the percentage break-down of these categories.

Bohlen and his associates suggest that the mass market is broken down in the following way: innovators 2.5%; early adopters 13.5%; early majority 34%; late majority 34%; laggards 16%.⁵⁵ Hepner⁵⁶ and Rogers⁵⁷ agree with this breakdown, but suggest that it is not constant, and may vary with respect to the products being considered, and the groups being analyzed. Webster suggests that by definition the breakdown will always be of the order suggested.⁵⁸

Figure V.I is a diagrammatic representation of the diffusion process. Each category is continuous with the one preceding it, and each group influences the group succeeding it. The early adopters or opinion leaders exert the greatest influence on the diffusion of the innovation.

Table V.II is a brief summary of the major attributes of opinion leaders. This summary is an expanded version of similar representations by Bell⁵⁹ and Bohlen.⁶⁰

H. DIFFUSION AND THE CHANGE AGENT

So far the diffusion has dealt primarily with the personal influence exerted by opinion leaders on the rest of the market. It is now necessary to consider several other factors that influence consumer behaviour in the adoption of new products.

Of major importance in influencing consumers is the commercial change agent. Rogers defines a change agent as a professional person who attempts to influence adoption decisions in a direction that he feels is desirable.⁶¹ Change agents are generally people who have a stake in the adoption of the new

product. They may be salesmen government people or members of bodies seeking to advance some concept or idea. Generally in the area of marketing change agents are representatives of the company selling the new product. They may be hard sell salesmen, or they may be company presidents trying to convince colleagues in other companies to adopt the product in question.

The agents bring the information directly to the consumer, and their task is to inform, demonstrate and persuade. Research indicates that early adopters have more contact with change agents than do any other category of consumers. Bohlen found that early adopters have 33% more contact with change agents than do the next most contacted category, the innovators.⁶² One of the conclusions that can be drawn from this finding is that opinion leaders learn about new products from these agents before the mass market. Furthermore, the fact that opinion leaders are more willing to take risks is one of the reasons for their acceptance of the change agent's information.

A further source of influence in the diffusion process is impersonal influences. This subject is not as well treated in the literature as personal influence, and hence much of what follows is based on observation.

Consumers are influenced by advertising, radio, magazines, newspapers, movies, etc. These impersonal media all play a part in the adoption of new products. It is suggested that their influence is greater on the opinion leaders than on the later adopters. This is logical when one accepts the fact that for the opinion leaders there are no friends, neighbours or associates from whom advice can be sought - the product is as yet unknown to the rest of the market, and therefore opinion leaders are forced to rely heavily on impersonal sources of information sent as advertising.

Of particular relevance in impersonal influence is the testimony of the source. If the product is from a well respected company, or if it is promoted by a person thought to be an expert, or if it is felt to be the result of extensive research, then the effect of the impersonal influence will be extensive. For example, if Dr. Spock endorsed a new baby product, or if Gary Player promoted a new golf club, or if Christiaan Barnard developed a new heart pill, or if Rolls Royce produced a new car, the opinion leaders would feel more secure and be more likely to adopt one of these products than a product from an unknown source.

There is some evidence to substantiate this hypothesis. When John Glenn orbited the earth it was reported that he had eaten spaghetti prior to the flight because doctors felt that carbohydrates provided more energy than protein. This information was well publicized, and had an effect on the eating habits of athletes.⁶³

It is also suggested that the phenomenal success of Crest toothpaste is related to the testimony of the American Dental Society that Crest is effective in reducing new cavities.⁶⁴

One final factor influencing consumer behaviour in the diffusion of new products is reference group influence. Consumers are sensitive to the actions of their various reference groups, and will be influenced by them. Acceptance or rejection of a new fashion by an aspired-to reference group is likely to result in a similar action on the part of the aspiring consumer.

I. MODEL OF THE DIFFUSION PROCESS.

A tentative descriptive model is now suggested that synthesizes the diffusion process and the way in which it influences consumer behaviour. Figure V.2 represents the flow of information from the manufacturer through to the various consumer adopter categories. This flow is personal and it involves the generation of new products, service and ideas. It must be noted that in the case of the manufacturer, wholesaler and retailer there is a diffusion process similar to that found among consumers. This process is represented in Figure V.3.

In order to make this model more complete it must include the other factors, both personal and impersonal, that influence consumer behaviour. Figure V.4. demonstrates how change agents, media advertising, testimonial advertising and store and company loyalty all influence the diffusion process. The lines representing the flow of influence of these factors are represented as moving from high influence to low influence as the products become diffused.

The two final aspects that need to be considered in this model are the effect of the various sources of information and in-

fluence on the consumer and the effect of personal influence on the diffusion process. It is suggested that opinion leaders, reference groups, change agents, advertising and testimonial support all provide some degree of legitimization, consensual validation, risk reduction and information for later adopters. This process is represented in Figure V.5. The extent to which these factors provide consumers with information and psychological support will depend on the adopter category in question, and the nature of the product. It is suggested by the literature that change agents and impersonal sources of information provide greater support to earlier adopters than to later adopters. The later adopters rely more on personal sources of information and support.

Figure V.1

Distribution of Consumers by Adopter Category

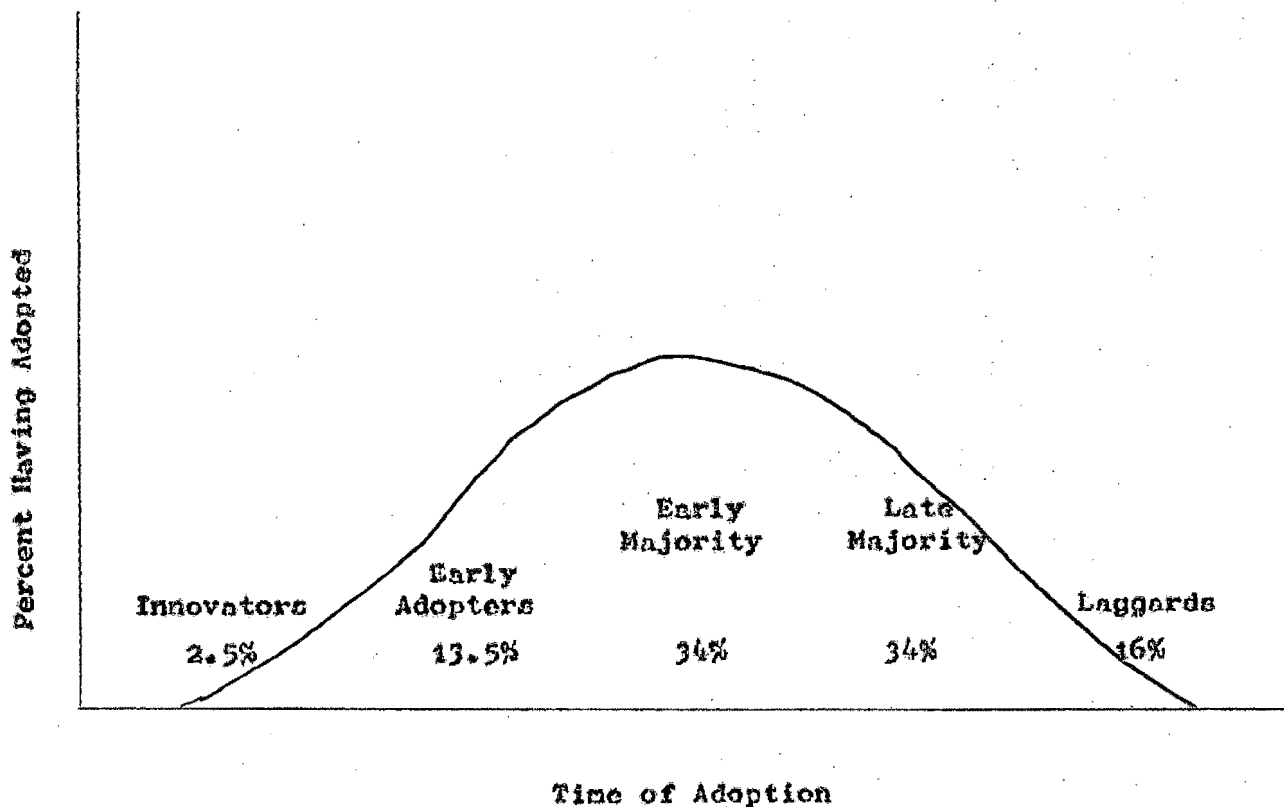


TABLE V.1

PREDICTING INNOVATIVENESS - TOTAL VALUE METHOD

r	a	wa	I	b	wb	II	c	wc	III	d	wd	IV	TV
1	.6	.4	.24	.5	.2	.10	.7	.2	.14	.6	.2	12	.57
2	.2	.4	.08	.3	.2	.06	.4	.2	.08	.4	.2	08	.30
3	.4	.4	.16	.4	.2	.08	.3	.2	.06	.5	.2	10	.31
4	.9	.4	.36	.7	.2	.14	.8	.2	.16	.9	.2	18	.84
5	.3	.4	.12	.2	.2	.04	.2	.2	.04	.2	.2	04	.24

n

a Degree of home entertaining - score out of 1.0
 b Communication behaviour - score out of 1.0
 c Wealth or income - score out of 1.0
 d Individual attitudes - score out of 1.0

wa Weight of a - .4

wb Weight of b - .2

wc Weight of c - .2

wd Weight of d - 1.0

r Respondent - n=200

I, II, III, IV - score for independent variable multiplied by its weight

TV - Total value or score on all four variables.

TABLE V.1 (Continued)

<u>ADOPTER</u>	<u>SCORE</u>
<u>CATEGORY</u>	<u>_____</u>
Innovators	98 - 100
Opinion Leaders	84 - 97
Early Majority	50 - 83
Late Majority	16 - 49
Laggards	0 - 15

THEREFORE FROM EXAMPLE

Innovators	None
Opinion Leaders	1
Early Majority	1
Late Majority	3
Laggards	None

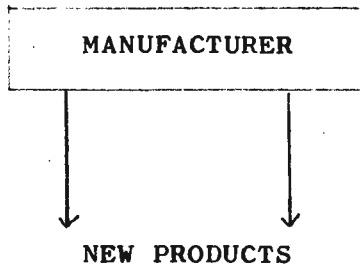
123
TABLE V. 2

Characteristics and Communication Behaviour of Adopter Categories

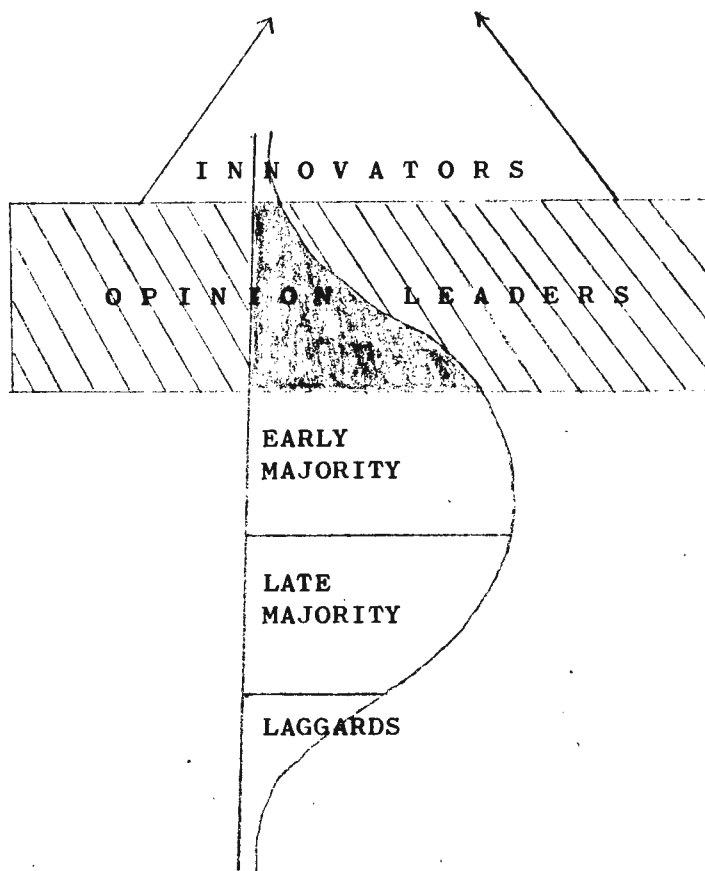
Characteristic or Behaviour	Innovators	Early Adopters	Early Majority	Late Majority	Laggards
1. Time of Adoption	First 2.5% to adopt	Next 13.5% to adopt	Next 34% to adopt	Next 34% to adopt	Last 16% to adopt
2. Attitudes and values	Scientific and venturesome	Progressive	More conservative	Skeptical of new products	Extreme traditionalists
3. Education level	Very high	High	Slightly above average	Slightly below average	Low
4. Social status	High	Very high	Slightly above average	Average	Low
5. Age	Young	Youngest	No data	No data	No data
6. Income	Very high	High	Inadequate data but generally average or below		
7. Group membership	High	Very high	Average	Below average	Low
8. Information source	Impersonal and change agents	Impersonal and change agents	Personal and impersonal	Personal	Personal
9. Home ownership	High	Very high	Above average	No data	No data
10. Travel	Very high	Very high	Average	Little	None

FIGURE V. 2

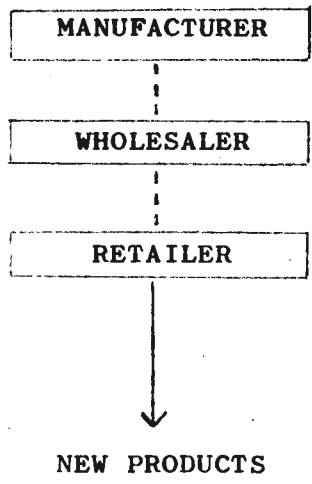
DIFFUSION FROM MANUFACTURER TO
OPINION LEADERS



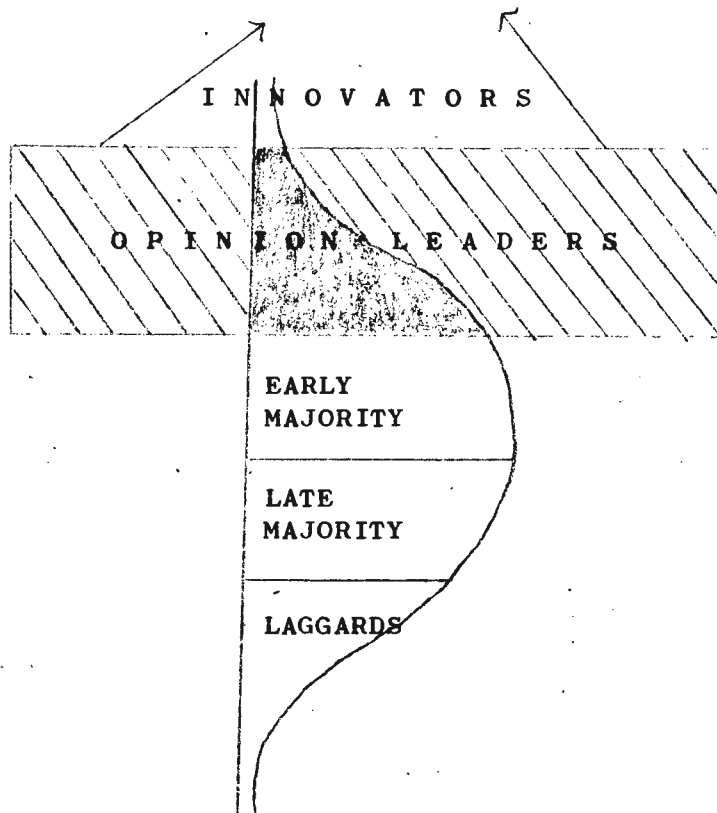
SEEKING NEW PRODUCTS



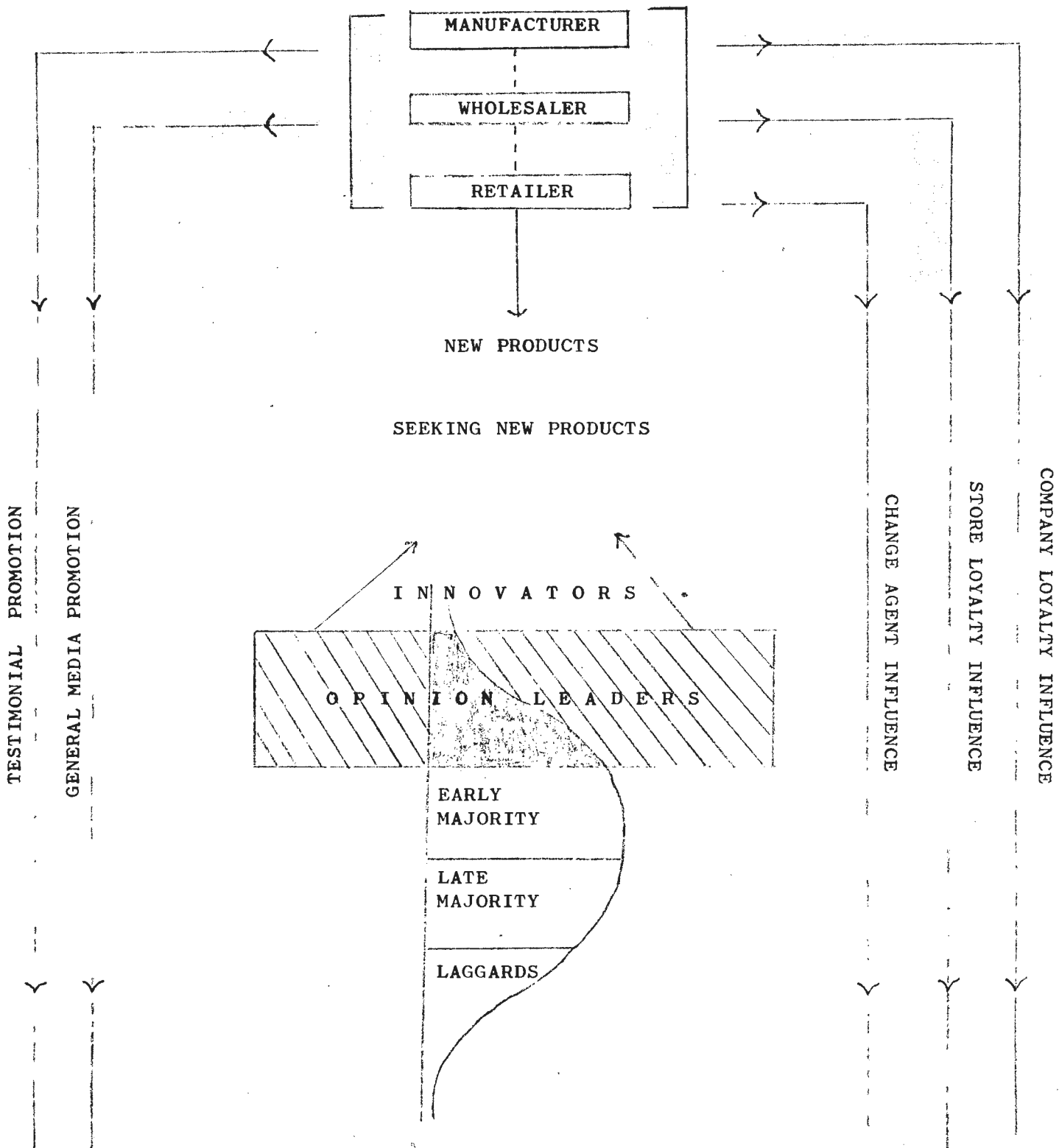
DIFFUSION THROUGH DISTRIBUTION NETWORK TO OPINION LEADERS



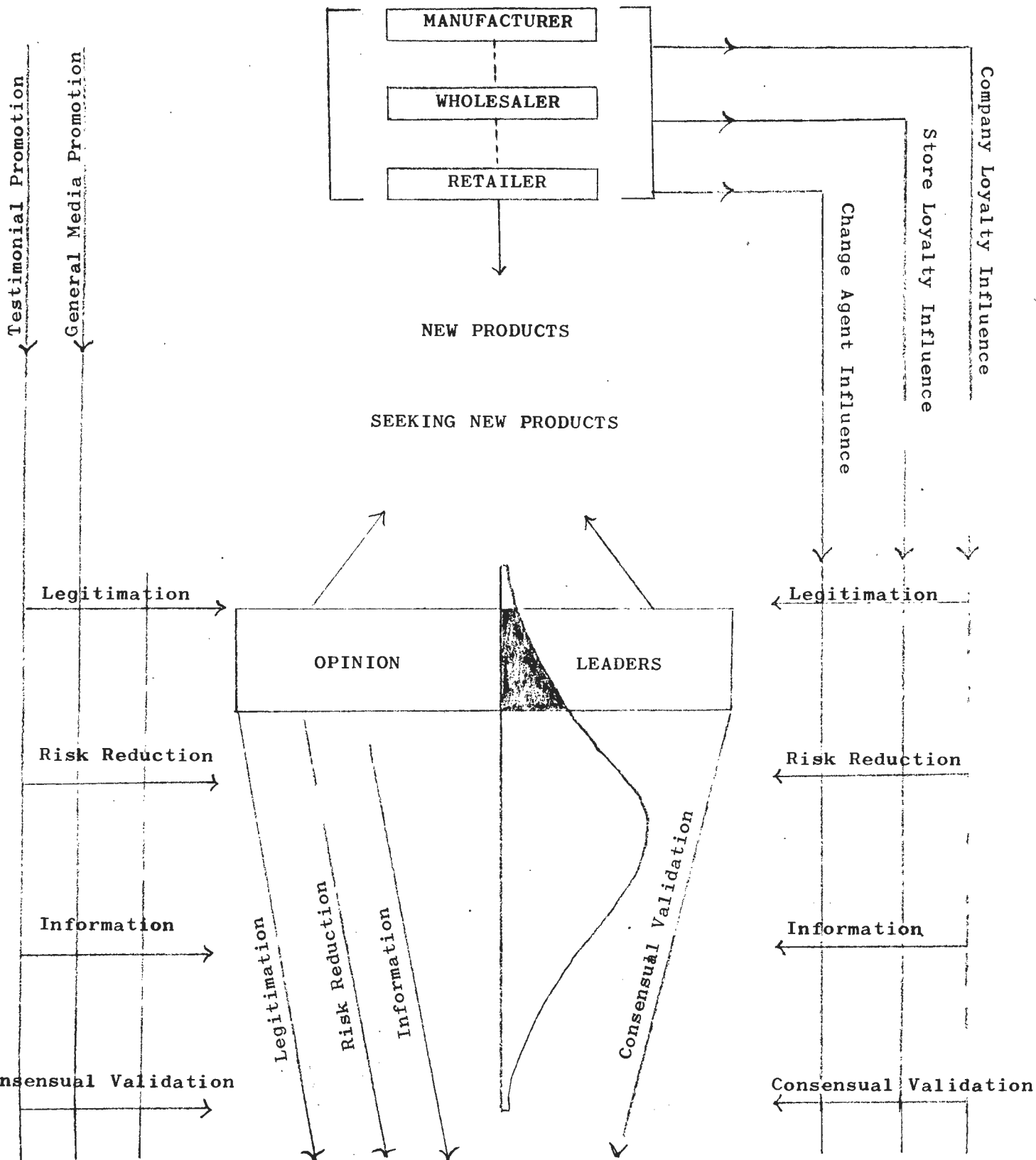
SEEKING NEW PRODUCTS



DIFFUSION - PERSONAL AND IMPERSONAL INFLUENCES



COMPLETE DIFFUSION OF INNOVATIONS MODEL



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CHAPTER VI.

BUSINESS FIRM FACTORS:

"The process of buying involves interactions between the consumer and the business firm" (1) These interactions generate a two-way flow of communication and information, the purpose of which is to satisfy consumer wants and to satisfy business profit objectives. As in any two way communication net or interaction pattern one of the effects of interaction is the flow of influence back and forth between the interacting parties. In this chapter primary emphasis will be placed on the effect and influence the business firm has on the consumer.

Just as it is unlikely that any one consumer will influence the actions of a business firm, so is it unlikely that the actions of any one business firm will greatly influence the behaviour of consumers. There are exceptions to this statement, for example Henry Ford and the Ford Motor Company exerted a great and lasting influence on the behaviour of consumers all over the world. This influence still exist today but is concentrated in America in three gigantic automobile companies. "Better things for better living through chemistry" (2)

is the advertising slogan of E.I. du Pont, and when one views the effect of discoveries such as Nylon on the lives of the mass market it is apparent that this firm does influence consumer behaviour. There are numerous other examples of individual company influences on the market, Anglo American Corporation exerts a profound influence on consumer behaviour in South America and De Beers virtually controls consumer buying of diamonds.

Significant as these examples are, they, nevertheless, remain the exception, and, therefore, in order to comprehend the effect of the business firm on consumer behaviour, it is necessary to look at the situation at a macro behaviour level. Four major aspects of the business firm will be considered, they are:

1. the image and buying environment,
2. the product, brand and package,
3. price and distribution,
4. promotion.

A. COMPANY IMAGE AND BUYING ENVIRONMENT FACTORS:

Hollander suggests that business firms have a personality, they may be aggressive, or conservative, or they may have high status or low status⁽³⁾. McGuire endorses this view by stating that behaviour of a business firm is conditioned by personality as well as environment.⁽⁴⁾

In addition to having a personality, business firms also have a certain image with the public and also provide or represent some sort of symbol to the market. Britt suggests that a consumer's entire life is influenced by symbols and images, and hence the image a particular company has, greatly affects consumer behaviour towards that company and its product.⁽⁵⁾

There are numerous factors involved in image formation, and a company must be aware of these factors if it is to comprehend the effect its image will have on the consumer. Bardin suggests seven principles in image formation. These are:

1. People are not exclusively rational, and their image of the company may appear to be irrational to management.

- 2. People respond to situations in ways which appear to them to protect their self-image, i.e. they avoid cognitive dissonance.
- 3. People have various images or reference points that influence future behaviour and image formation.
- 4. If an image appears stable and is supported by reference groups then forces opposing the image will be resisted.
- 5. If an image is marked by doubt or insecurity it creates further doubt and consumers attempt to establish a new image which will dispel insecurity.
- 6. To stimulate the development of a new image the firm must attract the attention of large numbers of potential consumers. (6)

Stahl suggests that firms should use the strategy of planned visual communication in order to exert a favourable influence on consumer behaviour. He defines planned visual communication as "the visibly distinctive and consistent projection of related company, division and product identity into its

markets⁽⁷⁾. He further suggests this (image strategy) becomes a direct instrument of profits and future company growth.⁽⁸⁾

The firm's image is affected by every aspect of the company's operation from the quality of its products and the nature of its employee relations to the appearance of its buildings and grounds and the printing type used on its letterheads. If a company's plants spread smoke over the townspeople's homes or pollute their streams, these actions become part of the company's corporate image, and influence the behaviour of its consumers.⁽⁹⁾

One of the most critical elements of company image is the image of its products and brands. This topic will be covered in greater detail in a later section but it should be pointed out at this point that many products from competing firms are identical in their physical attributes. In spite of this, consumer behaviour indicates that strong brand loyalties do develop for competing brands. Most consumers for example cannot distinguish one brand of gasoline from another, the same applies to cigarettes, nevertheless these same consumers are brand loyal because of factors other than product attributes.⁽¹⁰⁾ One of these other factors is

the image the company has created for its brand.

Just as people are influenced by company image, so are they influenced by the surroundings in which they buy products. (11)

Certain stores specialize in particular products, some stores are viewed as luxury outlets, others as bargain basements, some appeal to upper income consumers, others to lower income groups. (The nature and image of the store as perceived by the consumer will then influence his behaviour.

Martineau suggests that a store is more than a store, it has a personality, an image which is a critical factor in the buyer's mind. (12)

Research indicates that a firm's advertising programme affects the image of the store. Every advertisement run either supports or attacks this image. The nature of window displays, interior fixtures and the posting of prices all influence the consumer's image of the store and hence his behaviour. (13)

In a study of 4,500 randomly selected woman shoppers, Richard Portis examined the reasons which prompted women to do more of their shopping in one particular store than in any other stores. Portis found that stores fell into three major groups: high fashion appeal, price appeal and broad appeal. The high

fashion stores were associated with excellent service, merchandise and display. These stores had the strongest image of the three groups. High income women were associated in the minds of consumers with high fashion stores, while the low income women were believed to patronise stores which relied on price appeals and those which had broad appeal. The middle income women were found to patronise all three categories of stores. Customer shopping behaviour characteristics were found to differ in the different store groups and for the different income groups. Fashion conscious women patronise the high fashion stores and are usually of the middle or upper income groups, while bargain hunters shop at the price and broad appeal stores, and are usually but not exclusively of the lower income groups. (14)

In another study, the researchers found that consumers from the lower income groups either were or believed they would be poorly treated in a high status store. "The clerks treat you like a crumb", was the feeling of many low income shoppers when patronising high fashion stores. (15) Finally, in a study on supermarket environment and its effect on consumer behaviour the researchers concluded that supermarkets do look different to different shoppers. (16)

The image of the firm or store, and its shopping environment is of particular relevance to the South African multi-racial market. There are clear indications that the four major population groups tend to patronise different stores in some discernable pattern. Stuttafords for example is primarily patronised by middle and upper income Europeans, the majority of whom are either English or Jewish. (17) The OK Bazaars on the other hand is patronised by all population groups in the country.

B. PRODUCT, BRAND AND PACKAGE:

I. THE PRODUCT:

Needless to say all consumer behaviour is directed toward the decision to purchase a product or service, and consequently they become pre-requisites for consumer behaviour.

"Decisions about a product are never a simple matter. Different people perceive products differently. And many products have meaning for the user that go beyond the actual use of the product. And some product groups will not even be considered by some segments of the market". (18)

At a most elementary level a product consists of a number of raw materials, so put together that the end result, the product, serves a useful purpose of consumption. (19) As many writers point out, however, a product is far more than the sum of its individual parts. It provides a wide range of services and has many functions.

Dichter (20) for example lists hundreds of uses for thousands of different products. His analysis of the important features of an automobile were examined in an earlier chapter. A further

example of the many uses of a product are suggested under the heading "eggs". Dichter suggests that eggs are a symbol of immortality, they represent the mystery of growth and fertility, they are viewed as being an almost perfect food, they provide a feeling of abundance and security, they are eaten in almost every conceivable form from the black rotten eggs of China to Salzburger Nockerlin of Austria, a kind of enormously blown up soufflé. (21)

Francis Bourno suggests that one of the critical attributes of a product is its status imparting quality and its susceptibility to reference group influence. Some products may be highly susceptible to reference group influence as may some brands. (22) This view is endorsed in another study in which the authors conclude that two very common motives of consumer behaviour are the striving to be economical and the desire to emulate people of higher status. (23)

Herzog stresses the point that in addition to the complex nature of products, it is necessary to be aware that "consumer conceptions about a product do not stand still; technical developments, degree of market saturation, availability are some of the environmental factors which may restructure the consumer image". (24)

II. THE BRAND.

Branding has been a significant factor in developing mass markets for products because branding not only identifies the product and manufacturer for the buyers but implies the same quality in every purchase. (25) Branding provides the supplier with better control of his markets and distributors, it facilitates repeat sales to satisfied customers, and enables consumers to develop clearer images about the product and its manufacturer. Branding also has its disadvantages, it requires extensive advertising support, it limits a manufacturer's freedom in pricing and distribution, and if the product fails, it can affect the sale of other products from the same company.

Brands affect consumer behaviour in a similar way to products. "Brands supply another type of consumer image. The perception of brands is another aspect of general product perception" (26)

Brand images are the sum total of impressions the consumer receives from many sources from actual experience and hearsay about the brand itself as well as its packaging, its name, the company making it, the types of people the individual has seen using the brand, what was said in the

advertising as well as from the tone, format, type of advertising vehicle in which the product story was told. (27)

The brand then develops a type of personality. This personality may be similar for large aggregates of people, and it enables the manufacturer to stimulate brand awareness and loyalty. In South Africa for example, Gold Dollar cigarettes have different but discernable brand images among different population groups. To the Bantu, the cigarette is associated with America, with movie stars and modern life, to the European, this cigarette is associated with the Bantu. (28)

Harris suggests that consumers have seven types of images associated with a company's products. Five of these seven images can be directly related to the company's brands. The first image and the most difficult to develop is corporate image. The second image and not related to the company's brands is the institutional image, i.e. of what service is the company to the community. The third image, of product, is also not necessarily related to brand. The fourth image is brand image, the fifth brand-line image, i.e. the composite impression made in consumers' minds by several brands in a line owned by one company. The sixth image is a diffused brand image which is created when a brand's

advertising there is changed too frequently. The seventh and final image is the consumer demand image, i.e. the corporate impression an individual has about a company's brand offering. The ideal but seldom realised state of a favourable consumer demand image is the goal of every company. (29)

Soebafor classifies brand names into two major categories. The first classification includes dictionary words, e.g. Canine Dog Food; coined words, e.g. Corfam; foreign words, e.g. Arpege; personal names, e.g. Aunt Jemima Maple Syrup; geographical names, e.g. South African Lobster Tails; initials and numbers, e.g. Jaguar XKE. The second classification includes functional names which connote good results, e.g. Spic n Span; ease of application e.g. Easy Off; standard of quality, e.g. Gold Medal Flour; description of product ingredient, e.g. Ry-Krisp; description of product use, e.g. Sani-Flush; forceful names which connote pleasant associations, e.g. Total; promise of reward, e.g. Ban; meaningless but easily remembered names, e.g. Ajax^{*}; corporate names, e.g. General Electric. (30) The selection of a brand name can and

* The fact that Ajax was a hero during the siege of Troy may also provide an image of speed for products so named.

126

does have an influence on consumer behaviour. According to a recent Time Magazine article this fact was recognised by the Chevrolet Division of General Motors when they named one of their new cars "Camaro". Thousands of dollars were spent trying to find a suitable name for this car, and many were rejected because it was felt that they would adversely affect the image of the firm and the behaviour of the consumer e.g. names like "Apache" would insult the American Indian and "Wild One" would offend safety conscious people.

Vicary suggests that brand names should provide proper connotations and associations in the customers' mind, e.g. prestige, status, value, etc. Names should also incorporate a selling idea, e.g. Gillette Foamy, Gillette Deodorant, "Gillette Blades". In addition brand names should be neutral in meaning, distinctive, easily pronounceable and brief. (31)

In a study on brand image, Mindak analysed drinkers reactions to the personalities of four brands of beer and specifically brand Y compared with three competitive national brands.

His findings indicated that brand image is related to market share. The greater the sales volume and market share, the more favourable the brand image. The conclusion from this research appears somewhat tenuous, for it could just as well

be concluded that in order to develop a large sales volume, it is necessary to develop a brand image first. The study also concluded that consumers form images about the type of people that drink a particular brand of beer. These images have some influence on their purchasing behaviour. (32)

In another study on brand identification and beer consumption, the researchers concluded that consumers in general were not able to discern the taste differences among various brands of beer but apparently labels and their associations did influence their evaluations. Physical product differences were of less importance in influencing consumer behaviour than were the firms marketing efforts and the resulting brand image. (33)

III. THE PACKAGE:

"Packaging and Packaging design are related to product image; and the kinds of packaging used by a company can influence consumer attitudes about the contents. In addition, an attractive and functional container and label make it more likely than otherwise that the consumer will select one product instead of competitive products." (34)

Today, packaging is an integral part of the product. The package can no longer be considered as a purely functional container protecting a product till used. Packaging today affords the manufacturer an opportunity of enhancing product appearance, of improving the convenience to the consumer of transporting, storing and using the product, of combining a variety of products into one packet and thus increasing sales, of easing handling of the product, of displaying the product, and of promoting self-service of the product. (35)

"Packaging has at least three psychological functions. First it is a symbol of considerateness. Second it facilitates choice. Third it can arouse emotions." (36) The design of the package should be such that the consumer can visualize the contents. The package is therefore viewed as an integrated whole by the consumer and as such will contribute to his total decision behaviour. (37)

Packaging is viewed as being more than just a vehicle that carries the product, it provides an opportunity for sales promotion, and brand identification. It is generally conceded that the two most recognised products in the world are Coca Cola and a Kodak film pack. The primary reason for this ease of recognition is because of the design of the pack.

Packaging like many other marketing tools is subject to trends. Today for example there is a trend toward miniaturisation of products and their package. There is also a trend toward developing reusable packages such as the now famous Maxwell House Coffee Carafe. A further trend is to package products in a wide variety of sizes, e.g. small, regular, medium, jumbo, giant, economy, family, etc. This trend is especially evident in the food and drug industry. The ability of a manufacturer to adapt to these trends will influence the way the consumer reacts to his product.

In a study on the packaging of a washday product, it was found that packaging did not represent a class of objects which the consumer approaches with anticipation of continual change. Nevertheless, repeated exposure to a package can alter the rank order of consumer preference as to which package to adopt. (38)

According to Faison, four dimensions of package design are of major importance in influencing consumer behaviour. These factors are:

1. visibility - is it easily distinguishable from competing products;

- 2. content and communication - does the package quickly signal the nature of its contents;
- 3. psychological connotations - is the package congruent with the product marketing strategy;
- 4. function - is the packet easy to open, close, handle, etc. (39)

Product, brand, package, all three combine in the consumer's mind to give an overall impression of what the company is trying to sell. All three influence consumer behaviour and the firm must be cognisant of the interrelatedness of the three. A good product with a poor brand image and a poor package is not likely to motivate the consumer to purchase. The product image, the brand image and the package must be treated as one by the firm in order to provide a good composite image of the firm's offering.

C. PRICE AND DISTRIBUTION FACTORS:

I. THE PRICE:

Price is of major importance to consumer behaviour because buyers are more influenced by price than by any other sales device; that is a small price inducement might have a far greater impact on consumer behaviour than would heavy expenditures on advertising, personal selling, or credit accommodation. (40) Furthermore, price appeals are among the easiest to communicate to consumers. A customer understands almost instantaneously what a price reduction means. (41)

The above view on pricing, which is difficult to question, tends to give greater credance to the micro-economic theory that man is both rational and economic. It must be remembered however, that pricing is one aspect of a complex process, and cannot be separated out from the other tools used to influence consumer behaviour. The lower the price, the greater the volume, all other things being constant, is well documented in economic literature. However, all other things are not constant and except in control situations will never be constant.

Oxenfeldt suggests that consumers have no firmly established idea of the value of new products whereas old products have a price history that consumers use to make decisions. As a result of this situation, consumers develop a "zone of price" that is acceptable to them. Prices outside this zone constitute psychological barriers, and limit buying behaviour. (42)

In spite of what could be called the observable rationale of price, consumers often react in an apparently irrational manner where price is concerned.) Why should a woman buy a high fashion dress at Stuttafords when the identical dress is on sale at the OK Bazaars at a significantly lower price? Why should an increase in the price of certain products stimulate an increase in consumer desire for these products? These questions are a clear indication that consumers do not always view price in terms of the amount of money they must forego in order to acquire a product. Price is viewed and acted upon in conjunction with a whole series of other factors such as status, service convenience, comfort, etc.

To some customers and for some products high price means quality or status and if prices are dropped these customers start worrying about quality and may stop buying. (43) When this occurs a prestige demand curve is evident.

The theory also exists that certain prices are psychologically appealing to consumers. This implies that there is a range over which prices are viewed as being fair and within this range price increases or decreases do not affect buying behaviour. (44)

Wasson suggests four types of psychological reactions to prices:

1. Quantum effects - represented by a situation where a product may not move at R1.05 but a package containing four fifths and labeled as such will sell at 98 cents.
2. Reverse direction perception - consumers frequently have a different perception of price on a numerical scale than they do on a psychological scale e.g. R2.94 may appear cheaper than R2.44.
3. Fair price comparisons - when consumers feel a price is too low for the value they are receiving they may reduce purchasing. This is particularly evident in special magazine subscription offers.
4. Cost price standards - consumers may judge the approximate cost of manufacture of a product, and if they feel that too high a profit is being made on the item they will reduce buying. (45)

Price serves as a means of both maintaining the gap between classes, and as a means of eliminating class barriers.⁴⁶ Consumers may view the price of a product as having certain class connotations. Johnny Walker Black Label is a high priced scotch and may be perceived as providing status regardless of its inherent product attributes.

In order to comprehend the effect of price on consumer behaviour it is necessary to appreciate the fact that some consumers respond much more sensitively to price attractions than do others. Market segmentation based upon price appeals is therefore important if a firm's pricing policy is to be successful.

II. DISTRIBUTION:

The effect of the distribution process on consumer behaviour is only fleetingly treated in the literature. A possible explanation for this is that topics such as the location of retail outlets, and the nature of these outlets is viewed as being a buying environment influence rather than a distribution influence on consumer behaviour.

"Regardless of how good the product may be, it is of little use to the customer if it is not where he wants it when he wants it".⁽⁴⁹⁾ The location and time of the product offering is a constraining influence on consumer behaviour. Consumers expect to buy certain products in certain places. They would view the sale of refrigerators by a chemist as being unusual if not undesirable.

Most products are sold through channels of distribution that the consumer views as being normal. Furthermore, the intensiveness of distribution of most products is also expected to follow a norm. Bread is distributed through thousands of outlets while airplanes are sold by very few outlets. Getting a firm's product into the right outlet - the one consumers perceive as right is of major importance.

The growth of supermarkets, discount stores and self-service stores has changed the way consumers behave when they shop. They no longer demand personalised attention, nor do they require advice on the advantages or disadvantages of various products.

Dichter suggest that department stores have a tendency to make the customer uneasy because of arrogance and condescension; discount stores therefore are the customers revenge.

Distribution through supermarkets has radically changed consumer behaviour. Started in the 1930's, supermarkets offered a wide variety of products conveniently displayed at low prices. (48) This method of distribution had the effect of stimulating consumers to purchase more merchandise, it encouraged family shopping and limited the necessity of buying from day to day.

In South Africa the evolution of the distribution of consumer goods has traditionally been slow. The last two years, however, has seen an almost revolutionary change in retail merchandising and distribution. The growth of chains of discount stores in a short period of time shook the foundations of retail tradition. Old and well established companies have had to revamp their entire merchandising and distribution policies in order to satisfy changing consumer purchasing patterns. (49)

D. PROMOTION:

I. COMMUNICATION:

Promotion is any method of telling consumers about a company's marketing mix. (50) According to McCarthy the basic objectives of promotion are to inform, persuade, or remind. (51) In other words promotion is one of the most powerful tools used by the firm to influence consumer behaviour.

Many writers and practitioners go even further than this, and suggest that the objectives of promotion should include an attempt to induce the final act of purchase. In order to avoid controversy, however, the element of promotion can be distinguished, and responsibility for generating consumer action can be assigned to personal selling for example rather than to advertising.

If the objectives of promotion are to inform, persuade, remind or induce action, then the method employed must be communication. "Advertising, selling, and sales promotion are directly concerned with the communication process." (52)

According to Schramm, communication involves an attempt to establish a shared or common piece of information, idea or attitude, with someone. ⁽⁵³⁾ Communication exists when one system, a sender, influences another system, a destination or receiver, by manipulating a series of signals that are carried in a channel connecting them. This basic theory of communication is found in most of the literature including the work done by Schramm, ⁽⁵⁴⁾ Honey, ⁽⁵⁵⁾ and Leavitt. ⁽⁵⁶⁾ Of critical importance is an understanding of communication theory and an appreciation of the role played by perception.

A firm (the sender), may use certain words or symbols (signals) published in a newspaper advertisement (channel) in order to influence the behaviour of a consumer (receiver). The way the firm perceives the message need not be the same as the way the consumer perceives the message. This subject was discussed in some detail in Chapter III, where it was pointed out that industry spends large sums of money in order to ensure an ever increasing degree of congruency between the perception of its consumers and the intended meaning of its message.

Davison suggests that the communication process is further complicated by the nature of the audience. ⁽⁵⁷⁾

"The communicators audience is not a passive recipient - it cannot be regarded as a lump of clay to be moulded by the master propagandist. Rather the audience is made up of individuals who demand something from the communications to which they are exposed and who select those that are likely to be useful to them. In other words they must get something from the manipulator if he is to get something from them." (58)

"In a simulated research project on consumer attitudes toward seat belts it was found that one way communication was most effective in influencing lower educated people to use belts, while two way communication was most effective in influencing highly educated respondents to use belts." (59)

It can be concluded from this research that the success of a communication system depends not only on shared attitudes and perception but also on individual background and the nature of the communicator net.

It is necessary to delineate the major tools or methods of communication that a firm may use to influence its consumers. These categories could also be termed the promotion vehicle or the promotion channel. The most common classification

of promotional methods is into: personal selling, mass selling or advertising and sales promotion.

II. ADVERTISING:

"Advertising is mass, paid communication, the ultimate purpose of which is to impart information, develop attitudes and induce action beneficial to the advertiser (generally the sale of a product or service)"⁽⁶⁰⁾

Mc Carthy's definition of advertising stresses the communication of ideas or information to large numbers of consumers at the same time.⁽⁶¹⁾ "Advertising is any paid form of non-personal presentation or promotion of ideas, goods or services by an identified sponsor."⁽⁶²⁾

Mass communication or advertising seeks to influence consumer behaviour through the use of a wide variety of media, including: magazines, radio, billboards, direct mail, newspapers, movies, catalogues, novelties (cards) etc.

Many of the most critical objectives or purposes of advertising are psychological.⁽⁶³⁾ These objectives include initial attention,

perception, continued favourable attention or interest, comprehension, favourable feelings, emotions, beliefs, intentions, decisions, imagery, association, recall and recognition. (64) The effectiveness of an advertisement on the behaviour of the market depends on a combination of the above psychological factors. For example an advertisement showing a nude woman is likely to gain initial attention, but if the rest of the advertisement including the product being sold, the copy, the media used, the layout, etc. is poor, then the consumer is unlikely to be influenced or motivated to purchase the product.

Psychologist Hadley suggests that advertising can be viewed in two different ways, similar to the two basic approaches to psychotherapy - the directive and the non-directive approach. The advertiser can tell the consumer to buy his product because it will satisfy certain of his needs, or the advertiser can develop a friendly sincere and understanding atmosphere which shows the benefits of the product without direct intention to sell. (65) Hadley further suggests that one of the reasons for the sales growth of certain beer companies is attributable to the use of the non-directive approach. (66)

Whether it can be inferred from the sale of beer, that a non-directive approach to advertising is superior is questionable. The reasoning seems too simple. It does not take account of the product itself, the effectiveness of the distribution chain, the strategy of competition, etc. The only conclusion that can be drawn from this research is that there are at least two methods of advertising, and both can be successful.

Britt describes several interesting case histories in psychological research for advertising. These case histories highlight some of the difficulties inherent in influencing consumer behaviour through advertising. The first case demonstrates that a priori generalisation about advertising effectiveness is dangerous. For example a comparison was made of two identical advertisements, one in black and white, and one in colour. It was found that the black and white advertisement was looked at twice as long as the colour advertisement and furthermore the sample of women tested could recall as much about the black and white advertisement as the colour advertisement. (67)

The tremendous growth of advertising expenditures over the last twenty years, and the total inability on the part of the consumer to avoid exposure to advertising has generated much

discussion on the values and dangers of advertising. In 1966 \$2.8 billion was spent in the U.S.A. on TV advertising. One company Procter and Gamble spent \$179.2 million on TV advertising in 1966, and it is estimated that this figure climbed to over \$200 million in 1968. (68) When it is realised that television is only one of the many media used by firms, the total amount spent on all advertising in America probably approaches \$20 billion or nearly double the South African GNP. According to one author advertising expenditures exceeded \$12 billion in 1962.

These vast expenditures on advertising are made solely to persuade and to influence consumers and it is not surprising that questions are asked on the effectiveness and dangers of mass selling.

The use of propaganda as a method of persuasion has been roundly criticised by most responsible companies. The Webster Dictionary defines propoganda as a means used for advocating a particular doctrine. This definition seems an inadequate explanation of the term as it is generally understood today. McGarry defines propoganda as being biased, partial and one sided. This is in direct contrast to education which is presumably oriented toward the dissemination of truth. Nevertheless the deliberate

164

use of one sided statements to the mass market continues. (69)

McGarry suggests that advertising as used today is primarily a type of propaganda. It seeks to condition influence, persuade and convince people to act in a way they would not otherwise act. (70)

Proponents of advertising defend their position by arguing that it is an economical method of distributing goods, that it provides entertainment and actually adds to the value of goods advertised. (71)

Maloney suggests that regardless of the amount spend on advertising and regardless of the degree of consumer exposure to advertising, if the message transmitted is of no interest to the consumer, or if it is incongruent with his conceptual world he will not be influenced by it. (72)

It is difficult to arrive at a definite conclusion on the values and dangers of advertising. Vance Packard's two famous books "The Hidden Persuaders" (73) and "The Waste Makers" (74) probably represent the extreme case against advertising while companies such as Proctor and Gamble or Lever Brothers with their claim of added product value and more economical distribution represent the extreme case for advertising. The truth must lie somewhere between these two extremes.

III. PERSONAL SELLING:

"Marketing management is not sales management - but sales management is part of marketing management. While this distinction may appear nebulous, it is nevertheless critical. The sales manager's function is to persuade customers to buy the firm's offerings regardless of their nature." (75)

"While it was previously stated that marketing is a far more comprehensive field than selling, it cannot be denied that the ultimate success of the marketing department is the final sale of a product to a consumer. This can be extended further by saying that selling not only involves the ultimate sale, but the establishment of a relationship conducive to continued sales or repeat purchases." (76)

Personal selling, like advertising, is a means of communicating with the consumer. The critical difference between advertising and personal selling is the method of communication. Advertising is non-personal while selling is personal. Advertising is used in order to communicate a company's message to a large number of people at the same time selling seeks to create a lasting impression on the consumer and to close the sale.

A knowledge of personal selling is vital to anyone who really wants to understand the consumer. Personal selling often involves problems that can be handled in no other way; and frequently personal selling augments a particular advertising strategy.

"There is serious difficulty though in finding such behavioural science material related to the sales function."⁽⁷⁷⁾ Most of the relevant information has already been dealt with in the section on the diffusion process and in the section on communication.

Three theories have been proposed for describing the sales process:

1. Stimulus - response theory as described in Chapter III. This theory suggests that a salesman needs a repertoire of things to say and do (stimuli) in order to bring about buying (response). One of the flaws in this theory is that stimuli that are successful with one customer may not be successful with another customer.
2. Selling formula - attention interest desire action (AIDA). This theory involves the assumption that all customers are alike, and if taken through the

mental states of AIDA they will be motivated to buy. A frequent result of this theory is the canned sales presentation which takes no cognisance of individual customer differences.

- 3. Need satisfaction theory which attempts to generate sales by finding out and satisfying customer needs. This theory is customer as opposed to sales orientated. It requires skilled salesmen and is time consuming. It is generally used in more serious and complex sales situations. (78)

According to Mayer and Greenberg a good salesman, one who is capable of persuading and influencing consumers, must have at least two qualities; empathy and ego drive. (79) This theory is not unlike the theory of leadership in which empathy and flexibility are considered the major requirements.

Many leading academicians suggest that the personal selling function is today being relegated to a minor position in the marketing mix. (80) (81) (82) Webster and Beardon challenge the validity of this action. Webster suggests that the central element in the promotional strategy of most companies is the salesman and not advertising. He suggests that salesmen

can and should play a major part in influencing consumer behaviour by providing market information on sales, product satisfaction, competitive strategy and pricing policy. (83)

Bearden suggests that salesmen are multi-disciplinary and exert perhaps the greatest influence on consumer behaviour. (84)

This theory takes on further validation when one considers the importance of the change agent in the diffusion process, in the dissemination of product information and in the area of opinion formation.

In conclusion, it is interesting to note that in a research project conducted on the ratings of salesmen by male customers it was found that the most important quality a salesman needed in order to influence his customers was a friendly attitude. The most highly resented characteristic of salesmen was high pressure tactics. (85)

Table V.1 shows the ratings of favourable qualities in salesmen, and Table V.2 shows the unfavourable qualities.

TABLE VI.1

Rating of Favourable Qualities in Salespersons.

Favourable Qualities	Percentage Choosing
1. Friendly attitude	35
2. Desire to be of help	15
3. Courteous manner	15
4. Interest in customer and work	10
5. Thorough knowledge of merchandise	10
6. Patience	4
7. Distinct correct speech	4
8. Promptness	3
9. Neat appearance	2
10. Sincerity	<u>2</u>
	100

TABLE VI.2

Rating of Unfavourable Qualities in Salespersons

Unfavourable Qualities	Percentage Choosing
1. High pressure salesmanship	50
2. Overly helpful	18
3. Lack of knowledge of merchandise	10
4. Lack of interest in customer or material	9
5. Overly friendly	5
6. Ignoring customers opinion	3
7. Slurred speech	2
8. Watchdog attitude	1
9. Ignoring customer's presence	1
10. General indifference	<u>1</u>
	100

IV. SALES PROMOTION:

The final aspect of promotion to be considered is sales promotion. Sales promotion involves the design and distribution of novelties, store signs, catalogues, directory references, circulars, sales demonstrations, store displays, trade shows and other non-recurring selling efforts.)

"You cut out a contest entry blank and send in why you like Pete's Pickles. Another member of your family receives a coupon in the mail worth 10c. on the purchase of Mother Carl's Preserves. A salesman wins a transistor radio for his March sales volume, all of these are examples of sales promotion."⁽⁸⁷⁾

According to Turner, sales promotions affect consumers in the following four ways:

1. They help salesmen do a better job in selling their merchandise
2. They motivate retailers to sell more of a product through displays, direct mail, etc.
3. They help motivate prospective customers through films, trade shows, or direct mail.

- 4. They make advertising more effective through samples, coupons, premiums and contests. (88)

Like advertising, sales promotion has been criticised as a method used by industry to dupe the public. Of particular concern, to legislators has been the use of trading stamps found in many supermarkets and garages. These stamps are awarded to consumers on the basis of their total purchases. Once a certain number have been collected the consumer is entitled to a free gift. The greater the number of stamps, the better the gift. This form of promotion it is charged has led to higher prices, and to a duping of the housewife into thinking she is getting something for nothing. It is, in fact, not uncommon in the U.S.A. to find women knowingly paying more for an item merely to get the stamps.

Many explanations have been put forward for the apparently irrational behaviour on the part of consumer in their desire to collect trading stamps. It has been suggested that the feeling of getting something for nothing, and the desire to put one over on the retailer are possible reasons. In addition, trading stamps appeal to the gambling instinct of many people, they also make a game out of shopping, and reduce the pain felt by having to spend money. According

173

to one author, trading stamps are frequently used in lieu of price competition. Furthermore, for some consumers and retailers they have become a rite resulting in some stores giving the appearance of selling stamps rather than their usual products. (89)

Numerous other aspects of sales promotion such as a two for one deal, or a mail coupon worth 10c. or a family size pack 10c. off, or 10 oz. of coffee in a free glass carafe all have the effect of motivating consumers to act in a way that is not congruent with their normal shopping behaviour. In spite of this fact, sales promotions do provide consumers with extras whether they are price reductions, free gifts, more merchandise, the thrill of entering or winning a contest, the feeling of getting something for nothing or the belief that they are saving money. In life assurance sales promotion also serves the function of providing consumers with information on sensitive aspects of life, namely tax saving benefits. In this regard, sales promotion appears to be of critical value. (90)

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- 178
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PART THREE.

Shopping Behaviour: An Integrated Model

Chapter VII.

Shopping Behaviour: A Model of Consumer Behaviour

- A. Introduction**
- B. Shopping Behaviour**
- C. A Model of Shopping Behaviour**

Chapter VIII.

Product and Brand Differentiation: A Model of Consumer Behaviour

- A. Product and Brand Status**
- B. A Model of Shopping Behaviour**

Chapter IX.

Integrated Model of Shopping Behaviour.

- A. Integrated Model**
- B. Additional Methods of Classifying Products**
- C. The Model and the Environment**

Chapter X.

Testing the Model - Product Selection.

CHAPTER VII.

SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR: A MODEL OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR.

A. INTRODUCTION:

In the first six chapters of this study, an extensive review of the literature on consumer behaviour was undertaken. This survey of the literature was necessary in order to develop a framework upon which a model of one aspect of consumer behaviour could be developed.

The model developed in this and the next two chapters relates to the shopping behaviour of consumers measured in terms of the time spent prior to making a purchase. The model is intended to be operative, and empirical research will be conducted in order to test the validity of the model.

"Roughly speaking, models are theories or theoretical constructs. The term model has recently gained ascendancy over the term theory. Usage permits a theory to be expressed verbally, but a model is stated more precisely either in physical terms that permit concrete representation or in

mathematical terms that require symbolic and unambiguous expression of interrelationships".¹

One of the critical features of a model is that it tends to amplify systems. The model seeks to interrelate those variables that vitally effect the behaviour of the system without cluttering the system with minor or insignificant variables.

According to Green and Frank, "a model consists of a representation of some real system, expressed basically in terms of a series of if then statements and containing some specifications of how variables in the model should be measured"²

Models may be classified in several different ways. One method could be in terms of the decision making nature of models. Under this classification models are viewed as models of decisions. Models of decisions are built in order to improve the decision making process. In the case of models for decisions, the model does not represent the decision process itself but the situation in the external world with regard to which a decision must be made.³

A second method of categorizing models is suggested by Howard⁴ who distinguishes between normative and descriptive models. Normative models are descriptive with respect to alternate courses of action, while descriptive models provide explanations of phenomena.⁵

According to Bass et al, Howard's distinction between normative and descriptive models is of greatest use when the two are viewed as being interrelated.⁶

"While the focus of interest of descriptive models is upon understanding some phenomenon, rather than the development of a course of action, most descriptive models in marketing are suggestive of potential normative models."⁷

The similarity between the two methods of categorizing models is obvious. Descriptive models are similar to models for decisions. Both attempt to explain or improve understanding of phenomena not immediately related to a particular decision process. Normative models and models of decisions attempt to relate a series of variables such that their representation serves as a decision making process.

The model developed in this study is a model for decisions or a descriptive model. The objective of the model is to

describe or understand the phenomenon of shopping behaviour in terms of a series of interrelated variables. As in all operational models only those variables that are of critical importance will be considered.

The model itself is developed in two stages or streams. The first stream relates to the effect of price, distribution and homogeneity of available products on shopping behaviour. The second stream relates to the effect of the status imparting qualities of a product or brand on shopping behaviour. These two streams constitute two separate models. Both models are combined in Chapter IX to give an overall model of shopping behaviour.

B. SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR:

In order to facilitate the empirical work of this thesis without jeopardising the validity of its findings, it was decided to limit the study of purchasing behaviour to one product category namely household appliances. This product category includes only electric household products used inside the home to provide greater convenience and comfort for the family unit. It does not include products designed for entertainment purposes such as radios, phonographs, slide projectors etc., nor does it not include electric garden appliances or electric tools.

Two interviews were conducted, one with a manufacturer and one with a retailer of household appliances. These interviews enabled the writer to develop a comprehensive list of electrical household appliances available in Greater Cape Town.⁸ Table XII.1 is a list of all household appliances mentioned by the two respondents.

The objective in selecting this product category was the extent to which it gave a representative indication of general purchasing behaviour. Out of this list of 24 products, four

were selected for study in this thesis. Two methods were used to rationally select the four products for analysis.

The first method relates to the nature of shopping behaviour for appliances, and the second method relates to the status imparting qualities of products and or brands. Several other methods of categorizing products are also examined in order to determine the validity of the two methods selected.

A great deal has been written on consumer shopping behaviour, including theories and research on why, for example, consumers purchase certain products at one store and other products at a second store when all products could have been purchased at one outlet. The basic theories on consumer behaviour were analysed in the first six chapters and in this chapter one type of classification system suitable for the selection of products necessary to analyse consumer purchasing behaviour in Greater Cape Town will be considered.

McCarthy⁹ has suggested a classification system based on the nature of the product. Goods are broken down into four major categories - convenience goods; shopping goods; specialty goods; unsought goods.

Convenience goods include products or services that consumers require frequently, and for which, price and quality are relatively homogeneous, and selection is based almost solely on convenience and intensivity of distribution.

"Shopping goods are those for which the probable gain from making price and quality comparisons is thought to be large relative to the consumer's appraisal of the searching costs in terms of time, money, and effort"¹⁰. Shopping goods are selectively distributed and are represented in all major shopping centres. Shopping goods are generally considered to be more expensive and non standardized, with a relatively elastic demand because of a wide range of substitutes available. Consumers are motivated, to do their own comparisons of price and quality and hence branding is less important for shopping than for convenience goods.

"Specialty goods are consumer goods that buyers insist upon and for which they are willing to make a special purchasing effort"¹¹. Brand loyalty is usually strong for specialty goods, and distribution exclusive. Demand is relatively inelastic as consumers will refuse substitutes.

Unsought goods include products that the consumer is unaware of or not presently motivated to buy.

The above classification of shopping behaviour by product is fluid and dynamic. The decision of what product falls into what category will depend on a large number of consumer variables including income, age, education, geographic location and size of family and a large number of environmental variables including market trends, economic conditions, social and political conditions.

For the purpose of this study certain initial hypotheses will be made regarding the classification of products for one market segment of Greater Cape Town. The category of unsought goods will not be considered, as consumer motivation for unsought goods cannot be analysed.

It is hypothesised that the following products are all considered convenience goods by the market. Bread, milk, chocolate slabs, cold drinks and cigarettes. Bread and milk are purchased frequently, brand loyalty is low, price and quality of competing brands do not vary greatly. Chocolate slabs and cold drinks are purchased frequently, price is not a critical factor, and consumers are unlikely to devote time and effort to shopping. Brand loyalty however may be strong for a relatively large number of consumers provided that distribution

is intensive. Cigarettes are frequently purchased and intensively distributed. Brand loyalty probably extends from strong to weak. The number of people that would "walk a mile for a Camel" however are few.¹²

The selection of a group of products that fall into the shopping goods category is based largely on observation and upon research conducted in the U.S.A.

In the U.S.A., the classical illustrations of shopping goods are items of apparel, furniture and appliances.¹³ These product categories cover a vast range of products, and such a classification must inevitably be crude. A toaster or kettle, for example, is less likely to be considered a shopping good than a refrigerator. The pattern and extent of exposure of appliances, for example, may also affect their categorization. A refrigerator, for example, is less intensively distributed than a kettle. One point is clear, however, and that is that categorization is dynamic, and must be considered on a continuum. The most critical factors determining the position of a product on the continuum will be its nature, its price, its distribution, and the homogeneity of competing products. The degree to which a product is considered a shopping good will then determine its distribution or exposure rate.

This theory may be looked at in another and contrary fashion. It could also be hypothesised that the extent of exposure will determine the degree to which consumers are likely to consider a product as a shopping good. While this may appear a problem of semantics, it is nevertheless critical in an evaluation of consumer behaviour.

The marketing concept as taught today, assumes that the consumer is the initiator of business activity and therefore it is the consumer who will determine - over time - the degree of product exposure. This theory is accepted in this study, and consequently the degree to which a product is distributed is based on consumer wants and desires.

In selecting a group of products that fall into the shopping goods category the following variables were considered:

- (1) The nature of the product including its complexity, its end use, its durability, and the service required to maintain it.
- (2) The price of the product. While price is a relative concept it is hypothesised that for a select market segment, the effect of price on behaviour can be determined.
- (3) The amount of exposure and extent of present distribution was considered a factor in determining the time spent in shopping and comparing available substitutes.

The degree of exposure is here considered as a factor determining whether a product shall be considered a shopping good or not. The rationale behind this is that until the marketing concept becomes more generally operative, suppliers will distribute on the basis of historical trends, and consumers will be forced to shop on this basis. There is however evidence to indicate that historical trends are being eroded and goods such as appliances are being more intensively distributed in new outlets including supermarkets and discount stores. This trend is however only beginning, and has not yet radically altered the traditional channels of distribution.

On the basis of the above three criteria, a complex product requiring service and having a high price, e.g. a refrigerator, will be selectively distributed and will require the consumer to shop and compare substitutes. Such a product can therefore be considered a shopping good.

Included in this category but involving different degrees of shopping and distribution are the following products - refrigerators, radiograms, washing machines, watches, automobiles, vacuum cleaners and electric shavers.

No attention has yet been given to other factors that affect the degree to which a product may be considered a shopping good.

Health giving products, status imparting goods and new product innovations vitally affect the extent of consumer shopping. This aspect will, however, be considered later in the study.

Certain products are considered by consumers to have unique qualities. These specialty goods generally have intense brand loyalty among select market segments. Price is not usually the primary factor in consumer choice of specialty goods. Few manufacturers or suppliers are ever able to generate sufficient brand loyalty for their products, among significant segments of the market, and consequently categorization of products into a specialty class is difficult. In most countries, however, certain products do qualify as specialty goods, for example a Dior dress, a Rolls Royce, certain makes of cameras or hi-fi equipment, or unusual and exotic foods. The market for these products is, however, limited and the nature of consumer demand, complex. Concepts such as status, innovativeness, class and sophistication determine the degree to which people consider a product exclusive.

A special category of such goods may be products whose brand names have become generic terms such as Kleenex, Hoover,

Frigidaire or Shredded Wheat. The distribution of these products, however is not exclusive and they cannot therefore be considered as true specialty goods.

In selecting products that the market considers as specialty items, attention has been given to research done in the U.S.A. and in South Africa. A recent survey of Bantu buying behaviour in South Africa indicated that for men's clothing and shoes, watches and certain pharmaceutical products brand loyalty was a critical factor in determining purchasing behaviour.¹⁴

These products, while not exclusively distributed, did generate a high degree of brand loyalty and selective shopping and can be considered as specialty goods.

In the U.S.A. certain hi-fi equipment, particularly that manufactured by Grey Manufacturing Company, is exclusively distributed and commands intense consumer loyalty.¹⁵ Men's suits, especially the Hicky Freeman line, also qualify as specialty goods for the same reasons.¹⁶

General observations indicate that high fashion clothing, certain makes of automobile, certain appliances and cameras may all qualify as specialty goods.

C. A MODEL OF SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR:

Based on the above theory and research on shopping behaviour a model is now developed to explain the phenomena of shopping behaviour.

Shopping behaviour is defined as behaviour that relates to the amount of time(T)that the consumer spends comparing different products before making a choice.

It can therefore be stated that for convenience goods the time(T) spent on shopping will be less than the Time(T) spent on shopping for specialty goods. This can be symbolically stated as

$$T_C < T_{SH}$$

$$T_C < T_S$$

$$T_{SH} < T_S$$

- where T = Time spent comparing various competing products before making a purchase
- C = Convenience Goods
- SH = Shopping Goods
- S = Specialty Goods

It follows from this that shopping behaviour and time are synonymous in this study

$$SB = T$$

The classification of products by shopping behaviour can be quantitatively represented by the following function.

$$SB = f (P, D, H)$$

where

SB = Shopping behaviour

P = Price

H = Homogeneity of the available competing products

D = Intensiveness of distribution

It is not possible at this stage to indicate whether the function is linear or non-linear. It is necessary to note however that the amount of time (T) that consumers spend shopping is a function of the product of the variables P, D and H, and not a function of the sum of the three variables. In the event of any of the three variables being 0, the function itself would be 0. If, for example, the value for distribution (D) was 0 then consumers could not and would not spend any time shopping, regardless of the values for (P) and (H). In other words for shopping behaviour to exist each of the three variables must be positive. If the function was expressed in terms of the sum of the three variables then SB could exist in spite of a 0 value for one or more of the variables.

The hypothesis is that the function of shopping behaviour is expressed in the following form

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$$

where

$$K_1 = \text{a constant} > 0$$

The value of the constant K_1 can be fixed for any product or category of products and hence the actual value selected is not relevant to this study provided the constant $K_1 > 0$.

The above hypothesis will be tested in the rest of this study. No attempt will be made to determine the value of K_1 . The equation will however be used to determine whether a ranking of products in terms of SB is possible from the equation.

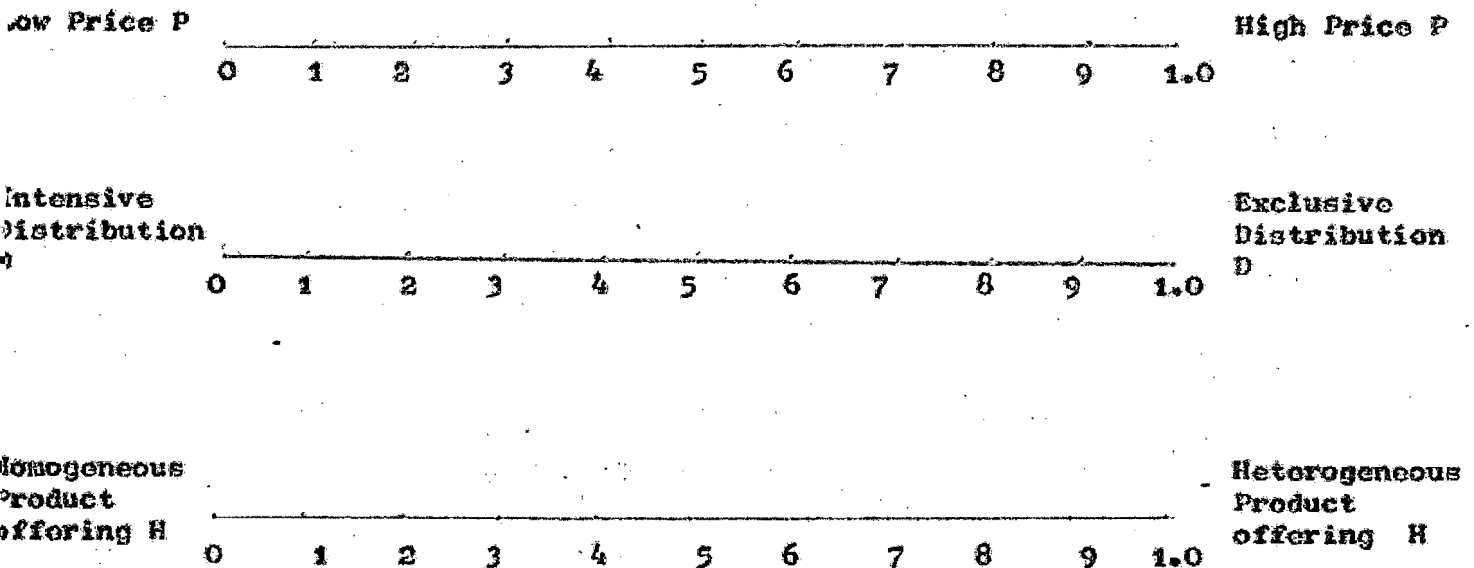
The function then states that the greater the product of the variables P, D and H the greater will the amount of time T spent by the consumer on shopping behaviour SB.

It can also be stated that for convenience goods the product of the variables P, D and H will be low, while for shopping or specialty goods the product will be high.

All three variables are measured on a continuum from 0.0 to 1.0.

In the case of price P, the continuum moves from a low value

of 0.0 for a low price to a high value of 1.0 for a high price. In the case of distribution and homogeneity of available competing products, the reverse takes place. The continuum for D and H moves from a low value of 0.0 for intensive distribution and a homogeneous product offering to a high value of 1.0 for selective distribution and a heterogeneous product offering. The continuum lines for P, D and H can be diagrammatically represented in the following way:



It can be theoretically stated that for convenience goods the sum of the variables P, D and H will be low while for shopping or speciality goods the sum will be high. For example if two

product extremes are taken such as automobiles and bread, it can be hypothesised that automobiles have a high price P of 0.7, a selective distribution network D of 0.6 and a heterogeneous product offering H of 0.8. This can be expressed in the following way.

$$SBa = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$$

$$SBa = (K_1 \times 0.7 \times 0.6 \times 0.8)$$

$$SBa = 0.336 K_1$$

where

a = automobiles

$SBa = .336$ represents the amount of time T consumers spend shopping for the product in relation to other products.

In the case of bread the product has a low price P of 0.1 and an intensive distribution network D of 0.1 and a homogeneous product offering H of 0.2. For this product then the amount of time T spent shopping will be

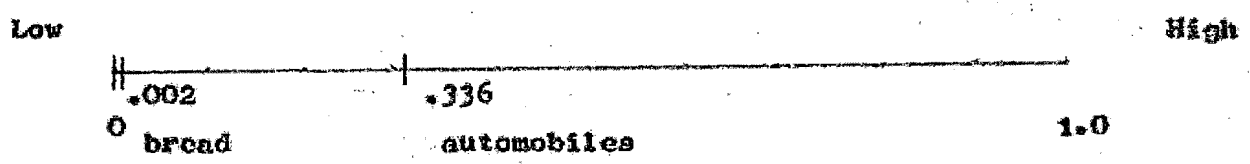
$$SBb = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$$

$$SBb = (K_1 \times 0.1 \times 0.1 \times 0.2)$$

$$SBb = 0.002 K_1$$

Comparing the value of SBA with the value of SBB, it is seen that the time spent shopping for automobiles is much greater than the time spent shopping for bread. This conclusion can also be expressed on a continuum of shopping behaviour in terms of time spent shopping for the product.

Time T Spent on Shopping Behaviour SB



The function has the advantage of being broad enough to categorize all products on a continuum. The disadvantage of the function is that its generality makes it difficult to fix a product except for a relatively homogeneous market. In this thesis the market being surveyed is homogeneous and consequently the function can be used to categorize the four appliances selected for empirical analysis.

The statement that shopping behaviour is a function of price distribution and the homogeneity of the available competing products is not intended to signify that no other variables

affect shopping behaviour. The function is intended to indicate those variables that are of greatest significance in influencing the time spent by consumers on shopping.

This analysis of shopping behaviour is constrained by one given or fixed variable. This variable relates to consumer pre-disposition to purchase. The analysis is based on an existing pre-disposition to purchase, whether or not the action actually takes place.

Impulse purchasing is here considered to be a sub-conscious predisposition that becomes operative at the time of the impulse purchase. For purposes of this thesis therefore impulse purchasing is included in the category of goods for which consumers already have a predisposition.

This would mean then that for a consumer with no predisposition to purchase, shopping behaviour would not exist. This does not mean that shopping behaviour in the past, or future, cannot be analysed but rather that predisposition must have existed, does exist, or will exist before an analysis can take place.

This can be symbolically represented in the following way:

if $P_t \leq 0$ then $SB = 0$

if $P_t \geq 0$ then $SB \geq 0$

where

$P_t = \text{Predisposition}$

This does not state that there is a direct functional relationship between P_t and SB . It merely states that P_t is a prerequisite of SB .

Conceptually a zero value of predisposition will however result in a zero value for all variables in the function $SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$.

It can be further stated that consumers are aware of a multitude of different products. This awareness is related to consumer predisposition. The greater the predisposition to purchase, the greater will be the awareness of the price distribution and homogeneity of the product offering.

If consumer predisposition $P_t \stackrel{=}{\approx} 0$ then consumers are unlikely to be aware of either the price distribution or available competing brands of a particular product. In this study awareness is represented on a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 where 0.0 represents no awareness of P , D and H and 1.0 represents maximum awareness of P , D and H .

In other words, if $P_t > 0$ then $1 \geq A > 0$ where $A = \text{Awareness}$

In terms of this study therefore the function $SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$ is only operative given

$$P_t > 0 \text{ and } 1 \geq A > 0$$

This function now states that the amount of time T spent on shopping behaviour SB is a function of the Price P , the intensiveness of distribution D and the homogeneity of available competing products H , given consumer predisposition P_t being greater than 0 and consumer awareness A of P , D and H greater than 0 and equal to or smaller than 1.

Figure VII.1 is a model of this function. The model shows the three variables P , D and H feeding into a cell with $P_t > 0$ which results in $1 \geq A > 0$. The model further shows a cell with $P_t \leq 0$ which results in $A \leq 0$.

In terms of this model, consumer predisposition to purchase is not measured. It is assumed that when $P_t > 0$ and $1 \geq A > 0$ the consumer knows enough about the product to form an opinion as to how much or how little time is necessary to evaluate P , D and H before making a purchase. In other words SB can be evaluated if $P_t > 0$ and $1 \geq A > 0$ without determining a value for P_t or A .

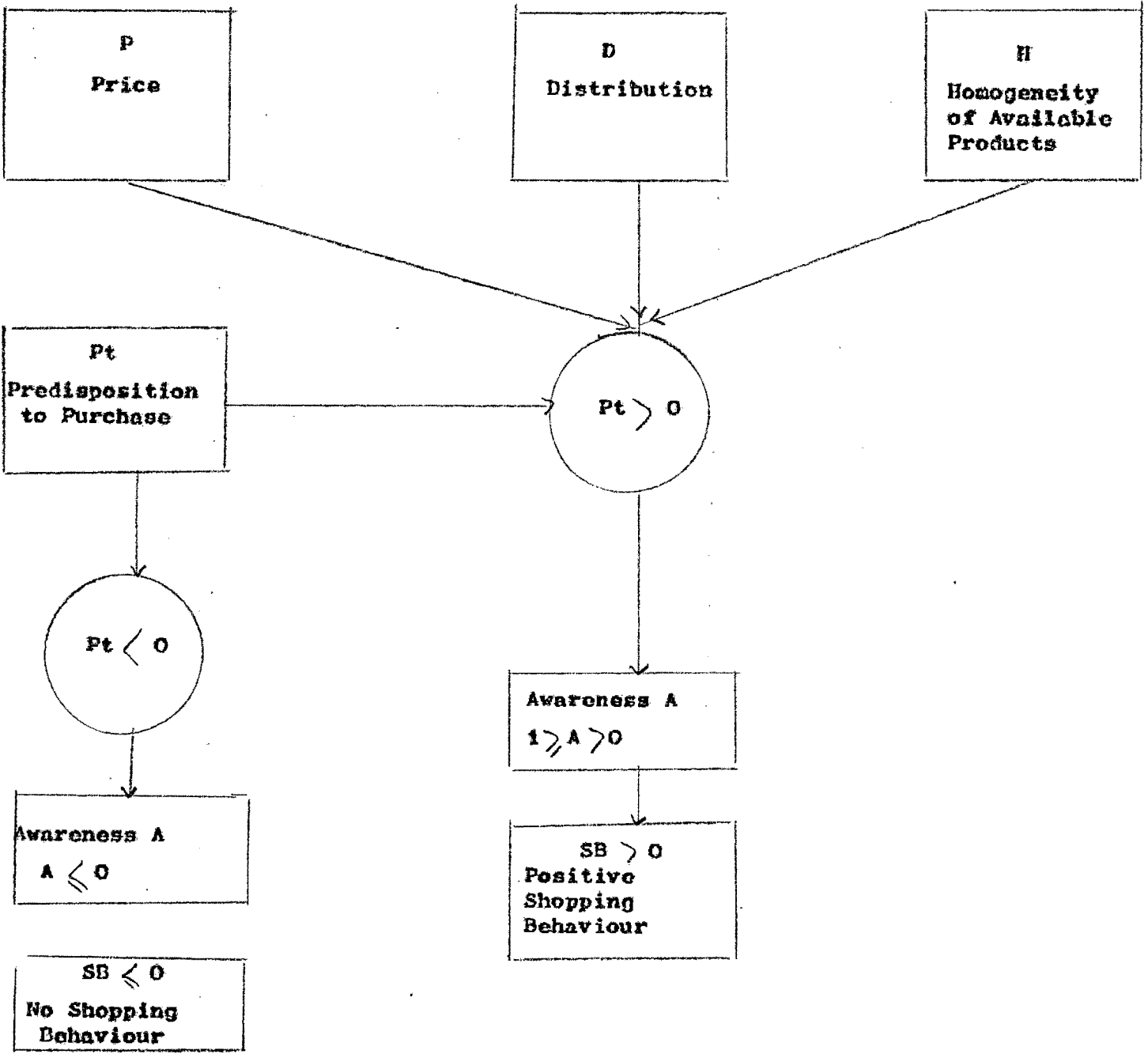
TABLE VII.1

LIST OF ELECTRICAL HOUSEHOLD APPLIANCES AVAILABLE IN CAPE TOWN.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Refrigerator | 13. Floor Polisher |
| 2. Stove | 14. Iron |
| 3. Washing machine | 15. Broom |
| 4. Drying machine | 16. Rotisserie |
| 5. Toaster | 17. Ice crusher |
| 6. Kettle | 18. Can opener |
| 7. Toothbrush | 19. Knife sharpener |
| 8. Knife | 20. Percolator |
| 9. Mixer (Food) | 21. Disposal |
| 10. Blender (Liquidiser) | 22. Frying pan |
| 11. Freezer | 23. Dishwasher |
| 12. Vacuum-cleaner | 24. Bottle Warmer |

FIGURE VII.1

MODEL OF CONSUMER SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR.



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CHAPTER VIII.

PRODUCT AND BRAND DIFFERENTIATION: A MODEL OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR.

A. PRODUCT AND BRAND STATUS:

In chapter VII, a model, was developed, of consumer shopping behaviour in terms of the amount of time consumers spend shopping before making a decision.

In this chapter, a second model of consumer shopping behaviour will be developed. This model classifies products by analysing their status imparting qualities and the effect of this status on the amount of time consumers spend shopping before making a decision. In chapter V, it was shown that certain products connote status in the eyes of the consumer, and in the eyes of the consumer's reference groups.

In chapter V, status was defined as the position of an individual in the prestige system of the group, organization or society.¹ In this chapter, product or brand status refers to the position a product or brand occupies in the prestige system of the group, organization or society.

A reference group was defined in chapter V as "any group with which an individual identifies himself such that he tends to use the group as a standard for self-evaluation and as a source of his personal values and goals. The reference group of the individual may include both memberships groups and groups to which he aspires to belong"².

In this chapter the model developed relates to the status of, or ranking of, products by the consumer and his reference groups, and the effect of this status on the amount of time spent shopping before making a purchase decision.

From parts one and two of this study, it was seen that buying is both an individualistic and a socially conditioned activity. Consumers are practically always influenced by what others buy, especially those persons with whom they compare themselves or use as reference groups.³

In analysing the effects of product status on purchasing behaviour, a distinction must be made between status imparting products and status imparting brands.

In Cape Town, for example, fish is not considered a status imparting product, but Romanoff Caviar most certainly is a status imparting brand of fish.

The major factor determining a product's or brand's status imparting quality and reference-group susceptibility is its conspicuousness.

"There are two aspects of conspicuousness in this particular context that help determine reference-group influence.

First the article must be conspicuous in the most obvious sense that it can be seen and identified by others. Secondly, it must be conspicuous in the sense of standing out and being noticed. In other words no matter how visible a product is, if virtually everyone owns it, it is not conspicuous in the second sense of the word."⁴

An unpublished paper by Glock suggests an interesting method of classifying products and brands based on status imparting qualities and reference-group susceptibility. Figure VIII.1 is a modified example of Glock's classification system.

"According to this classification a product may be susceptible to reference group influence in its purchase in three different ways, corresponding to three of the four cells in Figure VIII.1. Reference-group influence may operate with respect to brand or type but not with respect to product (brand + Product-) as in the upper left cell, or it may operate with respect to brand

and product (Brand + Product +) as in the upper right cell or it may operate with respect to product but not brand (Brand- Product+) as in the lower right cell.

Only the minus - minus items of the kind illustrated (Brand- Product-) in the lower left cell are not likely to involve any significant reference-groups influence in the purchase at the present time"⁵

Figure VIII.1 may also be viewed as a classification system by status imparting qualities of products and brands. If a product falls in the upper left cell (Brand+ Product -) this means that the product itself is conspicuous but widely owned, and consequently is not status imparting to the owner. The brand of the product however is also conspicuous and due to the clearly observable variety of makes available, the consumer is able to distinguish his status from that of his fellow consumers by purchasing a brand of the product that is not commonly owned.

A similar analysis would apply to the upper right cell of Figure VIII.1 in which the product and the brand have status imparting qualities. In this case the product is conspicuous but not universally owned, and the variety of brands available

further distinguishes the status of the product.

The lower left cell (Brand- Product+) includes those products that are conspicuous and not widely owned, consequently product ownership connotes status. The variety of brands available however is either limited or not clearly distinguishable and consequently ownership of a particular brand does not itself impart status.

The lower right cell (Brand- Product-) includes products that are widely owned and for which brand differentiation is minimal. For these products neither the brand nor the product imparts status.

The grouping of products into any one of the four cells is not at this stage based on empirical evidence. Research in the United States has indicated that cars, cigarettes, beer and drugs are all Brand+ Product+ while air conditioners are Brand- Product+. In South Africa no known research is available on product and brand status. Consequently the categorization of products in Figure VIII.1 is based on (1) generalizations derived from research into the nature of the population; (2) on observations and past knowledge of the market; (3) on an analysis of the nature of the product;

(4) on the degree of market saturation of the product and
(5) on the extent of available distinguishable brands of the product.

Clothing for example is one of the most socially visible of all products. The fact that all people wear clothing eliminates the status imparting quality and reference group influence of the product. The brand or type of clothing worn, however, may vary in price, colour, style, etc. and consequently the brand owned is clearly susceptible^{to} status differentiation.

The Coloured, for example, will probably determine the status of a particular brand with reference to his own group or a group to which he aspires. Observation indicates that the Coloured measures the status of clothes largely by what the white market wears and particularly by what the white segment, which he aspires to, wears. So, for example, certain Coloured markets may use professional men as their reference group. Others may use teenage hippies as their model while still others may use the dress of film stars or entertainers as their yardstick for status.

B. A MODEL OF SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR:

The statement that status is a function of conspicuousness can be expressed in the following way.

$$S = f (C)$$

where

S = status

C = conspicuousness

Conspicuousness is however dependent on visibility, therefore

$$C = f (V)$$

where

V = visibility

Visibility however takes two forms. The product or brand is visible if it can be seen by others. It is also visible in terms of its distinctiveness, i.e. the degree to which it can be seen and distinguished from other products or brands of a similar nature. This can be symbolically represented by the function

$$C = f (V \times D)$$

where

V = visibility

D = distinctiveness

From this it follows that

$$S = f (V \times D)$$

It is further known that both products and brands of products have status imparting qualities. Product status can be represented by the function

$$PS = f (PV \times PD)$$

where

- PS = Product status
- PV = Product visibility
- PD = Product distinctiveness

The function for PS is multiplicative rather than additive. This is because status can only exist if the product is both visible and distinctive. A zero value for visibility or distinctiveness would make PS equal to zero. If the function was expressed in terms of the sum of the two variables then PS could exist in spite of a zero value for one of the variables.

Brand status can be represented by the function

$$BS = f (BV \times BD)$$

where

- BS = Brand status
- BV = Brand visibility
- BD = Brand distinctiveness

Product status and brand status can be combined under one heading called Status of the total offering. This can be represented by the function

$$STO = f (BV \times BD) + f (PV \times PD)$$

or

$$STO = f (BS + PS)$$

where

STO = Status of the total offering.

The hypothesis is that the function of the status of the total offering (STO) is expressed in the following form

$$STO = K_1 \times (BS + PS)$$

where

$$K_1 = \text{a constant} > 0$$

The constant K_1 in the equation $SB = K_1 \times (BS + PS)$ is identical to the constant K_1 in the equation $SB = (K_1 \times P \times V \times D)$. This constant is used to explain those behavioural characteristics of the population which are not included in the model. As the population in this study is homogeneous in terms of age, income, occupation, culture, social class and family size, the constant K_1 is identical for both models.

The model is designed to distinguish the relative amount of time consumers spend shopping for any series of products. By using a homogeneous population, factors extraneous to the model are held constant, for both parts of the model.

The variables BV, BD, PV and PD are measured on a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 where 0.0 represents no visibility and no distinctiveness and 1.0 represents the greatest degree of visibility and distinctiveness a product or brand can achieve.

The function $STO = K_1 \times (BS + PS)$ means that those products that have high brand status and high product status will also have a high total status. The reverse of this applies to products that have low brand and low product status. If we use automobiles and bread as a hypothetical example, we can conclude the following.

Automobiles are highly visible and conspicuous in that they can be seen by all, this means that the product visibility for automobile; (PVa) will be high, say 0.9. In addition not everyone owns an automobile and consequently they are distinctive, this means that the product distinctiveness for automobiles (PDa) will be high, lets say 0.7. From this we conclude that the total product status of an automobile (PSa) will also be high. In fact the PS for automobiles will be 0.63.

$$PSa = K_1 \times (PV \times PD)$$

$$PSa = K_1 \times (0.9 \times 0.7)$$

$$PSa = K_1 \times 0.63$$

In addition to product status, automobiles also have brand status (BS). Brand status is measured by brand visibility and brand distinctiveness. Due to the large variety of clearly observable brands and models of automobiles it is safe to conclude that the consumer can distinguish one brand from another, and hence the brand visibility for automobiles (BVA) is high, lets say 0.9. In addition the range and variety of automobiles enables consumers to distinguish their brand from the brand of other consumers. A Rolls Royce for example can be and is clearly distinguished from a Volkswagen in the minds of the consumer. The brand distinctiveness for automobiles (BDA) therefore is likely to be high, lets say 0.7. As in the case of product status, brand status is derived by multiplying brand visibility by brand distinctiveness. This gives a value for BS of 0.63.

$$BSa = K_1 \times (BV \times BD)$$

$$BSa = K_1 \times (0.9 \times 0.7)$$

$$BSa = K_1 \times 0.63$$

In order to derive the total status of an automobile (STO) the values for (PS) and (BS) are added.

$$STOa = K_1 \times (PS + BS)$$

$$STOa = K_1 \times (0.63 + 0.63)$$

$$STOa = K_1 \times 1.26$$

A similar procedure can be used to develop a value for the total status of Bread, (STOb). In this case the values in the function

$$STOb = K_1 \times [(PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)]$$

would be very much lower. If we assume the following:

- PVb = 0.2
- PDb = 0.2
- BVb = 0.2
- BDb = 0.2

then the total status of bread has a value of 0.08

$$STOb = K_1 \times [(PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)]$$

$$STOb = K_1 \times [(0.2 \times 0.2) + (0.2 \times 0.2)]$$

$$STOb = K_1 \times (0.04 + 0.04)$$

$$STOb = K_1 \times 0.08$$

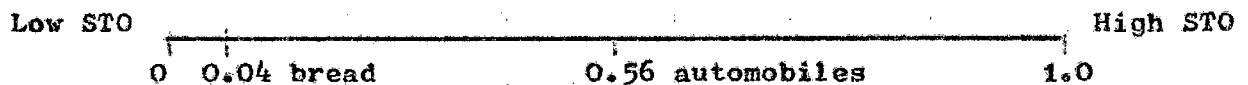
In order to make the values STOb = 1.26, and STOb = 0.08 meaningful, it is necessary to relate them. This is done by viewing them on a continuum with values ranging from 0 to 2, where 2 would be the maximum value that could be derived from the function $STO = f[(PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)]$. In order however to standardize the measuring procedures in this study it is desirable to measure all values on a continuum with a range of 0.0 to 1.0. This means that the function $STO = K_1 \times [(PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)]$ will have to be divided by 2.

$$STO = \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times [(PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)]$$

This would now mean that STO automobiles = $\frac{1.26}{2}$ and STO bread = $\frac{0.08}{2}$
 or STO automobiles = 0.63 and STO bread = 0.04.

The two values can now be related on a continuum with a range of 0.0 to 1.0 where 0.0 represents very low status and 1.0 very high status.

Relationship of STO between Various Product



In chapter VII a model was developed which described those variables that influenced the amount of time T consumer spent shopping before making a decision. The model was developed in terms of consumer shopping behaviour SB where SB and T were synonymous.

In order to relate the two models

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$$

$$\text{given } P_t > 0 \text{ and } 1 \gg A > 0$$

and

$$STO = K_1 \times (BS + PS)$$

it is necessary to express the second model in terms of shopping behaviour SB.

It is now hypothesised that the status imparting qualities of a product or brand will influence the amount of time T consumers spend on shopping behaviour SB. Put in another way, shopping behaviour is a function of status.

$$SB = K_1 \times (STO)$$

This function can be explained in the following way. High status products or brands are more important to consumers than low status products or brands. Furthermore high status products or brands are generally more expensive, less intensively distributed and relatively more heterogeneous than low status products and brands.

As a result of these factors, consumers are likely to spend more time shopping for high status products and brands than for low status products and brands. It is hypothesised that this relationship between shopping behaviour (SB) and Status (STO) is functional in nature and therefore the function

$$STO = K_1 \times (BS + PS)$$

can be expressed as

$$SB = K_1 \times (BS + PS)$$

This function is represented in the form of a diagrammatic model in Figure VIII.2. Figure VIII.3 and Figure VIII.4 are representations of the model for automobiles and bread respectively.

FIGURE VIII.1

PRODUCT AND BRAND CLASSIFICATION AS A FUNCTION OF STATUS

Status Imparting Qualities Relatively

- Weak

Strong +

Status Imparting Qualities Relatively

Strong +

- Weak

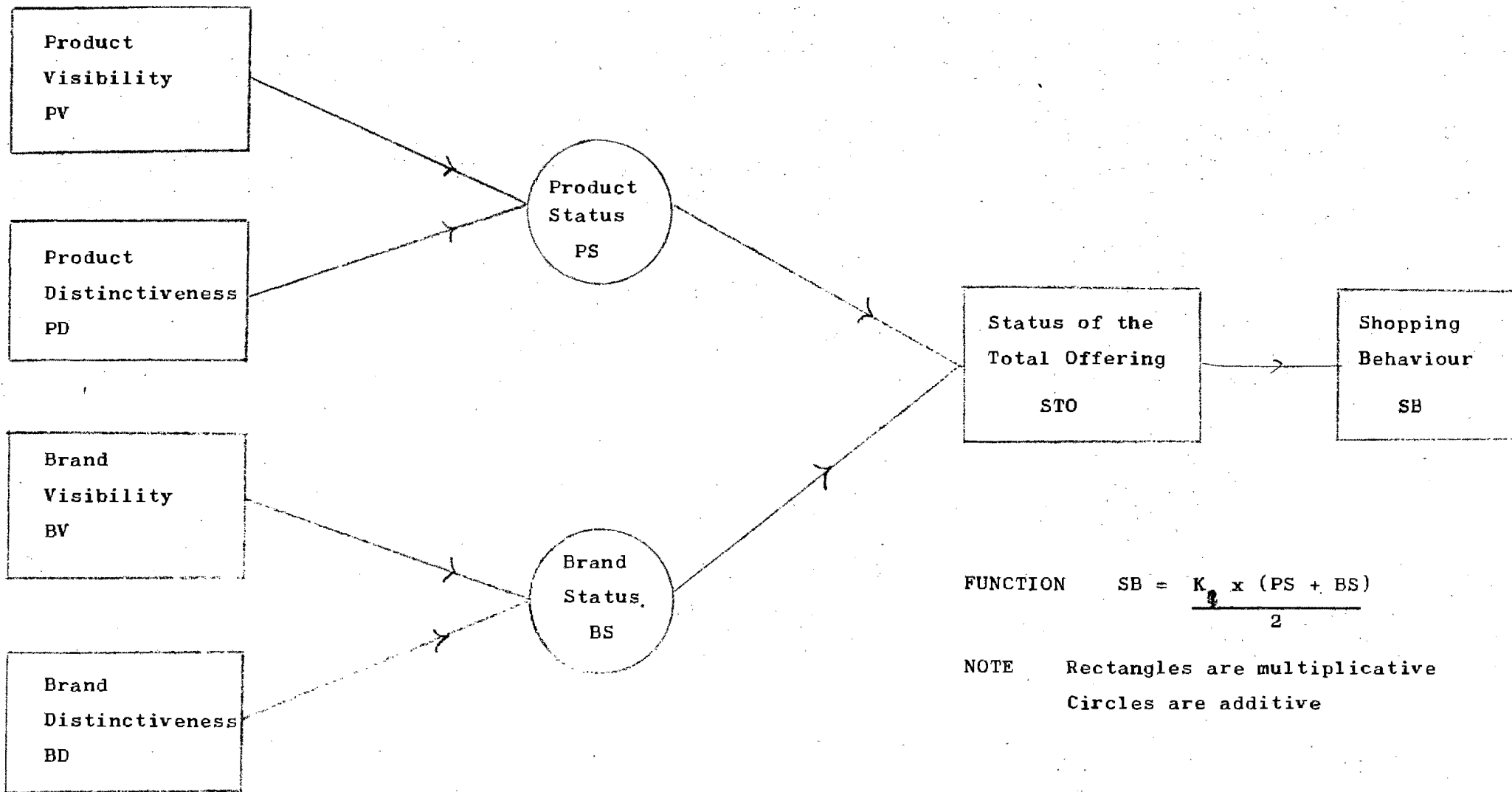
<p>-</p> <p>Clothing Furniture Magazines Refrigerator (Type) + Toilet Soap</p>	<p>+</p> <p>Cars Cigarettes Beer Drugs</p> <p>+</p>
<p>+</p> <p>Soap Canned Peaches Laundry Soap Radios</p>	<p>+</p> <p>Airconditioners Instant Coffee TV</p> <p>+</p>

Brand

- PRODUCT +

FIGURE VIII.2

MODEL DEPICTING EFFECTS OF STATUS ON SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR.



FUNCTION $SB = \frac{K_1}{2} \times (PS + BS)$

NOTE Rectangles are multiplicative
Circles are additive

FIGURE VIII.3

Model Depicting Effects of Status on Shopping Behaviour for Automobiles.

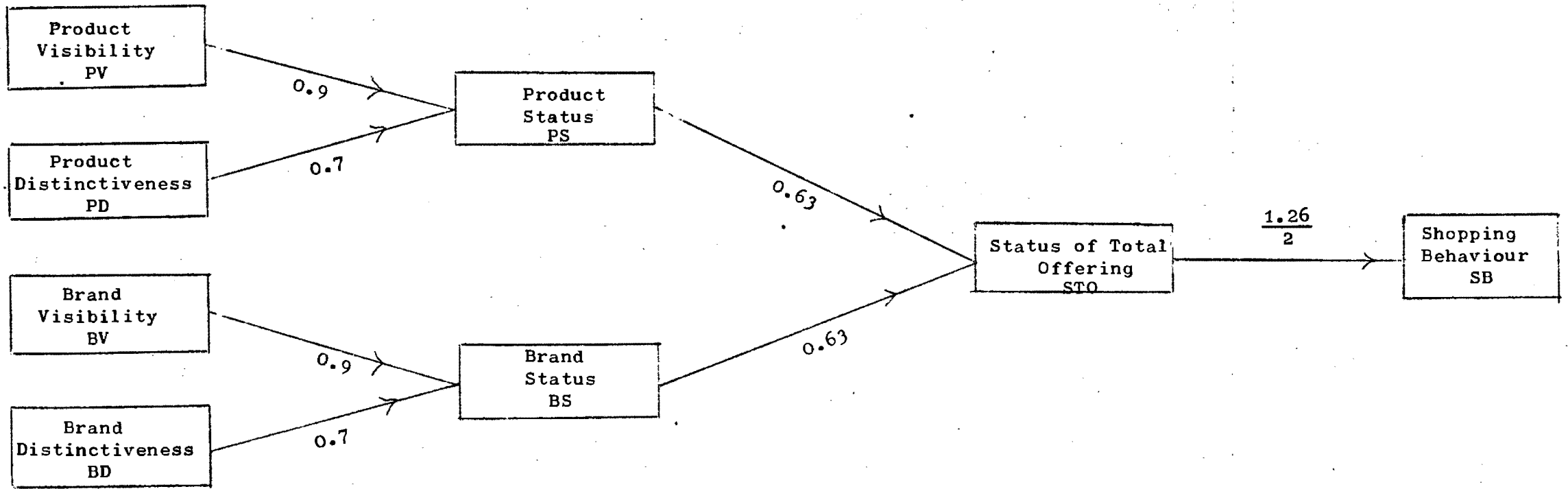
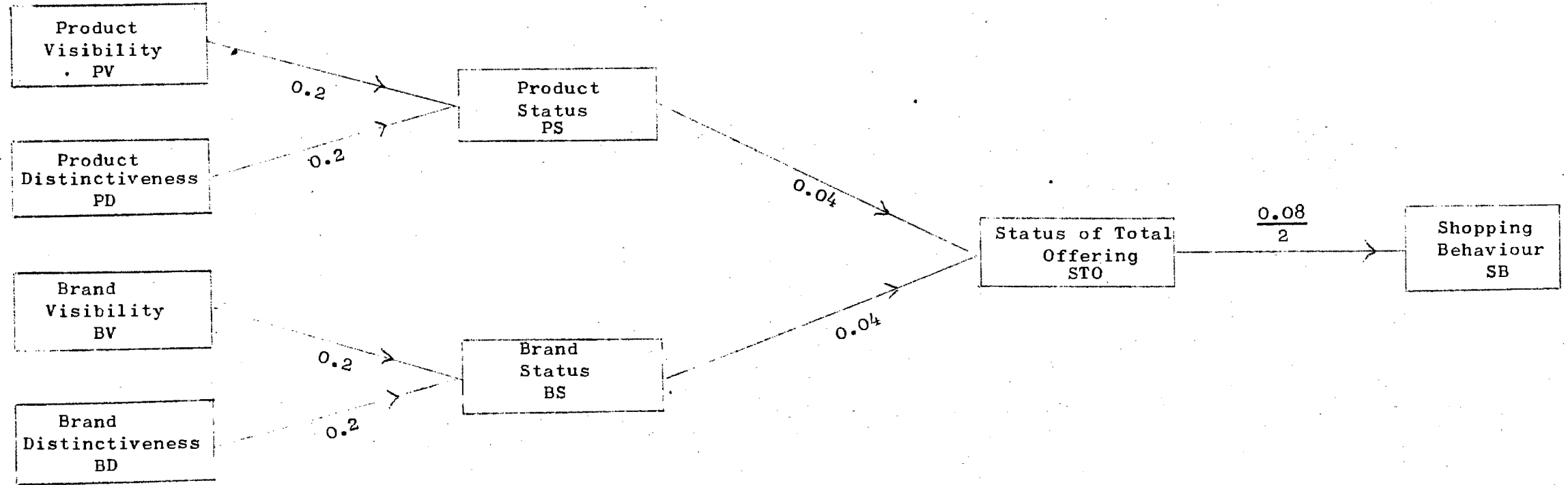


FIGURE VIII.4

Model Depicting Effects of Status on Shopping Behaviour for Bread.



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CHAPTER IX.

INTEGRATED MODEL OF SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR.

A. INTEGRATED MODEL:

This study has now reached the point at which two primary models have been developed. Both models seek to explain shopping behaviour SB in terms of time T. The first model explains SB in terms of price P, distribution D and homogeneity of available competing products H. This model is represented by the function

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$$

given $P_t > 0$ and $1 \gg A > 0$

The second model explains SB in terms of the status imparting qualities of products and brands of products. This model is represented by the function

$$SB = \frac{1}{2} K_1 \left[(P_v \times P_D) + (B_v \times B_D) \right]$$

or

$$SB = \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$$

It is now necessary to combine these two models in order to derive an overall measure of shopping behaviour in terms of time. The combined model can be expressed by the function

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$$

given $P_t > 0$ and $1 \geq A > 0$

This model is ^ddiagrammatically represented in figure IX.1.

In order to increase the viability of this model it is necessary to categorize the variables in some meaningful fashion. In this study categorization is based on the exogenous and endogenous nature of the variables.

Exogenous variables are here defined as those variables over which the consumer has little or no immediate influence.

They are variables established by the market and hence are external to the consumer's decision making process. In this model the variables contained in the function

$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$ given $P_t > 0$ and $1 \geq A > 0$ are all exogenous variables.

The reasoning behind this, is that the price of products, their distribution, and the number or range of available competing products are determined by the manufacturers, wholesalers and retailers.

This statement does not contradict the generally accepted marketing theory of the consumer initiating all action in the market place. In this case the model seeks to explain shopping behaviour over a specified period of time, a period so limited as to preclude the possibility of the consumer generating any significant changes in the price distribution and availability of competing products. This fact does not decrease the viability of the model, it merely states that shopping behaviour as expressed in time can only be measured over a specific period in time for a specific sample of consumers.

The variables consumer predisposition to purchase (Pt) and consumer awareness (A) of price (P), distribution (D) and homogeneity of available competing products (H) would not normally be considered exogenous variables as they involve an internal decision making process on the part of the consumer. (In this model however shopping behaviour is subject to predisposition being positive and consequently this variable (predisposition) will not be analysed but will be accepted as either positive or negative.)

The variables contained in the function $SB = K_4 (PV \times PD) + (BD \times BV)$

are all labeled endogenous variables. (An endogenous variable is here defined as a variable over which the consumer can and does exercise some control. In other words, the status imparting attributes of products and brands of products are dependent on the consumers motivations, cognitions and learning. In this respect, the consumers perception of himself and his relationship with his reference groups will determine the way he perceives the status of a product or brand.)

(It may be argued that the consumer is an integral part of society and has little effect on the way society views or ranks him. His perception of the status imparting attributes of a product or brand are not only an individual perception but a group perception over which he has little or no control.) If this is the case, then the variables in the function $SB = K_1 x (PV \times PD)$ are partly exogenous i.e. not controlled by the individual but the group.

The fallacy of this reasoning however is apparent when one realizes that (consumer behaviour, while not being an individual activity, is nevertheless greatly influenced by the consumer's internal drives. To this extent then, the way a consumer perceives the status of a product or brand is endogenous as well as exogenous,) but for the purpose of this model will be viewed as endogenous.

B. ADDITIONAL METHODS OF CLASSIFYING PRODUCTS:

The model developed in this study is based largely on two methods of classifying products viz by their status imparting attributes and by their grouping into convenience shopping or specialty goods. The function $SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H)$ given $P_t \geq 0$ and $1 \geq A > 0$ is based largely on the theory that goods can be classified into convenience shopping and specialty goods depending on their price, distribution and on the homogeneity of competing products.

In this section, four other methods of classifying products will be analysed. These methods of classification while not specifically labeled as such in the model, are nevertheless part of the model in that the two primary functions encompass the four additional classification methods.

1. Longevity.

Products may be classified in terms of their longevity and hence frequency of purchase. Most products fall into one of three groupings, viz, consumer non-durables, shelf products and consumer durables.

Consumer non-durables such as bread, milk, cigarettes are consumed in a short period of time and are frequently purchased. In terms of the two primary models, it is hypothesised that consumer non-durables will have a low price and an intensive distribution. Furthermore the range of competing products will be relatively homogeneous and consequently consumer non-durables will be convenience goods with little or no status imparting attributes.

Shelf products e.g. alcohol, cosmetics, pharmaceuticals, are generally consumed over a period of time - as much as a year. These products are called shelf products because in spite of the fact that they can be consumed rapidly they are nevertheless generally purchased and shelved by the consumer for present and future consumption. These products have a higher price and are less intensively distributed than consumer non-durables. Furthermore they form part of a wide range of heterogeneous competing and substitute products.)

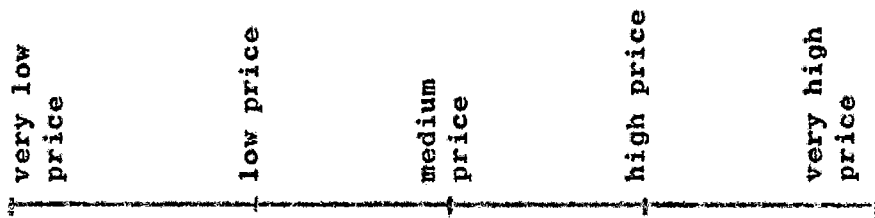
Shelf products have more status imparting attributes than do consumer non-durables. They are not convenience or shopping goods but a mixture of the two depending on the nature of the consumer.

Consumer durables eg. appliances, automobiles and clothes are intended to last for at least one year and often for as many as ten years. These products are not frequently purchased, and consumers devote more time and effort to their purchase than to the purchase of non-durables or shelf products. Durables are expensive and selectively distributed. Competing, or substitute products, can be differentiated and branding is less important for these products than for non-durables or shelf products. Consumer durables are generally shopping goods or specialty goods, they are highly susceptible to status, and generally have more status imparting attributes than non-durables or shelf products.

From the above classification, it can be seen that the model developed in this study provides for an analysis of products in terms of their longevity and frequency of purchase.

2. Price:

(A further method of classifying products is by price. The concept of price however is so relative as to make it meaningless unless viewed in terms of a known market segment.) Bread may be viewed as being expensive to a Bantu in the Transkei but cheap to a white director of companies. In spite of the relative nature of price, there is a relationship between a series of prices for any homogeneous group of consumers. In other words, bread has a lower price than whisky and whisky is cheaper than an automobile regardless of the nature of the consumer. This statement does not imply that the relationship between the utility of a series of products in terms of price will be the same for all consumers. The statement does however imply that for a known and relatively homogeneous market there is a relationship between a group of products and their prices.) This relationship can be viewed on a price continuum of 1 to 5, where 1 is a very low price, and 5 is a very high price.



In terms of the above analysis, it is hypothesised that products with a cheap price will have a shorter life, will be more intensively distributed, and will be more homogeneous than products with a high price.

In other words products with a low price are more likely to be convenience goods than shopping or specialty goods and less likely to have status imparting qualities than products with a high price.

3. Need Hierarchy:

In chapter two it was seen that man has a reasonably well defined need hierarchy. According to Maslow all human behaviour is directed toward the satisfaction of a hierarchy of needs. These needs in order of ascendancy are:

Physiological and safety

Social

Ego

Self-fulfillment¹

This need hierarchy is a further basis for product classification. Products may be grouped in terms of their need-

satisfying attributes. So, for example, bread or milk can be viewed as products that satisfy man's physical needs.

Classification in terms of man's needs however is extremely complex if not impossible. Most products satisfy a wide variety of needs, many of which are not even known to the consumer. Even a simple product like bread satisfies more than just physical needs. According to Dichter, "Relatively little bread has been baked at home in the last generation or so yet most of us still have a mysterious nostalgic feeling about the aroma of bread."² The baking of bread is an almost religious ceremony in some cultures. Furthermore bread provides sensory satisfaction, individuality, family associations, home made connotations and status to its consumers.³

Clothing is another example of a product purchased to satisfy a physical need namely protection from the elements. Clothing is, however, also purchased to satisfy social needs that is the needs of belonging and feeling part of a social group. Clothes enable man to conform to group norms and to satisfy the security need by being accepted by the group. Clothes also satisfy ego and self esteem needs. Consumers take pride in what they wear, and the phrase "no self respecting persons would be seen dead in that" indicates that clothes do

satisfy ego and self esteem needs.

In the case of automobiles the need satisfying attributes of the product are even more complex and more numerous than in the case of clothes. In chapter two the need satisfying attributes of an automobile were described in detail.

In spite of the difficulty of categorising products in terms of their need satisfying attributes, it is possible to suggest a tentative hypothesis that relates man's needs to the model.

It is hypothesised that for products that satisfy primarily lower level needs the life of the product will be shorter, the price cheaper, the distribution more intensive and the nature of competing products more homogeneous than for products that satisfy primarily higher level needs. In other words products that satisfy lower level needs are likely to be convenience goods while products that satisfy higher level needs are likely to be shopping or specialty goods.

Furthermore products that satisfy lower level needs will have fewer status imparting attributes than products which satisfy higher level needs.

If the above hypothesis is valid, then the time T spent shopping for a product which is expected to satisfy higher

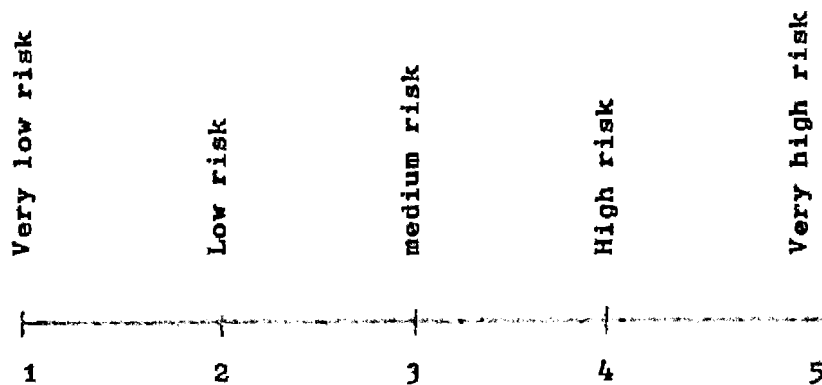
level needs will be greater than the time T spent shopping for a product intended to satisfy lower level needs.

4. Risk Taking.

Products may also be classified in terms of the perceived amount of risk involved in their purchase. In chapter two it was stated that "consumer buying involves risk in the sense that any action of the consumer will produce consequences which he cannot anticipate with great certainty. Some of these consequences may be most unpleasant and consequently consumers are motivated to reduce the risk of unpleasant results when purchasing a product"⁴.

The problems in categorising products in terms of perceived risk are similar to the problems encountered in categorising products in terms of price. A high risk purchase for a Bantu is not the same as a high risk purchase for a white man. In spite of this, products can be categorised in terms of risk for a known and relatively homogeneous population. The relationship between a series of products measured in terms of risk can be viewed on a continuum of 1 to 5 where 1

represents products with a very low risk and 5 products with a very high risk.



It is hypothesised that the purchase of all products by all consumers involves some degree of risk taking, and hence the continuum does not provide for the purchase of products that involve no risk.

In terms of the above analysis, it is suggested that the lower the risk involved in the purchase of a product, the lower will be the price of the product, the shorter will be the life, the more intensive the distribution, the lower the need satisfying attributes the lower the status imparting qualities and the

greater the probability of the product being a convenience as opposed to a shopping or specialty, good.

It is immediately obvious that there are significant exceptions to the above. In the case of drugs for example, distribution is intense but nevertheless the perceived risk in purchase may be high. It is therefore suggested that in the case of products involving health and safety risk will be perceived as being high regardless of the price, distribution, life or status of the product.

From the above analysis of four additional ways of classifying products, it can be observed that the model proposed in this study while not specifically referring to such things as risk reduction or need hierarchy does provide room for the inclusion of these factors in the final interpretation of the model.

C. THE MODEL AND THE ENVIRONMENT:

In parts ^{ONE} ~~one~~ and ^{TWO} ~~two~~ of this study, it was stated that consumer behaviour is a complex phenomenon in which a series of individual factors namely motivations, cognitions and learning interact with the cultural, social, political, religious, family and economic life of the consumer. An understanding of consumer behaviour requires an appreciation of the interrelationships between these factors.

The model developed in part ^{THREE} ~~three~~ of this study is an attempt to isolate those factors most critical in determining the amount of time consumers spend shopping. In order to render the model more viable it is now necessary to consider some of the other interrelated factors that influence shopping behaviour. These factors will form the framework within which the model must be viewed. These factors help explain variations in the model. They do not, however, bear a direct relationship to the model.

Six "framework factors" are considered most critical to a final interpretation of the model. These six "framework factors" are:

- 1) Income
- 2) Social class
- 3) Occupation
- 4) Education
- 5) Familism
- 6) Culture

Income:

Consumer shopping behaviour has traditionally been viewed as being vitally influenced by income.

One intuitively assumes that because the rich are able to afford more products than the poor that the rich will spend less time shopping than the poor. While this fact may be true, it is not necessarily so.

The rich may be just as subject to cognitive dissonance and they may be just as intent on risk reduction as the poor. The fact that the rich can more afford an unwise purchase than the poor, does not necessarily mean that they will spend less time shopping than the poor.

The difference between the shopping behaviour of various income groups becomes even more vague when not viewed at the extremes.

For example, it cannot be assumed that a family with an income of R8,000 per year will spend more time shopping than a family with an income of R12,000 per annum.

The above analysis is not an attempt to eliminate the importance of income on shopping behaviour. It is rather an attempt to demonstrate that no direct relationship can be assumed between income and shopping behaviour.

Social Class:

In Chapter IV, it was stated that the existence of a class structure is to be found in every country of the world.

"In a sense some very real distinctions exist in the buying behaviour of different social classes"⁶ Social class

influences shopping behaviour in two major ways. Firstly a class structure affects and influences an individual's goals, and also his role in the group. Secondly a class structure affects and influences a consumer's values.⁷

Consumers strive to maintain congruence between their perceived values, goals and roles and their behaviour. This striving for congruence and cognitive consonance affects consumers shopping behaviour. What the precise affect of social class is on shopping behaviour is unknown.

In terms of the model, it is necessary to appreciate the importance of social class on shopping behaviour, and as in the case of income, this is best done when interpreting the model.

Occupation:

As in the case of social class, society expects consumers of a particular occupation group to behave in a certain manner. Consumers furthermore are aware of this expected behaviour and strive for congruence between their expected and their actual shopping behaviour.

It could be argued that occupation, income and education are the most important criteria causing people to form a social class.⁸ And for this reason the former three factors should not be considered individually but as part of social class. In terms of the model however, it is felt that combining these factors under the heading social class will detract from the significance of the final interpretation of the model.

For example there is a significant difference in the behaviour of an English doctor from an Afrikaans doctor, or from a wealthy doctor to a poor doctor, and if occupation was lumped together as part of social class, the effect of these differences on shopping behaviour might be lost.

Education:

Like occupation, education is generally viewed as being one of the criteria of social class. In this study and for purposes of interpretation of the model, education will be viewed as a separate factor influencing shopping behaviour. In order to appreciate and understand the difference between say an MA economics who runs a consulting firm and an MA economics who teaches at a university it is necessary to view education in terms of occupation income and social class. At this stage it is hypothesised that there is no direct correlation between education and shopping behaviour but that some relationship does exist. It could be intuitively stated for example that an engineer might spend less time shopping for an appliance than a person with no technical

training. On the other hand, it could be also stated that because the engineer has a greater knowledge about the functioning of an appliance he will spend more time shopping than an uninformed consumer. Intuitive statements like this can be more rationally understood through an interpretation of the model.

Family Influences:

"Family influences account for a great deal of spending especially in the leisure time field; and family habits influence both the present and the future purchasing behaviour of its members. As an important unit of spending, the family and its changing patterns of living influence the total market".⁹

In the case of shopping behaviour, family influences are expected to be particularly significant. The phenomenon of joint family shopping, and decision making will vitally affect the amount of time consumers spend shopping. This phenomenon is closely related to family income, education and occupation.. In other words there is a relationship

between joint shopping behaviour and social class. The degree of joint shopping behaviour is also largely determined by the nature and status of the product. Products used by the whole family, e.g. automobiles and hi-fidelity sets frequently involve a joint decision in which the husband, wife and children participate.)

A further factor influencing the amount of time a family unit may spend shopping, is the closing hour of the stores. In the U.S., for example, more time is spent shopping for food because supermarkets are open after office hours, and as a result both husband and wife may shop together. This is not the case in South Africa where generally only the wife shops for food.

In interpreting the model therefore it must be borne in mind that the amount of time T that consumers spend shopping is influenced by the nature of family shopping.

Culture:

"Culture like social class is another social aggregation or collectivity".¹⁰ The effects of culture on shopping behaviour were discussed in detail in Chapter IV. It must be stressed

however that the effects of culture are relatively long lasting, and acculturation is a slow process so that mainly intermarket differences in culture are relevant rather than a change in the culture of given consumers.¹¹

Culture exerts a major influence on individual values, goals and perception, and as such culture influences consumer shopping behaviour.

In a heterogeneous country like South Africa where four major culture - White, Coloured, Bantu and Asiatic, and hundreds of minor cultures - English, Afrikaans, Jewish etc. exist side by side there are marginal transaction areas which have the values of several cultures. The values in these marginal areas become so infused that people in these areas have different shopping behaviour habits from any of the basic cultures.

As stated previously, an understanding and rational interpretation of the model must involve an appreciation of the six framework factors of income, social class, occupation, family, education and culture. These factors form the environment in which the model becomes operative.

These factors do not bear a functional relationship to the model and hence are represented in Figure IX.2 as framework factors influencing the model.

FIGURE IX.1

Combined Model of Consumer Shopping Behaviour.

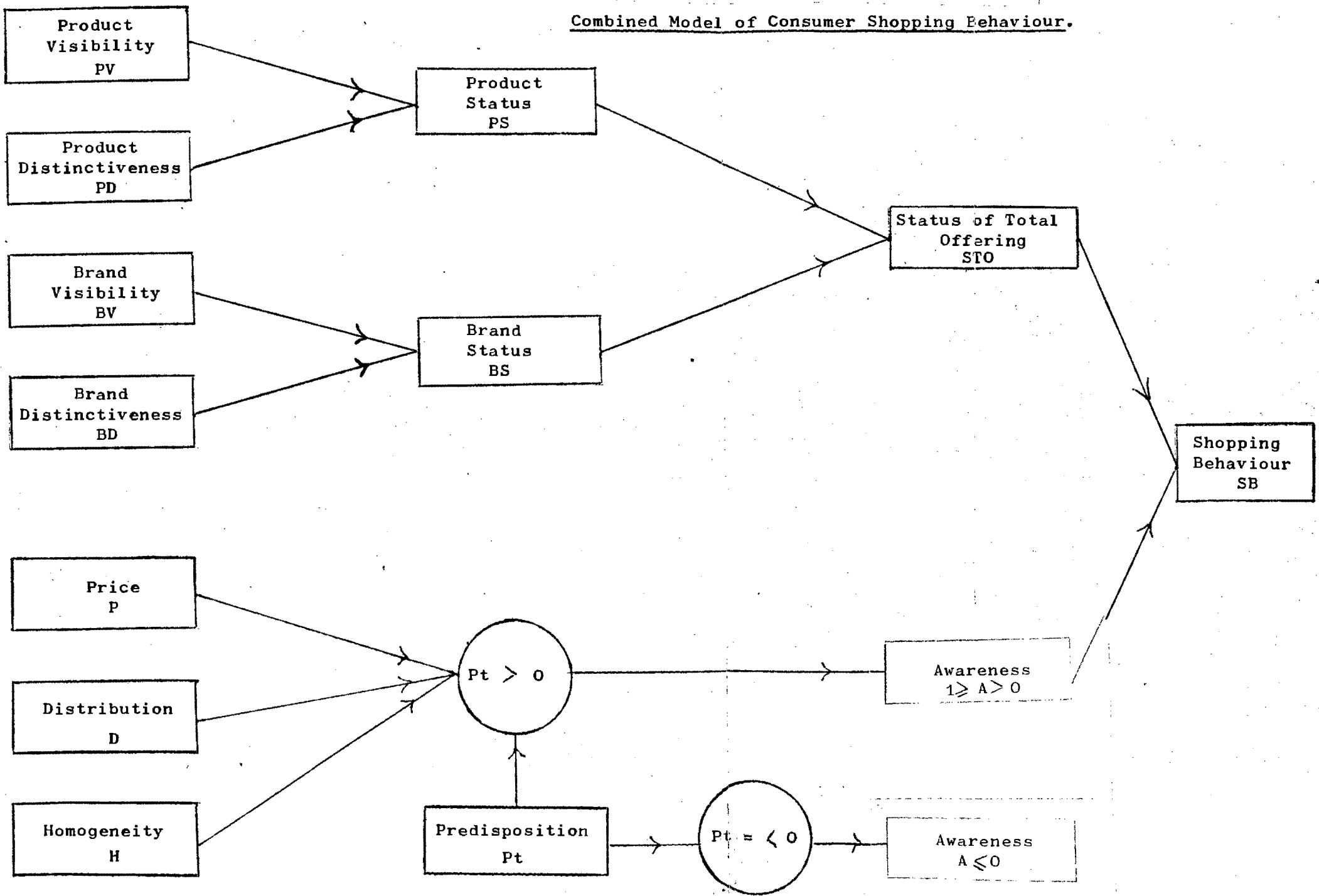
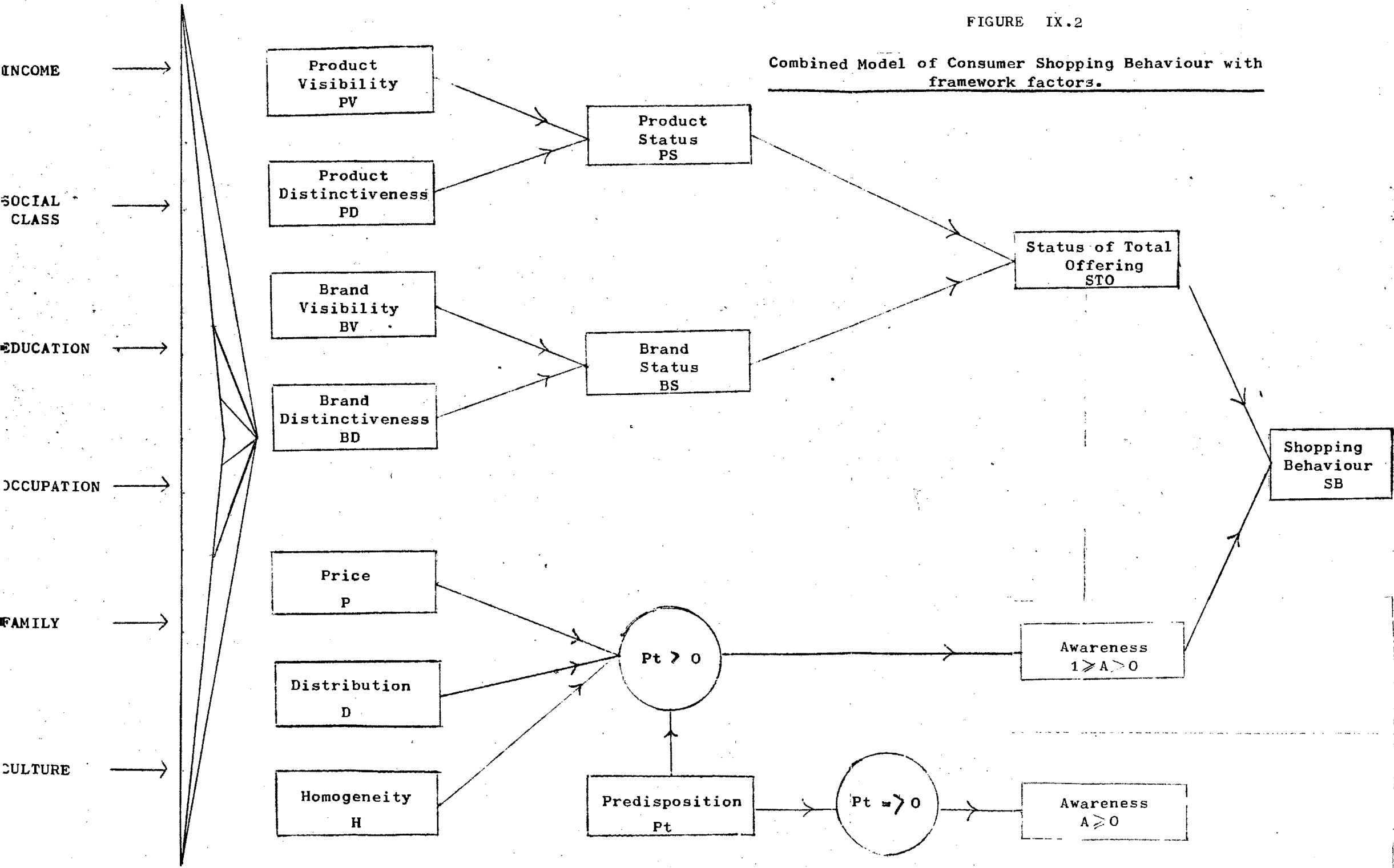


FIGURE IX.2

Combined Model of Consumer Shopping Behaviour with framework factors.



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CHAPTER X.

TESTING THE MODEL: PRODUCT SELECTION.

In chapters VII, VIII and IX, a model of consumer shopping behaviour was developed. In order to empirically test this model, four products will be selected for analysis. In chapter VII a list of 24 electrical household appliances was developed. From this list, four products will be selected for analysis. In order to select those products, it is necessary to classify all the appliances in terms of their status imparting qualities and in terms of their shopping behaviour attributes.

The status classification is accomplished in terms of Figure VII.1 in chapter VII where products and brands are classified in terms of their status imparting qualities. In other words, appliances can be classified as product + brand +; product - brand +; product + brand -; product - brand - products. Figure X.1 is an hypothetical classification of the 24 appliances in terms of status attributes. In the case of refrigerators, and air conditioners however, research

conducted in the USA has indicated that air conditioners are product + and brand - products, while refrigerators are product - brand + products.¹

In terms of shopping behaviour attributes, the appliances are hypothetically categorized into convenience, shopping or specialty goods. Figure X.1 is a matrix of this classification.

In order to select four products with divergent attributes, it is necessary to combine Figure X.1 and Table X.1 so that a composite picture of appliances can be obtained. Figure X.2 is the combined matrix.

All appliances in Figure X.2 are listed in the matrix. Their classification is hypothetical and relative i.e. products are classified in relation to each other. The criteria used for classification was described in detail in chapters VII and VIII.

By definition a product with no brand or product status cannot be a shopping good or a specialty item. These two cells are therefore blanked out.

By definition a convenience good cannot provide product status imparting qualities. These two cells have therefore been blanked out.

By definition a specialty good cannot include products that have no product status imparting qualities. This cell is therefore blanked out.

From the hypothetical classification in Figure X.2 it is seen that most appliances have product but no brand status, and that most appliances are either shopping or specialty goods. None of the 24 products appear to fall into the category specialty goods with both brand and product status imparting qualities.

The following four products have been selected from this matrix for further empirical study.

Refrigerator

Washing machine

Toaster

Coffee Percolator

Each of these products fall into a different cell of the matrix. With the exception of product - brand + convenience and shopping goods, the four products represent all of the different cells in the matrix.

Furthermore each of the appliances have a wide variety of attributes, some the same, some similar and some unique. In terms of the South African environment, these products are hypothesised to have the following attributes:

(A) Refrigerators:

A refrigerator is a high cost item owned by practically all family units. Market saturation is therefore high but not yet complete. Furthermore for many families refrigerator ownership is relatively new, and its innovativeness to the family unit is still high. A refrigerator has high visibility vis-à-vis most other appliances. It is likely to be noticed and commented upon by friends. These factors make a refrigerator a high status product.

Branding amongst refrigerators is strong. The word Frigidaire has become a generic word amongst large segments of the population. It is also hypothesised that brand knowledge for this item will be stronger than for most other household appliances. For these reasons then a refrigerator is expected to have brand status as well as product status.

Refrigerators are selectively distributed in most appliance, furniture, department and discount stores. They are not yet

intensively distributed through outlets other than the above. At a casual glance most refrigerators appear to look similar. Consumers however, through their shopping efforts, are able to determine the different product features of refrigerators and consequently, in the eyes of the consumer, available competing brands are not homogeneous.

(D) Washing Machine:

A washing machine is a high cost item not yet owned by all family units. Market saturation is not complete. As with a refrigerator, but to an even greater extent, those families that own washing machines are generally more innovative than families without washing machines. The fact that a washing machine is considered a non essential item by many families gives even greater status to owners of this product. While the visibility of a washing machine is not as great as the visibility of a refrigerator - washing machines are frequently kept in a laundry or behind a curtain in the bathroom - nevertheless the limited ownership of this product makes it distinctive. Purchase of this product is likely to be communicated to friend and neighbours more rapidly than the

purchase of many other appliances. All these factors make a washing machine a high status product in the eyes of the consumer.

In spite of limited ownership of washing machines, and their relative newness to the consumer, it is hypothesised that brand knowledge and discrimination will be high. Furthermore the high product status of this product will foster and impart brand status. For these reasons it is hypothesised that washing machines will have high product status and a lower brand status.

Like refrigerators, washing machines are selectively distributed in appliance departments and discount stores. Distribution is however likely to be less intense for washing machines than for refrigerators. Furthermore there are fewer brands and varieties on the market, and to many families, particularly the husband, washing machines are more homogeneous than refrigerators.

(C) Toasters:

Toasters are a relatively low cost appliance with extensive ownership and high market saturation. They are more extensively distributed than most other appliances. They are found in appliance, discount, department, grocery, furniture and supermarket stores. Consequently toasters fall into the category of convenience goods. In spite of their visibility it is difficult to discriminate one from another. They are frequently sold in outlets that carry a wide range of other products e.g. supermarkets, and hence have lost some of their appeal as appliances. Their electrical simplicity further reduces their product status. These factors reduce the status of the toaster in the eyes of the consumer.

It is hypothesised that consumers are not particularly brand conscious nor are they particularly cognisant of the numerous brands available, or the advantages of the various brands. The distinctiveness of a toaster is limited, in fact the brand may not even be visible.

For these reasons a toaster is classified as having no product or brand status.

(D) Coffee Percolator:

A coffee percolator is a low cost item, compared to a refrigerator or washing machine. In spite of this, ownership is limited and the market is far from being saturated. It could be reasoned that this is unusual taking into account the amount of coffee drunk by the market. It is however hypothesized that consumers are not as familiar with this product as they are with the three other appliances and furthermore their expectation of the utility derived from this product is low. This means that in terms of utility this is a high priced product to the consumer. Ownership of this product will therefore impart status. The product itself is most visible in that it may be used when the family is entertaining guests. It therefore serves a social function and will result in comment being made by friends. Ownership of the product indicates innovativeness and opinion leadership further factors connoting status.

The newness of the product and the fact that it has not been on the market as long as the three other appliances under consideration will limit the amount of brand awareness on the part of the consumer. The distinctiveness and visibility of

the brand is low, and ownership of one brand as opposed to another will not impart much status to the owners. For these reasons a coffee percolator will have high product status and low brand status.

In spite of the fact that a coffee percolator is a shopping good, it is less intensively distributed than a refrigerator, washing machine or toaster. This is largely due to the newness of the product, to the limited number of brands available and to the relatively low demand and low perceived utility of the product.

In order to gain an even clearer understanding of the nature of the four products, the following findings by American writers are useful.

According to Dichter, appliances have a definite masculine connotation.² In medieval days much of the heavy work in the house was done by the man. In many cases the man did the heavy scrubbing and washing and was generally expected to help the woman with heavy household chores.³

"Modern home appliances are really a substitute for the man who used to do the heavy work".⁴ The man in today's

society has relinquished his jobs to the machine. "Therefore the washing machine, the freezer or the dishwasher is a representative of the man who pays for them"⁵

Woman generally expect appliances to be as fully automatic as possible, and they tend to seek appliances that have as many gadgets as possible in order to reduce their handling of any part of the chore.

Women also resent the fact that appliances tend to break down from time to time. In order to compensate for this, housewives sometimes minimize the use and importance of the appliance.

"When buying electrical appliances people actually ask to make sure that they are getting the latest in ingenuity. This becomes a very important aspect in highlighting the importance of a given brand.

Washing machines and other electrical appliances follow a social hierarchy; there are Cadillacs among electrical appliances as well as everyday pedestrian machines."⁶

Appliance also enables the housewife to satisfy her desire of being effecient, clean, and family conscious. They allow

her to satisfy this need by doing more jobs more rapidly and effeciently.

Whether Dichter's findings that appliances are a substitute for the man's household role is valid in South Africa is questionable. It could be argued that for the majority of Whites in South Africa, the man has never been associated with household chores due to the availability of cheap non-white domestic help. From an anthropological point of view however, the Whites in South Africa are descended from the Judeo Christian culture and as such cannot be distinguished from the average European or American.

FIGURE X.1

CLASSIFICATION OF APPLIANCE IN TERMS OF STATUS.

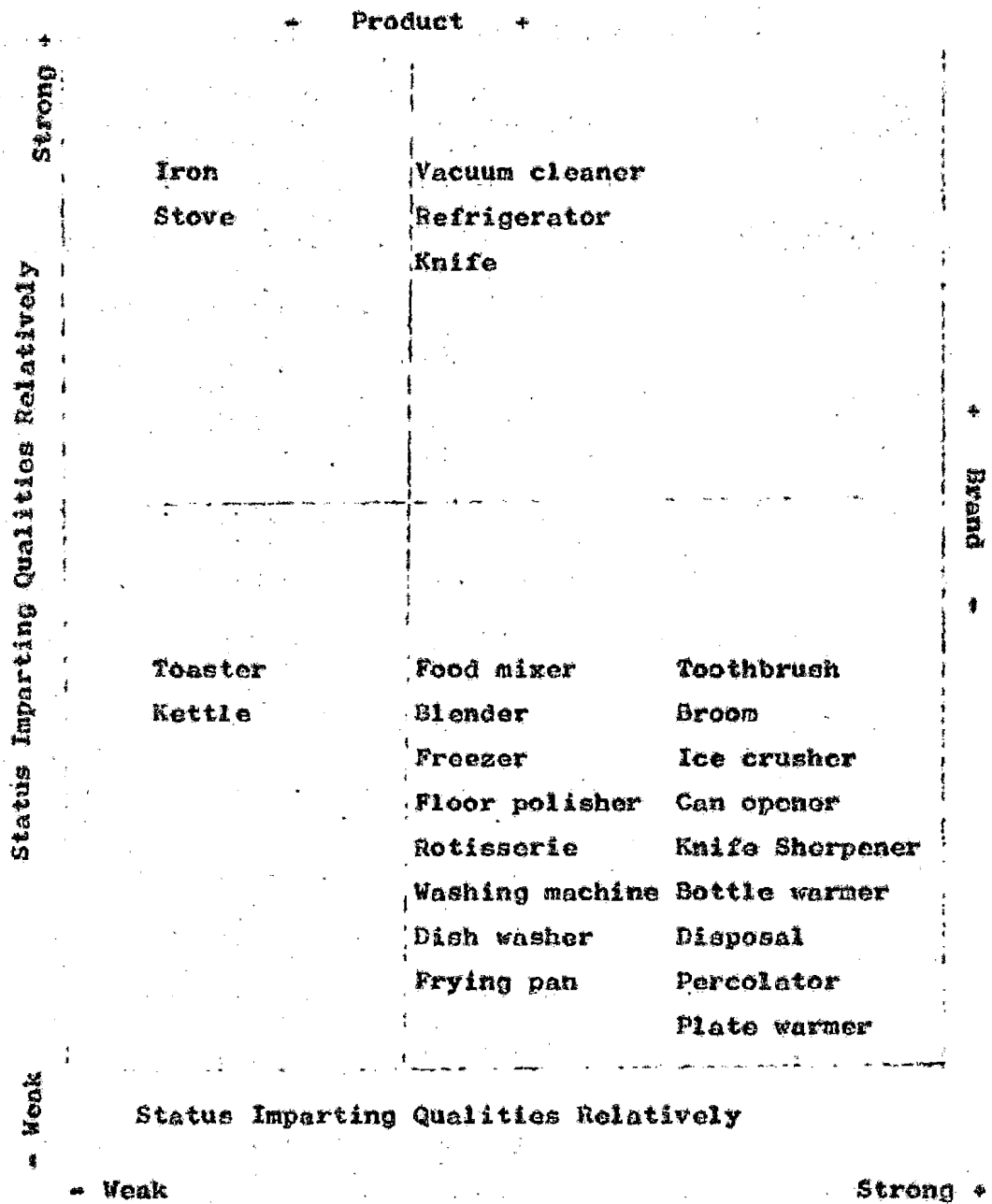


TABLE X.1

CLASSIFICATION OF APPLIANCES IN TERMS OF SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR.

CONVENIENCE GOODS	SHOPPING GOODS	SPECIALTY GOODS
Iron	Stove	Knife
Toaster	Vacuum cleaner	Toothbrush
Kettle	Refrigerator	Broom
	Food mixer	Ice crusher
	Blender	Opener
	Floor polisher	Knife sharpener
	Washing machine	Bottle warmer
	Rotisserie	Disposal
	Plate warmer	Frying pan
		Percolator
		Freezer
		Dishwasher

Product Categorization by Shopping Behaviour and Status
Differentiation of Household Appliances.

		SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR		
		Convenience	Shopping	Specialty
STATUS DIFFERENTIATION	Brand+ Product-	Iron	Stove	
	Brand+ Product+		Vacuum Cleaner Refrigerator	
	Brand- Product+		Food mixer Blender Floor polisher Rotisserie Washing machine Plate warmer	Freezer Electric knife Electric broom Ice crusher Can opener Knife sharpener Bottle warmer Disposal Electric toothbrush Frying pan Dishwasher
	Brand- Product-	Toaster Kettle		

REFERENCES: CHAPTER X.

1. Francis S. Bourne, "Different kinds of Decisions and Reference-Group influence". Marketing and the Behavioural sciences, Perry Bliss, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, 1963, pp. 240.
2. Ernest Dichter, Handbook of Consumer Motivators, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965, p. 130.
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid. p. 131.

PART FOUR.

Validating the Model: The Empirical Survey.

Chapter XI.

Testing the Model: The Sample, The Questionnaire and the Interviewing Method.

- A. Introduction
- B. The Population
- C. Categorisation of Population
- D. Final Sample
- E. The Questionnaire
- F. Interviewing Method

Chapter XII.

The Nature of Appliance Ownership and the Variable Shopping Behaviour SB.

- A. The Nature of Appliance Ownership
- B. Shopping Behaviour SB

Chapter XIII.

Analysis of the First Three Variables (P x D x H)

- A. The Variable Price
- B. The Variable Distribution
- C. The Variable Homogeneity of Available Competing Products.

Chapter XIV.

Analysis of the Last Two Variables (PS + BS)

- A. Product Status
- B. Brand Status
- C. Status of the Total Offering.

Chapter XV.

Testing the Model and Final Conclusions.

- A. The Exogenous Variables (P x D x H0)
- B. The Endogenous Variables (P^W x PD) + (BV x BD)
- C. Testing the Total Model
- D. Final Conclusions of the Study.

CHAPTER XI.

TESTING THE MODEL:- THE SAMPLE, THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND THE INTERVIEWING METHOD.

A. INTRODUCTION:

The major objective of the study is to determine whether the function

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$$

given $P_t > 0$ and $1 \gg A > 0$

does in fact determine the amount of time T consumers spend on shopping behaviour SB.

In order to test this model, it is desirable to hold all factors that do not directly relate to the model constant.

While this can never be completely achieved, it is possible to limit the effect of factors outside the model to a minimum.

In terms of the model, it is hypothesised that the six framework factors described in chapter IX are the ones most likely to influence the outcome of the study.

These factors namely income, occupation, social class, familism, culture and education, are therefore the factors that need to be controlled in order to test the model.

It can be argued that these factors have such a wide and pervasive influence on consumer behaviour that they can never be effectively controlled or held constant. While this cannot be refuted, it is nevertheless possible to limit the effect of the framework factors on the function

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (Ps + BS)$$

given $Pt > 0$ and $1 \gg A > 0$

This can be accomplished by the careful selection of an homogeneous sample where respondents are selected by virtue of the fact that they have a similar background. A sample of this nature then is not and should not be random.

The use of a controlled and relatively homogeneous sample does not negate the purpose of this study, for if the respondents are all of the same background then it could be hypothesised that their behaviour or the amount of time T spent on shopping behaviour SB would also be constant and homogeneous.

This may very well be the case, but this in no way affects the validity of the study. The model developed in this study seeks to determine the amount of time T consumers spend shopping for products and not the effect of their culture or income on their shopping behaviour SB. This

does not mean that the framework factors do not influence shopping behaviour, for they undoubtedly do, it means however that regardless of the framework factors, there is a relationship between the amount of time consumers spend shopping for various products. This relationship between the amount of time is in terms of the model directly related to the variables of the model.

A homogeneous model will therefore indicate the relationship between the amount of time consumers spend shopping and the nature of the product. This relationship then is directly related to the nature of the product in terms of its price, distribution, homogeneity, product status and brand status.

For example, the results of the study might indicate that the sample views a refrigerator as having higher brand and product status than a washing machine, and furthermore a refrigerator may be viewed as being more expensive, less intensively distributed and more heterogeneous than a washing machine. In terms of the model, then consumers should spend more time T on shopping for a refrigerator than for a washing machine.

Furthermore once the results of the study are analysed, they can then be related to the six framework factors, and the effect of these factors on the findings.

B. THE POPULATION:

The population from which the sample will be selected is the Jewish population of Cape Town. There are numerous reasons for the selection of this population not the least of which is the intimate knowledge the writer has of this population, its origins, background, culture, location and behaviour.

A further factor in the selection of this population is the relatively detailed and available statistics on the population. No other segment of the country's population is as well defined as the Jewish population. Furthermore the identity of this population is strong and cohesive with concentrations in limited and defined areas.

The fact that the Jews are a minority group with a well developed religious belief immediately sets them apart as a distinct sub-culture. Assimilation and inter-marriage have not appreciably diluted the character of the Jews.

In terms of the broadest framework factor culture the Jews are probably the most homogeneous of all White sub-cultures in South Africa.

Available statistics on the Jewish population, its location, and its affiliation to Synagogues are available. Indication of income levels, education, occupation and size of family have been derived from various sources. Assistance by National and local Jewish organizations has enabled the writer to develop a relatively homogeneous sample.

The 1960 census lists 114,501 Jewish souls in South Africa.¹ This figure had, it is estimated, risen to 118,000 by 1968.² Of the total number of Jews in South Africa in 1960, 73,051 were in the Transvaal, 32,104 in the Cape, 6,189 in Natal and 3,157 in the Orange Free State.

"Roughly half of South African Jews live in Johannesburg (57,707). When the figures for the East Rand (6,110), West Rand (2,510), Pretoria (3,576) and Vereeniging - Vanderbyl Park - Nigel (861) are added, 60% of South Africa's Jews live in the Rand - Pretoria complex. Cape Town and the Peninsula (23,866) account for another 20%. The remaining 20% is spread over the rest of the country, from substantial Jewish communities in Durban (5,231), Port Elizabeth - Uitenhage (2,811), Bloemfontein and districts (1,347) to smaller communities ranging from a few hundred Jews to a handful of Jewish families in the rural towns"³

The present European population of Cape Town and its suburbs is estimated to be 335,000. Of this total European population, 7% or approximately 26,000 are Jewish. The total number of Jewish families in Cape Town is only 5,000.⁴ The two major concentrations of Jewish families are in the Sea Point area and the Southern Suburbs particularly Rondebosch, Claremont, Wynberg, Kenilworth, Newlands, Observatory and Mowbray.

It is estimated that over 90% of all Jewish families belong to one of the 11 major synagogues in Cape Town.⁵ The sample used in this study will be drawn from the Southern Suburbs in which there are the four following Synagogues:

Claremont Hebrew Congregation	400 members ⁶
Observatory and Mowbray Hebrew Congregation	60 members
Wynberg Hebrew Congregation	240 members
Cape Town Jewish Reform Congregation	700 members ⁷

In total there are an estimated 1,400 families that belong to Synagogues in the Southern Suburbs. This represents 31.1% of the total number of families affiliated to a Synagogue in Cape Town.

In order to develop a homogeneous sample, it is necessary to determine whether the Jews belonging to the four major Synagogues are in fact similar.

The Claremont, Wynberg and Observatory, Newbray Congregations are all Orthodox, while the Cape Town Jewish Reform Congregation (Wynberg Branch) is a Reform Congregation. Without analysing in detail the differences between Orthodox and Reform it can be said that there are significant differences between these two forms of Judaism and hence the two groups are culturally different. For this reason the Reform Congregation is not used as part of the population from which the sample is drawn.

Of the three other Congregations there are differences but these relate primarily to the age and occupation of the congregants.^B

From the above three congregations, a population of 257 was derived. This population includes information on the age, income, occupation, education and number of children of the various congregants. Out of this population, a homogeneous sample of 72 was selected. In order to establish the homogeneity of the sample, each of the framework factors was

analysed. The broadest framework factor, namely culture was examined first.

C. CATEGORIZATION OF POPULATION:

The present South African generation of Jews are the grand children and great-grandchildren of immigrants that originated largely from Eastern Europe and primarily from Lithuania. These immigrants became both in numbers and in character the dominant element in South African Jewry.⁹

The Jews of South Africa therefore share not only a religious heritage extending back over 2,000 years, but also share an Eastern European Ghetto culture. Furthermore the Zconist movement is strong in South Africa and further binds the Jews into a tight sub-culture.

In addition to being a distinct sub-culture in South Africa, the Jews have become an integral part of the broader South African environment. Jewish children go to secular schools, they learn English and Afrikaans and as adults they are able to communicate and interact with all population groups. Jewish doctors for example treat patients of both language

groups while Jewish lawyers plead clients cases in the language most appropriate to the occasion. The Jews are largely concentrated in large urban centres and are rapidly becoming bilingual.

In terms of the cultural framework factor then the Jews are a relatively homogeneous group in South Africa by they attached to the Claremont Congregation or the Wynberg Congregation.

The other five framework factors namely social class, education, occupation, income and family will be analysed in terms of the population from which the sample is to be drawn.

In order to develop the background of the population each family was analysed by the writer together with officials of the congregation. The head of each family was analysed in terms of his estimated income, age, occupation, and number of children. From this analysis a homogeneous group was selected. Table XI.1 is a list of the population. No names are mentioned, and the ordering of the numbers is on a random basis.

The most limiting factor in the selection of the sample was considered to be income. The range in income for the population was from R2,500 to over R100,000. In order to

maintain homogeneity and develop the largest possible sample the income range of R2,500 to R5,000 was used. This range included the greatest number of families and it was found that the heads of families in this income bracket were generally under 40 years of age with between one and four children living at home.

Selection of the income range of R2,500 to R5,000 it was felt would also provide a more rigorous test of the model as these families are not so rich as to be able to afford most products without evaluating alternatives, nor so poor as to limit their ability to consider the purchase of most of the appliances.

Several methods of classifying heads of families by occupation were considered. The Bureau of Statistics in its 1966 statistical Year Book¹⁰ classify occupations into nine major groups.

These groups are:

- a) Professional Technical and related worker
- b) Administrative, executive and managerial worker.
- c) Clerical worker
- d) Sales worker
- e) Farmer, Fisherman, lumberman and related worker
- f) Miner Quarryman and related worker
- g) Worker in transport and communication

h) Craftsman, production worker and labourer

i) Service sports and recreation worker

The Bureau's classification was felt to be too broad and to contain groups which are minimally represented in the population under consideration. In order to develop a classification system more pertinent to the study, several of the groups classified by the Bureau have been omitted and one additional group has been added.

The final classification is broken down into the following groups:

a) Professional technical and related worker

b) Administrative executive and managerial and sales worker

c) Owner or significant shareholder of business

The break down of population by education is based on the following groupings:

a) Junior School

b) High School

c) Matriculation

d) University

The method used for classifying the population into family types is based upon one of the methods described in Chapter V. In this chapter Meyer¹¹ suggests that the family cycle can be broken into four parts. The first cycle is young adulthood from age 20 to 35. The second cycle is the middle years 35 - 50. The third cycle is the free years 50 to 65. The final cycle is senior citizenship 65 onwards.

In analysing the population in this study, it was found that almost all families with household heads under 45 years of age had young children at home, and for this reason, the two cycles of young adulthood and the middle years were combined to derive the final sample.

In order finally to classify the population in terms of social class, the research and theory described in Chapter IV is used. In this chapter it was shown that the three most important criteria for the formation of a social class are education, income and occupation.¹² In analysing the population under consideration, a sample with a relatively homogeneous education, income, occupation, age, culture and family size is selected. In other words a sample with a relatively homogeneous social class.

D. FINAL SAMPLE:

After analysing the population in Table XI.1, a relatively homogeneous sample of 72 families was selected for this study.

The major characteristics of this sample of households are:

- a) Each household head is between 25 and 45 years of age.
- b) Each household head has either a high school or university education.
- c) Each household has a combined annual income of between R2,500 and R5,000.
- d) Each household head is either a professional technical or related worker, an administrative, managerial executive or sales work, an owner or major shareholder of a business.

These factors combined with the fact that the sample has a relatively homogeneous culture and background and that each household in the sample is of a similar social class residing in the Southern Suburbs makes this sample homogeneous enough to test the model. The final sample is found in Table XI.2.

The address of each household is known, and each household in the sample will be interviewed.

E. THE QUESTIONNAIRE:

The questionnaire, Appendix C, was tested twice, initially with fourteen housewives and finally with nine housewives. After the second pilot test no changes were required in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire includes no questions on the respondents personal background. This was not necessary due to the careful selection and known nature of the sample.

The questionnaire was designed to test the validity of the model.

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$$

given $P_t > 0$ and $1 \gg A > 0$

All questions relate specifically to the effect of price, distribution, homogeneity of competing products, product status and brand status on the amount of time T consumers spend on shopping behaviour SB.

Each questionnaire was coded according to the name and address of the respondent. This system provided anonymity to the respondent while at the same time enabling the writer to check results through additional call backs or telephone calls.

F. INTERVIEWING METHOD:

An initial pilot sample of fourteen housewives were interviewed in order to test the questionnaire. Several minor corrections were made to the questionnaire as a result of the pilot interviews. After the necessary changes in the questionnaire were made, a further 9 housewives were interviewed to finally check the questionnaire. No changes were required after the second set of pilot interviews.

The approximate duration of time for each interview was found to be 26 minutes. This is not excessive for a questionnaire of this nature. No case was observed in which the respondents tired of the questionnaire.

The interviewing of the final sample was done by three professional interviewers employed by Market Research Africa (pty) Ltd. The fact that the writer was known to a significant portion of the sample ruled out the possibility of his doing the actual interviewing.

The interviewers were instructed to call on the 72 respondents any time between the hours of 9:30 a.m. and 6:30 p.m. Each interviewer was with the housewife in the household. In some cases, other members of the family were present during the

interview. Their presence was not found to bias the housewives responses.

Interviewers were instructed to call back in the event of the housewife not being in. Three call backs were required for all respondents. Families that were on vacation for an extended period, were dropped from the sample. Twenty housewives were unavailable for interviews for the following reasons.

a) Family on vacation	5
b) Family moved out of area	4
c) Illness	2
d) Housewife not in after third call back	5
e) Refusal	<u>4</u>
Total:	<u>20</u>

The final sample therefore was 52.

TABLE XI. 1.

CATEGORIZATION OF POPULATION N = 257.

COPS	1	2	3	4	5	CODE	1	2	3	4	5
1	UN	M	LI	PTR	0	24	MT	E	UI	OSB	0
2	MT	O	LI	PTR	1	25	HS	M	LI	OSB	3
3	MT	M	LI	OSB	2	26	UN	E	UI	AEM	2
4	MT	M	LI	OSB	0	27	HS	E	UI	AEM	3
5	HS	E	MI	OSB	5	28	UN	M	MI	PTR	3
6	MT	E	MI	OSB	2	29	MT	E	UI	OSB	2
7	UN	M	MI	PTR	3	30	TS	E	UI	OSB	3
8	UN	Y	LI	OSB	2	31	UN	O	UI	PTR	2
9	UN	M	UI	PTR	0	32	UN	O	LI	PTR	0
10	UN	E	UI	PTR	3	33	MT	M	LI	AEM	1
11	HS	M	UI	OSB	3	34	MT	Y	LI	PTR	2
12	HS	M	CI	OSB	0	35	JS	O	LI	AEM	3
13	HS	O	LI	OSB	1	36	UN	M	UI	PTR	5
14	MT	M	UI	OSB	3	37	UN	M	UI	OSB	3
15	UN	M	LI	PTR	1	38	HS	M	UI	OSB	2
16	MT	E	MI	OSB	3	39	MT	M	LI	AEM	3
17	UN	Y	MI	PTR	2	40	HS	E	UI	OSB	0
18	MT	Y	LI	OSB	2	41	UN	E	UI	PTR	2
19	UN	E	MI	PTR	3	42	HS	E	UI	OSB	3
20	MT	M	UI	OSB	3	43	MT	M	MI	OSB	0
21	MT	M	MI	OSB	3	44	HS	E	MI	AEM	2
22	MT	M	UI	AEM	2	45	MT	M	LI	OSB	3
23	MT	M	MI	AEM	3	46	UN	M	LI	AEM	2

TABLE XI. 1. (continued)

CODE	1	2	3	4	5	CODE	1	2	3	4	5
47	MT	E	LI	OSB	3	76	UN	E	MI	PTR	2
48	MT	E	LI	AEM	2	77	UN	E	LI		2
49	UN	M	UI	PTR	3	78	MT	O	UI	OSB	2
50	UN	M	LI	PTR	2	79	UN	M	UI	PTR	2
51	UN	M	UI	PTR	3	80	UN	O	LI	PTR	5
52	UN	O	MI	PTR	0	81	UN	E	MI	OTR	3
53	UN	M	UI	PTR	3	82	HS	E	UI	OSB	2
54	MT	M	UI	OSB	3	83	UN	E	UI	OSB	3
55	JS	O	UI	OSB	3	84	UN	M	MI	PTR	3
56	HS	M	UI	OSB	2	85	HS	M	UI	OSB	3
57	MT	Y	UI	OSB	2	86	HS	E	LI		0
58	UN	O	UI	OSB	2	87	UN	E	UI	PTR	2
59	UN	M	UI	OSB	3	88	UN	N	LI	PTR	3
60	HS	Y	MI	OSB	2	89	UN	Y	MI	OSB	4
61	UN	M	MI	OSB	2	90	UN	M	MI	AEM	3
62	UN	E	UI	PTR	0	91	MT	M	UI	OSB	2
63	UN	M	MI	OSB	3	92	MT	Y	UI	OSB	3
64	HS	M	LI	OSB	1	93	MT	M	UI	OSB	3
65	HS	M	LI	OSB	3	94	MT	M	UI	AEM	2
66	UN	M	MI	PTR	3	95	HS	Y	MI	OSB	2
67	UN	M	UI	PTR	3	96	UN	E	UI	PTR	2
68	HS	O	UI	PTR	3	97	HS	O	UI	OSB	3
69	UN	E	UI	PTR	3	98	MT	M	UI	OSB	4
70	UN	E	UI	OSB	2	99	HS	O	LI	OSB	1
71	MT	M	UI	OSB	1	100	HS	E	MI	OSB	2
72	MT	O	MI	OSB	2	101	UN	M	MI	PTR	2
73	MT	E	MI	OSB	2	102	HS	O	UI	OSB	2
74	UN	E	UI	PTR	1	103	HS	O	LI	OSB	2
75	MT	E	LI	AEM	2	104	MT	E	UI	AEM	3

TABLE XI. 1. (continued)

CODE	1	2	3	4	5	CODE	1	2	3	4	5
105	MT	O	LI	OSB	2	133	HS	M	MI	OSB	3
106	MT	O	UI	AEM	2	134	UN	M	UI	OSB	4
107	HS	M	UI	OSB	3	135	HS	M	UI	OSB	3
108	HS	O	UI	OSB	2	136	HS	M	LI	AEM	2
109	UN	M	MI	OSB	1	137	UN	Y	MI	OSB	2
110	MT	Y	MI	OSB	1	138	HS	M	MI	AEM	2
111	HS	M	MI	AEM	3	139	HS	M	MI	AEM	3
112	HS	M	LI	AEM	3	140	HS	E	MI	AEM	1
113	HS	E	LI	OSB	0	141	UN	Y	MI	PTR	2
114	HS	M	LI	AEM	2	142	HS	M	UI	OSB	1
115	HS	M	LI	OSB	1	143	JS	O	UI		3
116	UN	M	MI	PTR	2	144	UN	M	MI	PTR	4
117	HS	Y	UI	OSB	3	145	HS	E	UI	OSB	2
118	HS	M	LI	AEM	2	146	UN	M	UI	OSB	3
119	MT	M	MI	OSB	1	147	JS	O	MI	OSB	1
120	UN	Y	MI	OSB	3	148	UN	Y	LI	OSB	2
121	HS	O	UI	OSB	4	149	JS	O	UI	OSB	3
122	JS	M	UI	OSB	3	150	UN	M	MI	PTR	3
123	HS	E	LI	OSB	1	151	JS	O	UI	OSB	0
124	JS	O	UI	OSB	5	152	UN	M	MI	PTR	4
125	HS	E	LI	AEM	1	153	UN	M	UI	PTR	3
126	HS	M	MI	OSB	3	154	JS	O	LI		0
127	HS	O	MI	OSB	2	155	UN	M	UI	AEM	3
128	HS	O	LI	OSB	2	156	HS	M	UI	OSB	2
129	HS	Y	MI	OSB	2	157	UN	M	UI	PTR	0
130	JS	O	UI	OSB	4	158	HS	M	UI	OSB	3
131	HS	E	LI		2	159	UN	M	UI	OSB	3
132	HS	M	UI	OSB	4	160	JS	O	MI	OSB	2

TABLE XI. 1. (continued)

CODE	1	2	3	4	5	CODE	1	2	3	4	5
161	JS	O	LI	OSB	6	188	UN	M	UI	PTR	2
162	JS	O	UI	OSB	2	189	UN	M	MI	PTR	3
163	HS	M	UI	OSB	2	190	JS	M	MI	AEM	3
164	HS	M	MI	OSB	3	191	JS	O	UI		5
165	JS	O	MI	OSB	1	192	MT	E	UI	OSB	4
166	HS	E	MI	OSB	3	193	HS	M	UI	OSB	3
167	JS	O	LI		3	194	UN	M	MI	PTR	3
168	JS	O	MI		2	195	UN	M	MI	PTR	2
169	UN	E	UI	PTR	1	196	HS	O	UI	OSB	3
170	JS	Y	LI	AEM	3	197	UN	E	MI	PTR	3
171	HS	O	UI	OSB	2	198	HS	E	UI	OSB	3
172	UN	Y	MI	OSB	0	199	HS	E	UI		2
173	HS	M	UI	OSB	4	200	HS	E	MI	AEM	3
174	HS	M	UI	OSB	3	201	HS	E	MI	AEM	5
175	HS	M	UI	AEM	2	202	HS	E	MI	AEM	3
176	UN	M	MI	OSB	3	203	JS	E	MI	OSB	3
177	UN	M	LI	AEM	4	204	UN	M	UI	OSB	3
178	UN	Y	MI	PTR	2	205	UN	E	UI	OSB	3
179	HS	M	UI	OSB	1	206	UN	E	UI	PTR	3
180	UN	M	UI	OSB	2	207	UN	M	MI	PTR	3
181	HS	M	UI	OSB	3	208	UN	Y	UI	OSB	4
182	UN	E	UI	PTR	1	209	JS	M	MI	OSB	2
183	JS	O	LI	OSB	1	210	UN	M	UI	PTR	2
184	HS	E	UI	OSB	3	211	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2
185	HS	O	LI	OSB	2	212	UN	Y	UI	PTR	2
186	UN	M	MI	PTR	3	213	HS	Y	LI	OSB	2
187	HS	M	MI	OSB	3	214	HS	M	MI	OSB	2

TABLE XI. 1. (continued)

CODE	1	2	3	4	5	CODE	1	2	3	4	5
215	HS	M	MI	AEM	3	236	JS	O	UI	OSB	1
216	UN	Y	LI	PTR	1	237	JS	E	LI	OSB	2
217	UN	E	UI	PTR	3	238	UN	M	UI	PTR	3
218	MT	M	UI	OSB	3	239	HS	O	LI	OSB	2
219	HS	M	MI	AEM	2	240	HS	M	LI	OSB	2
220	UN	E	UI	OSB	2	241	UN	Y	UI	OSB	2
221	UN	M	UI	OSB	3	242	HS	E	MI	OSB	2
222	UN	M	UI	AEM	3	243	HS	M	UI	OSB	3
223	UN	M	UI	OSB	4	244	HS	E	LI	OSB	2
224	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2	245	HS	M	LI	AEM	3
225	MT	Y	UI	OSB	2	246	HS	M	UI	OSB	4
226	UN	Y	MI	PTR	3	247	UN	Y	UI	OSB	3
227	UN	M	UI	OSB	3	248	HS	Y	UI	OSB	1
228	MT	E	UI	OSB	3	249	HS	E	MI	OSB	2
229	UN	M	MI	OSB	2	250	HS	E	LI	AEM	3
230	HS	M	MI	AEM	4	251	HS	E	MI	AEM	3
231	UN	M	MI	OSB	0	252	JS	O	LI	OSB	0
232	UN	E	UI	PTR	0	253	HS	M	UI	OSB	3
233	HS	M	UI	OSB	0	254	UN	M	UI	OSB	3
234	JS	O	LI	OSB	2	255	JS	E	LI	OSB	3
235	JS	O	LI	OSB	1	256	UN	E	UI	OSB	3
						257	HS	Y	MI	OSB	2

TABLE XI. 1. (Continued)

CATEGORIZATION OF POPULATION N = 257

Random numbering of population

1. Categorization in terms of education:

- UN - University degree; professional degree including CA
and Pharmacy diploma
- MT - Matriculation qualification
- HS - Attended high school but did not matriculate
- JS - Attended junior or primary school i.e. not more than
6 years schooling

2. Categorization in terms of age

- Y - 25 to 35 years
- M - 36 to 45 years
- E - 46 to 55 years
- O - 56 and over

3. Categorization in terms of income

- LI - R2,500 - R5,000
- MI - R5,001 - R7,000
- HI - R7,001 - End over

4. Categorization in terms of Occupation

- PTR - Professional technical and related worker**
- OSB - Owner or Major shareholder of business**
- AEM - Administrative, Managerial executive and sales worker**

5. Categorization in terms of number of children in family

TABLE XI. 2.

HOMOGENEOUS SAMPLE N = 72

INCOME - R2,500 - R5,000

CODE	1	2	3	4	5	CODE	1	2	3	4	5
1	UN	M	LI	PTR	1	22	HS	M	LI	AEM	2
2	MT	M	LI	OSB	2	23	UN	Y	LI	OSB	2
3	MT	M	LI	OSB	1	24	HS	Y	LI	AEM	3
4	UN	Y	LI	OSB	2	25	UN	M	LI	AEM	3
5	HS	M	LI	OSB	2	26	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2
6	UN	M	LI	PTR	1	27	HS	Y	LI	OSB	2
7	MT	Y	LI	OSB	2	28	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2
8	HS	M	LI	OSB	3	29	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2
9	MT	M	LI	AEM	1	30	HS	M	LI	OSB	2
10	MT	Y	LI	PTR	2	31	HS	M	LI	AEM	3
11	MT	M	LI	AEM	3	32	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2
12	MT	M	LI	OSB	3	33	HS	Y	LI	OSB	2
13	UN	M	LI	AEM	2	34	UN	Y	LI	OSB	4
14	UN	M	LI	PTR	2	35	HS	Y	LI	OSB	2
15	HS	M	LI	OSB	1	36	MT	Y	LI	OSB	1
16	HS	M	LI	OSB	3	37	UN	Y	LI	OSB	3
17	UN	M	LI	PTR	3	38	HS	Y	LI	OSB	2
18	HS	M	LI	AEM	3	39	UN	Y	LI	OSB	2
19	HS	M	LI	AEM	2	40	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2
20	HS	M	LI	OSB	1	41	UN	Y	LI	OSB	2
21	HS	M	LI	AEM	2	42	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2

TABLE XI. 2. (continued)

CODE	1	2	3	4	5	CODE	1	2	3	4	5
43	UN	Y	LI	PTR	2	58	MT	M	LI	OSB	1
44	HS	Y	LI	OSB	2	59	UN	M	LI	PTR	4
45	UN	M	LI	PTR	3	60	UN	M	LI	PTR	3
46	MT	M	LI	OSB	3	61	UN	M	LI	PTR	4
47	MT	M	LI	AEM	3	62	UN	M	LI	OSB	3
48	UN	M	LI	OSB	2	63	UN	M	LI	PTR	3
49	MT	M	LI	OSB	2	64	UN	M	LI	PTR	3
50	UN	M	LI	OSB	2	65	UN	M	LI	PTR	3
51	UN	M	LI	OSB	3	66	UN	M	LI	PTR	2
52	UN	M	LI	PTR	3	67	UN	M	LI	PTR	3
53	UN	M	LI	PTR	3	68	HS	M	LI	AEM	3
54	UN	M	LI	AEM	3	69	HS	M	LI	AEM	2
55	UN	M	LI	PTR	2	70	UN	M	LI	OSB	2
56	UN	M	LI	OSB	1	71	HS	M	LI	AEM	2
57	UN	M	LI	PTR	2	72	UN	M	LI	OSB	1

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CHAPTER XII.

THE NATURE OF APPLIANCE OWNERSHIP AND THE VARIABLE SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR - SB.

The major objective of this study is to determine whether the model

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$$

$$\text{given } P_t > 0 \text{ and } 1 \gg A > 0$$

holds true. In other words is the amount of time T spent on shopping behaviour related to price, distribution, homogeneity of competing products and product and brand status.

The 52 interviews conducted have provided sufficient data to test the basic validity of the model for the four appliances under consideration. It must be stated however that the model is being tested only for the four appliances, and furthermore, as stated previously, the exact relationship between each variable of the model will be conceptually as opposed to mathematically analysed.

Before analysing each of the variables in the model, it is necessary to examine the nature of appliance ownership, and the nature of shopping behaviour SB as perceived by the population used in this study.

A. NATURE OF APPLIANCE OWNERSHIP.

From table Q 1 it is seen that every respondent, 52 out of 52 owns a refrigerator. The next most owned appliance is a toaster followed by a washing machine and finally a percolator. In terms of percentage appliance ownership, 100% own a refrigerator, 96.2% a toaster, 90.4% a washing machine and only 44% a percolator.

This table clearly demonstrates the relative importance and utility respondents attached to the various appliances.

A refrigerator is considered an essential and is owned by the total population, while a percolator is far from being a necessity and is only owned by 44% of the population. The relative importance respondents attach to the appliances is further demonstrated in table Q 2 where it is seen that while 56% of all respondents received a percolator as a gift, only 36% received a toaster, 21% a refrigerator and 12% a washing machine as a gift.

The majority 56% of the respondents have owned their refrigerators for more than six years. In the case of percolators, see table Q 3, 30% have owned their percolators

for between 1 and 3 years, 26% for between 3 and 6 years and 39% for more than 6 years. 18% of the respondents have owned their toasters for less than one year, 26% for between 1 and 3 years, 12% for between 3 and 6 years and 43% for more than 6 years. In the case of washing machines, 72% have been owned for more than 3 years.

Of those respondents that actually bought their appliances, 41% could not recall the price they had paid for their refrigerator, 30% could not recall the price paid for their percolator, 40% for their toaster and 19% for their washing machine. (see table Q4).

In the case of brand knowledge, most respondents knew the brand name of their refrigerators and washing machines, but not many knew the names of their toasters or percolators. From table Q 5, brand name knowledge is as follows, refrigerator 98%, percolator 52%, Toaster 62%, washing machine 98%. It is interesting to note that in the case of the two high priced items, brand knowledge was almost complete, while in the case of the two low priced items brand knowledge was far from total.

The most commonly owned brand of refrigerator was a Frigidaire, of a percolator a General Electric, of a toaster a Morphy Richards and of a washing machine a Hoover.

The most frequently used outlet for the purchase of all appliances was a wholesale house. The second most used outlet was an appliance store followed by a furniture store. Not one appliance was purchased in a supermarket. The only appliance purchased at a bazaar was one refrigerator and at a department store one washing machine. (See table Q 6).

The results in table Q 7 indicate that the most popular area for appliance shopping was the city. Over 70% of all appliances were purchased in the city. The only other area in which appliances were bought was Claremont. It is likely that in the future a far greater number of appliances will be bought in Claremont as it develops into a major regional shopping centre.

In order to have some idea of how respondents felt about shopping in general, they were asked to indicate those things that they most enjoyed about shopping and those things they disliked about shopping. The major comments on likes and dislikes are listed in tables Q 13 and Q 14. A wide variety

of likes and dislikes are evident, but the major comment related to the time involved in shopping. Nineteen respondents indicated that they disliked the time involved. Three disliked standing in queues, four disliked parking, one disliked driving, three disliked not being able to find things and one disliked the crush.

The major conclusion drawn from these comments is that time is a critical factor for this population. They don't like wasting it, and complain that such things as driving, parking queues etc. all waste time. In other words the whole subject of this study, including the model is directly related to the one thing that consumers like least about shopping. Any conclusions that relate to the time involved in shopping behaviour must therefore be of vital interest to the marketing practitioner.

A. SHOPPING BEHAVIOUR SB.

Table Q 24 shows the distribution in terms of the expected amount of time that respondents felt they would spend shopping for each of the four appliances if they were to go out and buy them at the present time. Respondents graded the amount of time they would spend on a time thermometer with a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 where 0.0 was very little time and 1.0 a great deal of time.

The distribution has no clear pattern other than that the greatest amount of shopping time would be devoted to the four appliances in the following order:

Refrigerator

Washing Machine

Percolator

Toaster

By multiplying the number of respondents by the value in time they indicated they would devote to shopping, values for each of the four appliances were derived. The mean was taken for each appliance, and the results from table Q 24 are as follows:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.609$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.198$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.176$
Washing machine	$\bar{x} = 0.60$

The maximum value or time possible is 1.0 and the minimum value or time possible is 0.0.

In other words, respondents indicated they would spend, for example, 3.04 times as much time shopping for a washing machine as they would for a percolator, or 3.46 times as much time shopping for a refrigerator as they would for a toaster.

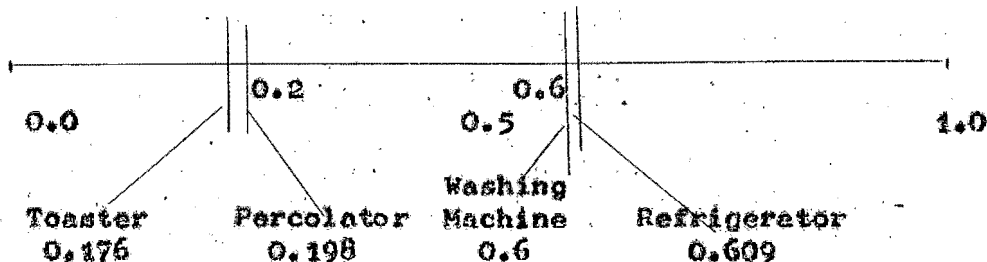
The distribution also demonstrates that for a percolator and toaster over 94% of all respondents indicated that they would spend less than .6 time (on a scale 0.0 to 1.0) shopping.

In the case of the refrigerator and washing machine however the distribution was more evenly spread. Over 36% indicated that they would spend less than .6 time shopping for a refrigerator and 38% less than .6 time shopping for a washing machine.

The relationship between the shopping behaviour for the four

appliances is diagrammatically represented on the continuum below

Relationship between the SB for the four appliances.



The difference between the amount of time respondents felt they would spend shopping is even more vividly demonstrated in table Q 24a. In this table, each appliance was ranked either first, second, third, or fourth in terms of the amount of time respondents felt they would spend shopping for it. In this table, a first place ranking was given a value of 0.4, a second place ranking a value of 0.3, a third place ranking a value of 0.2 and a fourth place ranking a value of 0.1. These values were then converted to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 to make them more comparable with the previous table.

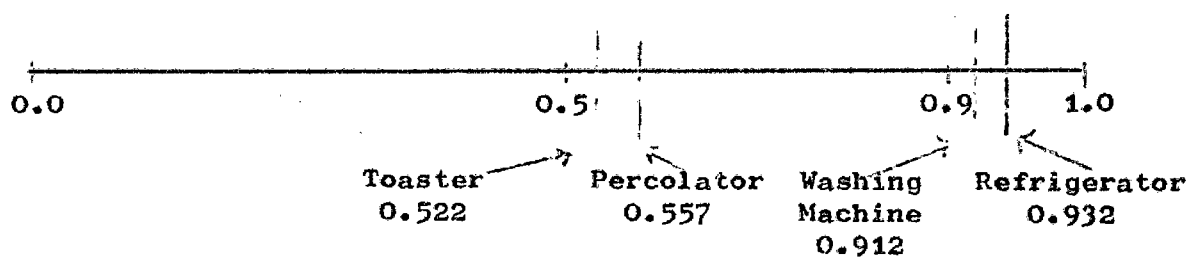
As the ranking was derived from the distribution in table Q 24, it was hypothesized that the ranked weights assigned to each category were consistent in terms of SB. In other words the average effect of Table Q 24 eliminated the possibility of an unequal progression of weights for each category.

The mean values for the converted ranking table were as follows:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.932$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.557$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.522$
Washing machine	$\bar{x} = 0.912$

While the mean values derived from table Q 24a are considerably higher than the values from table Q 24, the relationship between the four appliances remains the same. This relationship is demonstrated on the continuum below

Relationship between the ranking of SB for the four appliances.



In order to take cognisance of both methods of ranking the four appliances, the values from both methods have been added together and the mean value taken. This combined ranking includes both the absolute amount of time respondents felt they would spend shopping and the relative amount of time they felt they would spend shopping. The final results are set out below:

Refrigerator	$0.609 + 0.932 = 1.541 \bar{x} = \underline{0.770}$
Washing machine	$0.6 + 0.912 = 1.512 \bar{x} = \underline{0.706}$
Percolator	$0.198 + 0.557 = 0.755 \bar{x} = \underline{0.378}$
Toaster	$0.176 + 0.522 = 0.698 \bar{x} = \underline{0.349}$

In chapter X it was hypothesised that a pattern similar to the one described above would exist for the four appliances. It was not envisaged however that the relationship between the percolator and toaster would be quite so close. Chapters XII and XIII will be devoted to testing the hypotheses that the reason for this relationship is due to the effect of the variables described in the model.

Before analysing some of the other variables it is necessary to relate the expected shopping behaviour for the four appliances to the actual behaviour that respondents exhibited when making their purchase.

Table Q 8 is a distribution of the number of stores respondents actually went to in order to compare appliances before making the actual purchase. It is interesting to note that while the majority of respondents indicated that they would spend more than three times as much time shopping for a refrigerator and washing machine than for a toaster or percolator (table Q24), in actual fact when making the purchase, the number of stores visited did not differ that substantially for the four appliances.

Most of the respondents bought all their appliances in the first store that they went to. In the case of the percolator first store purchase was 100%. For a refrigerator first store purchase was 78%, for a toaster 93% and for a washing machine 85%. (see table Q8). While the difference is not as great therefore for the four appliances, there was nevertheless a definite tendency to spend more time comparing the higher priced appliances than the lower priced appliances.

The hypothesis that more time is spent shopping for refrigerators and washing machines is further demonstrated in table Q 10.

In this table respondents indicated the length of time in months from the desire to purchase the appliance to its actual purchase. Of the total number of respondents who remembered buying a percolator nine out of nine 100% bought it in the first month, the same percentage applied to the toaster. Over 23% however spent more than one month deciding on the refrigerator and over 35% spent more than one month deciding on the washing machine.

One of the possible reasons for the greater amount of time spent on shopping for a refrigerator and washing machine than for a percolator and toaster is contained in table Q 11. This table vividly illustrate the tendency for joint husband wife shopping for the two higher priced appliances and also for the less owned percolator. Over 68% of all refrigerator purchase decisions, over 58% of all washing machine purchase decisions and 70% of all percolator purchase decisions were made by the husband and wife together. In the case of the toaster the percentage drops to 43%.

The high percentage of joint purchase decisions for the percolator is possibly due to the relative newness of the product and the fact that it is not an essential and therefore

requires discussion before purchase. The fact that 57% of the toaster decisions were made singly is a fair indication of the relatively low risk involved in the purchase of this appliance.

While a large percentage of respondents indicate that they would spend less time shopping for the low priced appliances than for the high priced appliances, almost all respondents bought the four appliances in the city and not in Claremont or Wynberg. (see Table Q7).

One possible explanation for the fact that most consumers travelled to the city even for the purchase of a toaster is that there is a greater selection in the city. This however does not appear valid particularly when it is seen that most consumers went to only one store to compare the toaster. (see Table Q 8). Possibly the most reasonable explanation of why consumers bought toasters and percolators in the city is that they were bought during a shopping trip in which other products were also purchased. It is also possible that many of the consumers that bought wholesale were forced to do so in the city.

A further validation of the hypothesis that consumers would spend less time shopping for the lower priced appliances than the higher priced appliances is seen in Table Q 14.

In this table respondents were asked their opinions of the best way of getting a dependable appliance at a reasonable price. Thirteen out of 52 of the respondents indicated they would go to the nearest and most convenient store for the purchase of a percolator, while the figure for the toaster was 17 out of 52. Not a single respondent mentioned convenience as a critical factor for either the refrigerator or the washing machine.

The results from table Q 14 above appear to conflict with the results in table Q 9. In table Q 9, respondents were asked what the major reason was for actually purchasing their appliance at a particular store. Not one respondent bought a percolator at a store because of its convenience. The same applies to a refrigerator. Only 3 out of 32 said they bought their toaster at a particular store because it was convenient. In the case of the washing machine 1 out of 41 mentioned that convenience of the store was the main reason for purchase there.

Three possible explanations may account for the conflict between what respondents actually did, and what they said they would do in the future. In the first instance,

respondents may not have been near a convenient store and therefore other factors in table Q 9 assumed greater importance. It is also possible that while respondents indicate reasons other than convenience for the purchase at a particular store, convenience was a joint reason with for example low price or good credit facilities. The third and possibly major reason for the conflict is that people don't always do what they say they will do. Chapters II, III and IV illustrate the point that people are not always rational. Frequently they may be emotional or apparently irrational. Furthermore consumers find it extremely difficult to project their future behaviour.

In summary, there is sufficient evidence to justify the statement that the amount of time consumers spend on shopping for various products and in this case four appliances, differs. According to the data gathered from the questionnaires consumers did spend and would spend more time shopping for a refrigerator than a washing machine and more time on a washing machine than on a percolator and more time on a percolator than on a toaster. The relationship in time as measured on a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 where 0.0 is very little time and 1.0 a great deal of time is

as follows:

Refrigerator $\bar{x} = 0.770$

Washing Machine $\bar{x} = 0.706$

Percolator $\bar{x} = 0.378$

Toaster $\bar{x} = 0.349$

CHAPTER XIII.

ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST THREE VARIABLES P x D x H.

Having established in Chapter XII that consumers do spend a different amount of time shopping for various products, it is now necessary to analyse whether the variables in the model

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$$

given $P_t > 0$ and $1 \gg A > 0$

are the main factors that influence the amount of time consumers spend shopping.

In this chapter the first three variables of the model will be analysed - P x D, x H - Price, distribution and homogeneity of available competing products.

A. THE VARIABLE PRICE:

The price of a product is possibly the most readily identifiable feature of the product at the time of its purchase. Price is tangible and can be used in order to compare one product with another. In this study the four appliances used can be categorized in relation to each other into two major price groups. The first group includes the two high priced appliances,

the refrigerator and the washing machine. The second group contains the two lower priced products, the percolator and the toaster.

With out question the prices of the products in the first group are higher than the prices of the appliances in the second group. The price distinction between the appliance in the two groups is however not so pronounced.

In terms of the model it was hypothesised that the higher the price of a product the greater would be the amount of time spent shopping for it. In order to develop some criteria of measurement of price, respondents were asked to indicate the price utility of the products to them. The combination of the absolute price of the four appliances, plus the perceived price utility of the products will give a good indication of the ranking of the appliances in terms of price.

Table Q22 is a distribution of the perceived price utility of the four appliances. Respondent graded their perception of price utility on a thermometer with a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 where 0.0 was very little or no price utility and 1.0 was a great deal of price utility.

There is no clear distribution pattern in table Q22 other than that the greatest price utility was assigned to the four appliances in the following order:

Refrigerator

Toaster

Washing machine

Percolator

By multiplying the number of respondents by the value on the scale of utility, a total value for each appliance was derived. The mean was taken for each appliance and the results from table Q22 are as follows:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.626$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.582$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.559$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.415$

The maximum value for price utility is 1.0 and the minimum value for price utility is 0.0.

In addition to determining the mean price utility of the four appliances in terms of the distribution, a ranking of the appliances has also been used to determine price utility.

In Table Q22a each appliance was ranked either first, second, third or fourth in terms of the respondents perception of its price utility. In some cases, respondents felt that a refrigerator had the greatest price utility in some cases the washing machine in some cases the toaster and in some cases the percolator.

In this table a value of 0.4 was assigned to the first place, 0.3 to the second, 0.2 to the third and 0.1 to the fourth. The above weighting is logical because no clear distribution pattern was evident. The number of respondents in each category did not vary greatly. These values were then converted to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 in order to make them more comparable with the previous table.

The mean values in terms of ranked price utility were as follows:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.750$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.705$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.637$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.605$

The relationship between the perceived price utility is much the same regardless of the method of determining the mean values. It is also necessary to note that the relative differences between the values in the two tables is minor. The table below shows the relative difference between the two methods of determining price utility.

Price Utility in Terms of Distribution

Ranking of Appliance In Terms of Price Utility Difference

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.626$	0.044
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.582$	
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.559$	0.023
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.415$	0.144

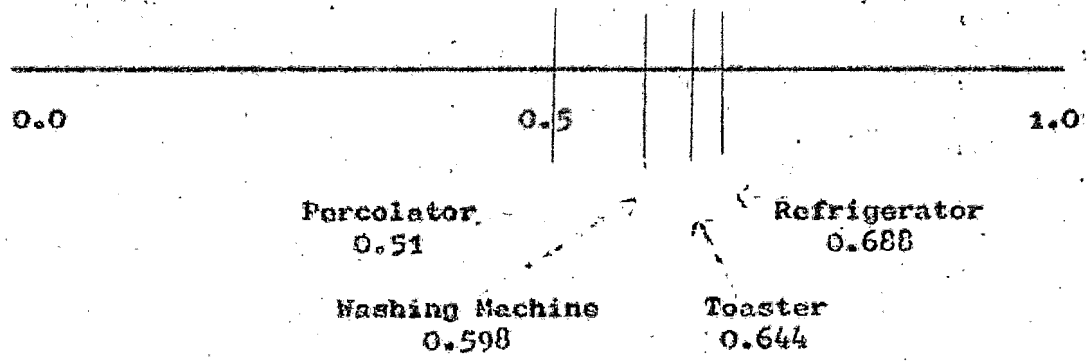
Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.75$	0.045
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.705$	
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.637$	0.068
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.605$	0.032

Only in one case is the difference between the two methods greater than 0.1. This is in the case of the washing machine and the percolator where the difference is $0.144 - 0.032 = 0.112$.

The relationship between price utility of the four appliances is diagrammatically represented below. In order to make the relationship as rational as possible, the mean values of both methods of determining price utility have been added, and the mean value then determined.

Refrigerator	$0.626 + 0.75 = 1.376$	$\therefore \bar{x} = 0.688$
Toaster	$0.582 + 0.705 = 1.287$	$\therefore \bar{x} = 0.644$
Washing Machine	$0.559 + 0.637 = 1.196$	$\therefore \bar{x} = 0.598$
Percolator	$0.415 + 0.605 = 1.020$	$\therefore \bar{x} = 0.510$

PRICE UTILITY OF THE FOUR APPLIANCES.



In relation to absolute prices, it is surprising that the toaster scored higher than the washing machine in terms of price utility. There are a variety of possible explanations for this phenomenon. The fact that almost every member of the population questioned probably had a maid, and that it was the maid and not the respondent who used the washing machine may have reduced the price utility of the washing machine. Furthermore the washing machine may be viewed as a less necessary appliance because the household washing could be done by the maid even if a washing machine was not owned. In addition the washing machine is both less conspicuous and less used than the toaster, and for this reason the toaster is perceived as having a higher price utility.

A refrigerator is probably the most essential of all appliances and thus with the greatest price utility. A percolator is only owned by 44% of the population, it is less used than any of the other appliances, and to some extent is probably viewed as a luxury. This therefore accounts for the fact that the percolator was viewed as having the lowest perceived price utility.

In addition to the perceived price utility of the appliances, it is apparent from table Q 4 that absolutely the most expensive appliance is a refrigerator followed by a washing machine and then a percolator and finally a toaster. The importance of the price of the appliances to the respondents can also be gauged from this table. The lower the absolute price, the less precise the memory of the price paid. Over 40% of the respondents could not recall the price they had paid for their toaster, this percentage drops to 30% for the percolator, 24% for the refrigerator and 19% for the washing machine. The reason for the fact that more respondents remembered the price they had paid for their washing machine is probably accounted for in table Q 3 where it is seen that for most of the respondents a washing machine was a more recent acquisition than a refrigerator.

From table Q 9 it is seen that one of the major reasons for buying an appliance at a particular store was the low price at that store. There is however no apparent relationship between the absolute price or the perceived price utility of the product and the low price charged by the store. Over 30% of the population indicated that they bought their percolator at a particular store because of its low price. This figure drops to 26% for the refrigerator and 22% for both the toaster and washing machine. The explanation for this is probably quite simple and that is that there are a wide variety of other factors that cause people to patronise a particular outlet. This can be seen by some of the other responses in table Q 9.

As mentioned in Chapter XII, the higher the absolute price of the appliance, the greater the degree of joint husband-wife purchase decisions. Over 68% of all refrigerator purchase decisions, over 58% of all washing machine purchase decisions and 70% of all percolator purchase decisions were made jointly by husband and wife. Joint decision making was only 43% for the toaster. The high percentage of joint percolator purchase decisions was explained in Chapter XII.

The number of stores used to compare appliances, and the time period over which the purchase decision was made also relates to the absolute price of the appliance. The higher the price, the greater the number of stores visited, and the larger the period of decision making. This phenomena was discussed in Chapter XII and relates to tables Q 8 and Q 10.

The relationship between the price of the appliances and the amount of time that respondent felt they would spend shopping for them is illustrated in table Q 14. This table vividly illustrates that respondents felt they would spend more time shopping around for the two high priced appliances than they would for the two low priced appliances. In answer to the question "what is the best way to get a dependable appliance at a reasonable price", 67% indicated that shopping around and comparing products was the best way to get a washing machine. This percentage drops to 63% for refrigerators, and to only 40% for both a toaster and a percolator.

It is interesting to note that the cheaper the appliance, the greater would be the tendency to buy wholesale or in a discount store (see table Q 18.)

From table Q 18 it is seen that the percentage of respondents that would use a discount store or buy wholesale for a refrigerator is 59%, for a washing machine 61%, for a toaster 67% and for a percolator 69%.

It appears inconsistent that a larger percentage of the population would buy the cheaper rather than the expensive appliances at the cheaper outlets. However service is more important for a refrigerator and washing machine than for a toaster or percolators and therefore factors other than price are vitally important in the purchase of the more expensive and more complex appliances.

The final aspect of importance in considering the variable price is the belief that there are price differences between the various brands of the same appliance. In table Q 27, 84% indicated that there were significant price difference between the various brands of washing machines and 78% indicated price differences between the various brands of refrigerators. This percentage drops to 74% for a toaster and 65% for a percolator.

The main conclusion to be drawn from this finding is that due to the greater variety of perceived prices for the higher priced

brands of appliances, consumers are virtually forced to spend more time shopping for these appliances than for lower priced appliances. This conclusion is further justified by the findings in table Q 14 which were discussed above.

In summary, the empirical data shows a definite tendency for consumers to spend more time shopping for higher priced appliances than for lower priced appliances. Numerous other factors however also appear to influence the time spent shopping. These factors will be considered as they relate to the other variables in the model.

The final price values selected for use in the model were developed early in the chapter. These mean values appear somewhat conservative in light of the other price factors discussed in this section. From the absolute price differences between the appliances one would have expected the perceived price differences to vary more significantly. It is preferable to err on the low side, and therefore the values that will be used in the model are as follows:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.688$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.510$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.644$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.598$

E. THE VARIABLE DISTRIBUTION D.

The second variable in the model relates to distribution D, and the major hypothesis is that the wider or more intense the distribution the less will be the time spent on shopping behaviour. Unlike the variable price, it is not as easy to make categorical statements about distribution. While one could assume that a toaster is the most intensively distributed of the four appliances, it is difficult to make assumptions with regard to the intensiveness of the distribution for refrigerators, percolators or washing machines. It seems logical to say however, that most stores that carry refrigerators also carry washing machines, and that percolators while still somewhat innovative in nature, are carried by more stores than refrigerators and washing machines due to their low price and the fact that they are sought extensively as gifts.

The actual degree of distribution, of the four appliances is however not critical. The critical factor is the populations perception of the intensiveness of the distribution of the four appliances.

Table Q 22 is a distribution of the perceived intensity of distribution of the four appliances. Respondents graded their perception of the degree of distribution on a thermometer with a scale of 0.0 stores to 1000 stores where 0.0 was very narrow distribution or exclusive distribution and 1000 was wide, or intensive, distribution. In order to make the thermometer clearly understandable, the scale used was from 0 stores to 1000 stores. In table Q 23 however, the scale has been reduced to 0.0 to 1.0 in order to make it comparable with the other scales used in this study.

In developing the model, it was hypothesised that products with exclusive or narrow distribution would require more shopping time than products with intensive distribution. In order therefore to reflect a higher value for exclusive distribution than for intensive distribution, the values in table Q 23 have been reversed, and 0.0 now represent intensive distribution and 1.0 exclusive distribution.

By multiplying the number of respondents by the value on the scale of distribution a total value for each appliance was derived. The mean was taken for each appliance and the results from table Q 23 are as follows:

Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.607$
Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.60$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.457$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.365$

The maximum value for exclusive distribution is 1.0 and the minimum value for intensive distribution is 0.0.

Table Q 23a is a ranking of the four appliances in terms of their distribution. Each appliance has been ranked either first, second, third or fourth. The value assigned to a first place ranking is 0.1, a second place ranking 0.2, a third place ranking 0.3 and a fourth place ranking 0.4. The reason for assigning the values in this order was to reflect a higher value for exclusively distributed products than for intensively distributed products. These values were then converted to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 in order to make them more comparable with the previous table.

The mean values in terms of ranked distribution were as follows:

Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.715$
Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.677$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.417$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.267$

The relationship between the two methods of determining intensiveness of distribution is consistent. In the first case, the relationship between the refrigerator and washing machine was so close as to make the difference insignificant.

The table below shows the relative differences between the two methods of determining intensiveness of distribution.

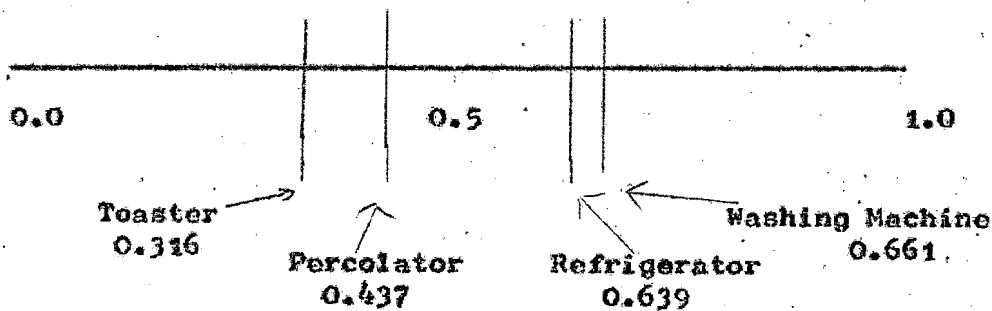
<u>Intensiveness of Appliance Distribution.</u>	<u>Difference</u>	<u>Ranking of Intensiveness of Appliance Distribution.</u>	<u>Difference</u>
Washing Machine $\bar{x} = 0.607$	0.007	Washing Machine $\bar{x} = 0.715$	0.038
Refrigerator $\bar{x} = 0.6$		Refrigerator $\bar{x} = 0.677$	
Percolator $\bar{x} = 0.457$	0.143	Percolator $\bar{x} = 0.417$	0.260
Toaster $\bar{x} = 0.365$	0.112	Toaster $\bar{x} = 0.267$	0.150

In order to rationalise the two methods of determining intensiveness of distribution, the mean values of both methods have been added and the final mean value then determined.

Washing Machine	$0.607 + 0.715 = 1.322$	$\bar{x} = 0.661$
Refrigerator	$0.6 + 0.677 = 1.277$	$\bar{x} = 0.639$
Percolator	$0.457 + 0.417 = 0.874$	$\bar{x} = 0.437$
Toaster	$0.365 + 0.267 = 0.632$	$\bar{x} = 0.316$

The final relationship between the perceived intensiveness of distribution of the four appliances is diagrammatically represented on the continuum below

INTENSIVENESS OF DISTRIBUTION OF THE FOUR APPLIANCES.



The relationship described above is further justified by additional empirical evidence. In table Q 8, it is interesting to note that the less intensively distributed appliances are more expensive and require more shopping time than those products that are cheaper and more intensively distributed. In the case of the percolator every member of the population went to only one store to compare and buy the appliance. For a refrigerator, first store purchase was 78%, for a toaster 93% and for a washing machine 85%.

From table Q 9 it is seen that only the cheaper and more intensively distributed products were purchased at a particular store because of its convenience. Also for the higher priced, selectively distributed, products credit facilities were mentioned as being important.

The importance of intensive distribution for a percolator and toaster is highlighted in table Q 14. In this table respondents indicated that they were less prepared to shop around and compare percolators and toasters than they were to compare refrigerators and washing machines.

One of the reasons for having a wider distribution for the two lower priced appliances than the two higher priced appliances is found in tables Q26 and Q27. In table Q26 84% of the population indicated that they believed there was significant product differences between the various brands of washing machines. This percentage drops to 74% for the refrigerator, 66% for the percolator and 62% for the toaster. In table Q27 67% of the population indicated that they believed there were significant price differences between the various brands of washing machines. This percentage drops to 63% for the refrigerator and only 40% for both the toaster and percolator.

The fact that greater price and product differences were perceived for the higher priced brands of appliances than for the lower priced brands of appliances. And that more stores were used to compare the higher than the lower priced appliances means that it is not as vital for companies to distribute their washing machines and refrigerators as intensively as their percolators and toasters.

In summary, the members of the population believed that the four appliances were distributed in varying degrees of intensity. In terms of the model, the final measure of distribution intensity is

Washing machine	$\bar{x} = 0.661$
Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.639$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.437$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.316$

C. THE VARIABLE HOMOGENEITY OF AVAILABLE COMPETING PRODUCT H.

In analysing the variables price and distribution it was apparent that the four appliances were all manufactured under a variety of brand names, and that the population had definite perceptions regarding the homogeneity of the competing brands. In terms of the model, it was hypothesised that the greater the perceived homogeneity of available competing products or brands, the less would be the time spent shopping for them.

In order to develop a list of the total number of brand names for each appliance mentioned by the population, tables Q 5, Q 17, and Q 30 have been analysed. The total number of brands mentioned for each appliance was as follows:

Refrigerator	25
Washing Machine	15
Toaster	13
Percolator	12

An examination of table Q 5 indicates that far fewer brands were in fact owned by the population. Brand ownership for the four appliances was as follows:

Refrigerator	13
Washing Machine	13
Toaster	10
Percolator	9

The fact that fewer brands are owned by the population than known by the population, is an indication that for this population the smaller number of brands owned is probably a better indication of their perception of product homogeneity.

One would assume that the greater the brand heterogeneity of an appliance the greater would be the consumers knowledge of the brand owned. It has already been shown that the respondents in the population felt that there were greater price and product differences between the high priced as opposed to the low priced appliances. It has also been shown that more brands of high priced appliances are known to the population than brands of low priced appliances. It is therefore logical that the results in table Q 5 show that a greater percentage of the population knew the brand names of their refrigerators and washing machines than their percolators and toasters.

The reason for assuming that the more heterogeneous the available competing appliances are the greater would be the

consumers knowledge of the brand owned is as follows:

If the consumer is subject to a wide choice of a particular appliance, and if the brands have significant price and product differences than the consumers is forced to shop around and compare. The more time the consumer spends shopping, the greater will be the impression made by the brand eventually chosen. As a result of this, the consumer is likely to remember the name of the brand purchased.

Table Q 15 is a distribution of potential sources of advice for the purchase of various appliances. It is reasonable to assume that the more complex the product, and the greater the variety of available competing brands the more likely are consumers to seek advice, and particularly expert advice. From table Q15 it is seen that 81% of all respondents would seek advice in the purchase of a washing machine and a refrigerator. This figure drops to 77% for the percolator and 66% for the toaster. As far as expert advice is concerned, 30% of all respondents indicated they would go to an engineer or salesman for advice in the purchase of a refrigerator and a washing machine. This percentage drops to 25% for a toaster and 23% for a percolator. This again justifies the theory that the greater the variety the more necessary it is to obtain expert advice.

One final method of gauging product homogeneity of the four appliances can be derived from table Q32 in which the four appliances are ranked in terms of the population's perception of their status.

In this table respondents were asked to rank the four appliances first, second, third or fourth in terms of what they perceived to be the status hierarchy. A value of 0.4 was assigned to a first place ranking, 0.3 to second, 0.2 to third and 0.1 to fourth. The total number of respondents in each category was then multiplied by the value for that category and a total score was then derived. The mean of this total was then taken, and a ranking in terms of mean values was developed for the four appliances. These mean values were then converted to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 in order to make them comparable to the other scales used in this study. The value 0.0 represents very low status and the value 1.0 represents very high status. In terms of this procedure the following ranking was established.

Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.807$
Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.70$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.552$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.432$

The assumption can now be made that the higher the status of a product, the more distinguishable it must be from other similar products or brands. This means therefore that the products that have a high status are likely to belong to a category of goods in which the various brands are relatively heterogeneous. In this case the high status of the washing machine and refrigerator is entirely consistent with the evidence that available competing brands for these two products are more heterogeneous than the brands for the two lower priced lower status products.

In order to test the validity of the model, it is necessary to develop a series of values which reflect the relative homogeneity of the four appliances. In order to do this, the following procedure has been adopted. A scale has been developed for the perceived product differences between appliances and another scale for the perceived price differences between appliances. The values from these two scales have then been added, and the mean value has been selected as the measurement of the relative homogeneity or heterogeneity of the four appliances.

The two scales have been developed in the following manner.

Initially a scale of 0.0 to 52 was used to grade respondents positive belief that there are product and price differences between appliances. This scale corresponds to the total number of respondents and therefore allows for measurement in terms of percentage positive and percentage negative responses. A value of 0.0 represents no product or price differences, and a value of 52 represents extreme price and product differences. From table Q 26 the following scale represents the perceived product differences or the relative product heterogeneity between the various brands of the four appliances.

Washing machine	44
Refrigerator	38
Toaster	32
Percolator	28

From table Q 27 the following scale represents the perceived price differences or the relative price heterogeneity between the various brands of the four appliances.

Washing Machine	44
Refrigerator	40
Toaster	38
Percolator	28

In order to convert these values to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 a conversion factor of 0.019233 has been used. The new values for product heterogeneity are as follows:

Washing Machine	0.846
Refrigerator	0.730
Toaster	0.615
Percolator	0.538

The same conversion factor of 0.019233 has been used to establish new values for price heterogeneity. These values are as follows:

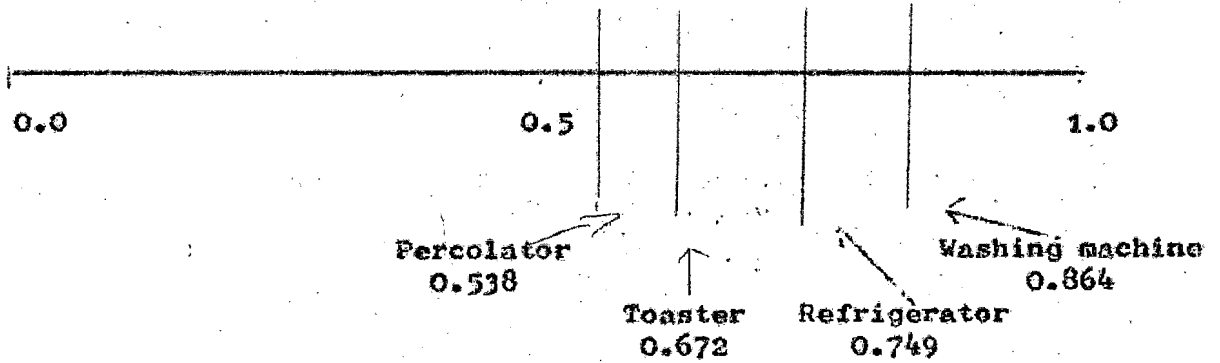
Washing Machine	0.846
Refrigerator	0.769
Toaster	0.730
Percolator	0.538

The two sets of values for product and price heterogeneity are now added together to give a mean value for the homogeneity of available competing products.

Washing Machine	0.864 + 0.864	=	1.728	$\bar{x}=0.864$
Refrigerator	0.769 + 0.730	=	1.499	$\bar{x}=0.749$
Toaster	0.615 + 0.730	=	1.345	$\bar{x}=0.672$
Percolator	0.538 + 0.538	=	1.076	$\bar{x}=0.538$

These final values for the variable homogeneity of available competing products appear entirely consistent with the

other empirical data, and will be used in the final test of the model. These values are diagrammatically represented on the continuum below.



CHAPTER XIV.

ANALYSIS OF THE LAST TWO VARIABLES (PS + BS)

The last two variables in the model are product status and brand status. In developing the model, it was hypothesised that the status of a product or brand is a function of that product or brands visibility and distinctiveness. In other words,

$$STO = \frac{1}{2}K_1 \times (PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)$$

It was further suggested that the greater the total status of a product or brand, the greater would be the time spent shopping for it or the greater the status of the total offering STO the greater would be the time spent shopping for it.

In this chapter the last two variables of the model will be analysed, and final values for both product status and brand status will be established.

A. PRODUCT STATUS PS = (PV x PD).

1) PRODUCT VISIBILITY PV.

The method used to determine the visibility of the four appliances was to ask each respondent whether she knew which of the four appliances were owned by the three families closest to her both geographically and in terms of affection. Those three families were (a) her closest neighbour (b) her closest friend and (c) her closest family member.

Table Q 28 is a distribution of the responses to the question "do you know which of the following appliances are owned by your closest neighbour, friend, family member". Table XIV.1 at the end of the chapter indicates the known product ownership for the four appliances for each category. This table has been derived from table Q 28.

From table XIV.1 it is immediately apparent that the largest percentage of known appliance ownership is for the refrigerator, then the washing machine followed by the toaster and finally the percolator. In order to derive a series of values for product visibility the positive percentages have been added together for each category and then the mean value has been

established. So for the refrigerator the mean value is

	$82.7 + 98.1 + 100 = 280.8$	$\bar{x} = 93.6\%$
Toaster	$63.4 + 94.2 + 100.0 = 257.6$	$\bar{x} = 85.9\%$
Washing Machine	$65.4 + 92.3 + 86.6 = 244.3$	$\bar{x} = 81.4\%$
Percolator	$25.0 + 53.9 + 52.0 = 130.9$	$\bar{x} = 43.6\%$

In order to make these values comparable with the other values in the model, they have been converted to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 where 0.0 is very low product visibility and 1.0 very high product visibility. The final values therefore are

Refrigerator	0.936
Toaster	0.859
Washing machine	0.814
Percolator	0.436

These values are consistent with earlier findings in this study. It was shown in chapter XII that product ownership of the four appliances for this population was in the following order. First refrigerator, second toaster, third washing machine and last percolator. It is logical to assume that product ownership by the population's closest neighbours, friends and family members would be similar to that of the population itself.

This assumption is further validated by tables Q 19, Q 19a, Q 20 and Q 20a in which the population was asked to indicate the type of work done by the husbands of their two closest friends, and by the husbands of their two closest neighbours. In the case of the two closest friends every one mentioned with the exception of one student either a professional, technical or related worker or an owner or major shareholder of a business or an administrative executive or sales worker. In other words the population's friends have the same occupational background as the population itself. In the case of the two closest neighbours, 84% of them have the same occupational background as the population itself.

It is also reasonable to assume from table Q 21 that the population probably has a good idea of the appliance ownership of their closest friend, family and neighbour. In table Q21 it is seen that over 86% of the population entertains at home at least 3 times a month, and that 77% entertain at least once a week. This being the case, one must assume that the population itself is entertained a similar number of times by friends and family and therefore that the population has a fair idea of appliance ownership by neighbours, friends and family.

Some general comments on product visibility are now necessary to further the model. Each appliance will be discussed in turn, starting with the most visible product the refrigerator and finishing with the least visible product the percolator.

Refrigerator ownership for this population is 100%, and is probably 100% for friends, family and neighbours. In other words the market saturation of the product makes it highly visible. In addition it is a large appliance that cannot help but be seen by anyone going into the kitchen or a friend or family member.

Over 96% of the population and hence the friends, neighbours and family members of the population own a toaster. Market saturation therefore assures visibility. Furthermore while a toaster is not as large as a refrigerator it is nevertheless kept in the kitchen, generally on a counter near an outlet, and hence is highly visible, but not as visible as a refrigerator.

Over 90% of the population and hence the friends, neighbours and family members of the population own a washing machine. In spite of near market saturation of this product, the fact that it is generally used by the maid, and frequently kept in

a washroom reduces the visibility of the product. It is logical therefore that product visibility of a washing machine is lower than product visibility of a refrigerator or toaster.

Only 44% of the population own a percolator, and again this probably approximates product ownership by friends, family members and neighbours. The smaller percentage ownership of the appliance definitely reduces its visibility. It must be noted however, that in cases where households do own a percolator it is probably highly visible as it is used when entertaining. This phenomenon probably accounts for the close relationship between percolator ownership 44% and percolator visibility 43.9%.

In summary the values that will be used to represent product visibility of the four appliances are as follows:

Refrigerator	0.936
Toaster	0.859
Washing machine	0.814
Percolator	0.436

2. PRODUCT DISTINCTIVENESS - PD.

The relationship between product distinctiveness and product visibility was discussed in chapter IX. In this chapter it was stated that while a product might be visible, it can only be distinctive if it is different to other products in the same category.

In order to develop a series of values for the degree of product distinctiveness of the four appliances the following procedure has been adopted. A series of values have been developed based on table Q 29 in which respondent indicated the frequency of actual sight of the four appliances at their closest friend, neighbour and family member. The assumption here is that the more distinctive the appliance the more likely is the respondent to have seen it and remembered seeing it. Table XIV.2 at the end of this chapter shows the percentage of respondents who have actually seen the various appliances at their friends, neighbours and family members.

The category never seen has been assigned a value of 0.0, the category occasionally seen a value of 0.1 and the category frequently seen a value of 0.2. The total number of respondents

in each category has then been multiplied by the value of that category and a total value for the refrigerator, percolator, toaster and washing machine has been derived. A mean value has then been taken, and this mean has been converted to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 in order to make the values comparable with the other scales used in this study. The final mean values for the four appliances in terms of how frequently they have been seen are as follows:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.75$
Washing machine	$\bar{x} = 0.545$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.540$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.350$

While the above values reflect frequency of sight, they do not yet represent final values for product distinctiveness. In order for a product to be distinctive, not only must its frequency of sight be assured, but its importance on status must also be established.

Table Q 32 ranks the four appliances in terms of the populations perception of their status. In chapter XII it was established that the higher the status of a product, the more distinguishable it must be from other similar products or brands. This means

therefore that products that are frequently seen and that also have high status must have a high value for product distinctiveness.

The procedure used for determining product status was discussed in chapter XII, and the final values derived for product status are as follows:

Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.807$
Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.70$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.552$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.432$

In order to derive a final value for use in the model of product distinctiveness, the values for frequency of sight and product status have been added, and the mean value taken.

Refrigerator	0.75	+	0.7	=	1.45	$\bar{x} = \underline{0.725}$
Washing Machine	0.545	+	0.807	=	1.352	$\bar{x} = \underline{0.676}$
Toaster	0.54	+	0.432	=	0.972	$\bar{x} = \underline{0.486}$
Percolator	0.35	+	0.552	=	0.902	$\bar{x} = \underline{0.451}$

The final ranking of the four appliances in terms of product distinctiveness appears entirely consistent with earlier evidence in this study, and with other empirical data.

For example one would assume that the greater the heterogeneity of an appliance category the greater would be its product distinctiveness. The ranking for heterogeneity in chapter XIII is similar to the ranking for product distinctiveness with the exception that in the former case, the washing machine ranked slightly ahead of the refrigerator.

In addition the fact that over 65% of the population believed that certain appliances do have more status than other appliances is further indication that there is or must be a ranking of appliances in terms of their distinctiveness.

Further evidence that the two higher priced appliances are more distinctive than the lower priced appliances is found in tables Q 8 and Q 14. In these two tables, respondents indicated that they spent more time shopping for the high priced appliances than the low priced. Now if all refrigerators were similar and one refrigerator could not be distinguished from another then it is unlikely that consumers would spend time comparing and shopping for them.

In table Q 15 81% of all respondents indicated that they would seek some form of advice in the purchase of a washing machine and a refrigerator. This figure drops to 77% for a percolator and 66% for a toaster. These figures are again relatively consistent with the values for product distinctiveness. One would assume that the more distinctive a category of goods is, the more necessary it would be to seek advice when making a purchase.

The final aspect of the empirical data that justifies the ranking of the appliances in terms of product distinctiveness is found in table Q 18. In this table respondents indicated the expected store type for the future purchase of the four appliances. It can be hypothesized that the greater the degree of product distinctiveness, the greater will be the consumers desire to shop in stores where after sales service is general practice. In table Q 18 38% of the population indicated that they would buy a refrigerator in a store generally associated with after sales service, namely an appliance store, a furniture store or the City Council. This percentage drops to 36% for the washing machine, 30% for the toaster and 28% for the percolator*

* It is interesting to note that not a single member of the population would buy any of the four appliances at a department store or a supermarket, and only one respondent indicated that she would buy her appliance at a Bazaar.

In summary the two high priced appliances are more distinctive than the two low priced appliances, and the final ranking and values that will be used for the four appliances in the model are as follows:

Refrigerator	0.725
Washing machine	0.676
Toaster	0.486
Percolator	0.451

B. BRAND STATUS $BS = (BV \times BD)$

1) BRAND VISIBILITY

In the previous section product visibility was discussed. It is now necessary to develop a series of values for brand visibility. In chapter IX it was pointed out that a product can be visible in two ways. The product itself can be visible e.g. a refrigerator, and the brand of that product can also be visible e.g. a G.E. refrigerator. In cases where the brand is not prominently displayed or where one brand looks very much like another, the value for brand visibility will be low.

In order to develop a series of values for brand visibility, the results from table Q 30 have been used. In this table respondents were asked to name the specific brand owned by their closest neighbour, friend and family member. Table XIV.3 at the end of this chapter shows the degree to which respondents did know the brand names of the four appliances owned by their friends, neighbours and families. The figures in table XIV.3 are in the form of percentages.

In order to derive a value for brand visibility, the positive percentages in each category have been added together, and the mean value taken. In other words the mean value for the refrigerator was derived in the following way:

Refrigerator:	Neighbour	23
	Friend	44
	Family	<u>79</u>
		<u>146</u>

The mean of 146 was then taken, and this came to 48.7.

The four means were then converted to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 in order to make them more comparable with the other scales used in this study. A value of 0.0 represents very low brand visibility and a value of 1.0 represents very high brand visibility.

The final ranking of the four appliances in terms of brand visibility is as follows:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.487$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.476$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.186$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.047$

The assumptions underlying the use of these values for brand visibility are as follows. It has already been shown that the respondents do a considerable amount of entertaining, and that they in turn are entertained. This being the case, one must assume that they do have the opportunity of seeing their friends, neighbours and families appliances. This in fact has already been demonstrated in table Q 29. The conclusion to be drawn from this is that if they do know the brand names of the appliances owned by their friends, neighbours and family members then these brands must be visible, and they must be visible in varying degrees.

This conclusion is further validated by table Q 26 in which respondents indicated that the appliances with the greatest product differences were the washing machine and the refrigerator, followed by the toaster and the percolator.

From table Q 30 it can be seen that not only are the four appliances visible in varying degrees, but that the most owned and therefore the most visible of the refrigerator brands are the Frigidaire and the General Electric. In the case of the washing machine the most owned and hence most visible brand is the Hoover. For the toaster the

most owned and visible brand is the Morphy Richards, while for the percolator no particular brand stands out.

In summary brand visibility differs from appliance to appliance. In this study the two higher priced appliance were found to be more visible than the two lower priced appliances. The final ranking in terms of visibility is as follows:

Refrigerator	0.487
Washing Machine	0.476
Toaster	0.186
Percolator	0.047

2) BRAND DISTINCTIVENESS.

In order for a brand to be distinctive it must be possible for consumers to tell one brand from another. In table Q 30, consumers were asked to name the brand of appliance owned by their closest friend, neighbour and family member.

The greater the number of brands named for any one appliance, the greater the brand distinctiveness of that appliance.

Table XIV.4 at the end of this chapter, shows the total number of brands owned in each appliance category for the closest neighbour, friend and family member. The mean number of brands owned is of the following order:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 10$
Washing machine	$\bar{x} = 9.7$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 4$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 2.3$

In order for these mean values to mean anything, it is necessary to have a bench-mark against which to measure or compare them. The most logical bench-mark to use is the total number of appliances owned by the population. In other words the total number of appliances owned probably serves as

a reference point from which the population evaluates brand distinctiveness.

From chapter XII, and also from table Q 5 it can be seen that the total number of brands owned by the population for each appliance is as follows:

Refrigerator	13
Washing Machine	13
Toaster	10
Percolator	9

Using these values as bench-marks, the following procedure has been followed in determining a series of values for brand distinctiveness for each appliance. The mean value of the brands owned by the populations closest neighbours, friends and family members has been expressed as a percentage of the total number of brands owned by the population. These percentage values have then been converted to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 where 0.0 represents very low brand distinctiveness and 1.0 very high brand distinctiveness. The final values for brand distinctiveness are as follows:

Refrigerator	0.77
Washing machine	0.74
Toaster	0.40
Percolator	0.25

The above ranking is further justified by the result from table Q 5 in which over 95% of all respondents knew the brand names of their own refrigerators and washing machines, but less than 62% knew the names of their toasters and less than 50% knew the names of the percolator.

Earlier findings in chapters XII and XIII also justify the above ranking. More stores were used to compare the higher priced appliances than the lower priced appliances. The same thing applies to the length of time during which the decision to purchase was actually made.

It can also be hypothesized that the greater the brand distinctiveness, the more complex and varied would be the reasons given for shopping at a particular store. Table Q 9 indicates that the reasons for using a particular store are varied and complex when the purchase of a higher priced appliance is contemplated. In the case of the two lower priced appliances such things as low price, convenience and "I always buy there" predominated. In the case of the two higher priced appliances the above three factors were also represented but so were service, dependability of products, credit facilities and friends recommendation.

It is also logical to assume that the more distinctive the brand of a product the more difficult it will be to evaluate the features of the various brands. This being the case, it is hypothesized that for appliances with high brand distinctiveness, a large number of purchase decision will be joint husband wife decisions. This assumption is borne out by the results in table Q 11 and also by the discussion in Chapter XII.

Table Q 14 further validates the ranking of the four appliances in terms of brand distinctiveness. In this table a larger percentage of respondents indicated that they would shop around comparing brands of refrigerators and washing machines than brands of percolators or toasters.

It can also be hypothesized that for the purchase of distinctive brands of appliances respondents would seek advice and particularly expert advice. Table Q 15 demonstrates that more respondents would in fact seek advice in the purchase of a refrigerator and washing machine than in the purchase of a toaster or percolator.

In summary, the population is cognisant of more brands of refrigerators and washing machines than toasters and percolators.

In addition, the population views the various brands of the two higher priced appliances as being more varied and distinctive than the various brands of the two lower priced appliances. The final ranking of the four appliances in terms of brand distinctiveness is as follows:

Refrigerator	0.77
Washing Machine	0.74
Toaster	0.40
Percolator	0.25

C. STATUS OF THE TOTAL OFFERING - STO

It is apparent from the sections on product visibility and product distinctiveness and brand visibility and brand distinctiveness that the population used in this study views each of the four appliances in a somewhat different light.

No attempt will be made at this stage to calculate the value for STO. This will be done in the next chapter in which the total model will be discussed. This section is rather a summary of the findings on product and brand status and on examination of other factors relating to status.

Initially it was observed in table Q 31 that 65% of the population believed that certain appliances have more status than other appliances. In table Q 33 it was observed that 75% of the population believed that certain brands of appliances have more status than other brands. These two findings immediately validated the hypothesis that the total status of appliance may differ from the total status of another appliance.

In addition, it was shown that the two most owned of the four appliances both by the population and its friends, neighbours and family were the refrigerator and washing machine, and that the two most frequently seen of the four appliances were also the refrigerator and washing machine.

Finally in table Q 32 the populations ranked the four appliances in terms of status, and again the two higher priced appliances were ranked above the two lower priced appliances.

Table Q 34 is also of relevance to this study even though it does not relate directly to visibility or distinctiveness. This table shows the populations ranking of appliance brand names in terms of status. Respondents were asked to rank the three appliances they believed to have the highest status. The brand name Frigidaire was ranked as the brand with the highest status. It was followed by General Electric, Fuchsware Hoover and Bendix.

It is interesting to note that all of the above five companies manufacture a wide variety of different types of appliances under the same brand name. Nevertheless, it is probably fair to say that three of the above five brands are generally associated with a particular type of appliance.

For example Frigidaire is generally associated with a refrigerator. In fact the name Frigidaire has become almost synonymous with the word refrigerator, and is largely a generic term.

The name Hoover is most generally associated with vacuum cleaners and with washing machines. This is borne out by the fact that when respondents were looking for a word to express a small washing machine, they used the phrase "small Hoover".

The name Bendix is also closely associated with washing machines and together with Hoover was viewed as being the highest status brand for a washing machine.

The other two high status brands - G.E. and Euchsware - are generally associated with a wide variety of products. Both these brands were mentioned for all the four categories of appliances.

The final two tables that relate to the status of the four appliances are tables Q 16 and Q 17. In these two tables, respondents were asked to indicate which of the four appliances and specifically which brand of the four appliances were owned

by a White doctor, a Bantu businessman, a Coloured school-teacher and a White truck driver.

The results from these two tables can be viewed in a variety of ways. The two major methods of analysing these results are as follows:

(a) It could be assumed that those people that were viewed by the population as owning the largest number of, and the highest status appliances were also viewed by the population as being the highest status people, or

(b) It could be assumed that the four categories of people are ranked by the population as having different status, and therefore that their appliance ownership should be related to their status.

The White doctor was perceived as owning practically all the appliances, and also the highest status brands. The results

from the other three categories however are not nearly as clear cut. For example the Coloured school teacher scored ahead of the White truck driver in every category of appliance owned. In addition, the Bantu businessman was not far behind the White truck driver in the perceived ownership of a refrigerator, Percolator and washing machine.

It is difficult to explain these results. Possibly the only explanation is that the population does not necessarily view the non-white as being unable to afford or unable to appreciate the advantages of electrical household appliances.

The only clear cut result from these tables is that a White doctor is probably viewed as one of the highest status members of our community and as such would be expected to own practically all of the appliances. In addition the perceived brand ownership of appliances by the White doctor conforms closely to the ranking of appliances in terms of status in table Q 34a.

TABLE XIV.1.

KNOWN APPLIANCE OWNERSHIP BY NEIGHBOUR, FRIEND,
FAMILY MEMBER - EXPRESSED AS A PERCENTAGE.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Neighbour own	82.7	25.0	63.4	65.4
Neighbour not own	1.9	15.4	1.9	9.6
Neighbour don't know	15.4	60.0	34.6	25.0
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52
Friend own	98.1	53.9	94.2	92.3
Friend not own	0.0	25.0	0.0	1.9
Friend don't know	1.9	21.1	5.8	5.8
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52
Family own	100.0	52.0	100.0	86.6
Family not own	0.0	30.7	0.0	9.6
Family don't know	0.0	17.3	0.0	3.8
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE XIV.2:

FREQUENCY OF ACTUAL SIGHT OF APPLIANCES AT NEIGHBOURS,
FRIEND, FAMILY - EXPRESSED AS A PERCENTAGE *

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Neighbour - Never	35	83	59	58
Neighbour - Occasionally	25	12	29	27
Neighbour - Frequently	40	6	12	15
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52
Friend - Never	6	46	29	16
Friend - Occasionally	27	19	37	44
Friend - Frequently	67	35	34	40
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52
Family - Never	0	46	2	13
Family - Occasionally	13	15	31	27
Family - Frequently	87	39	67	60
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52

* All figures have been rounded off

Scale: 0.0 to 0.2

Mean: Refrigerator $\bar{x} = 0.15$
 Percolator $\bar{x} = 0.069$
 Toaster $\bar{x} = 0.108$
 Washing Machine $\bar{x} = 0.109$

Converted/...

Converted to scale 0.0 to 1.0

Means:

Refrigerator $\bar{x} = 0.75$

Percolator $\bar{x} = 0.35$

Toaster $\bar{x} = 0.54$

Washing Machine $\bar{x} = 0.545$

TABLE XIV.3.

KNOWLEDGE OF BRANDS OWNED BY NEIGHBOUR, FRIEND,
FAMILY MEMBER - EXPRESSED AS A PERCENTAGE.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Neighbour - Do know	23	0	2	25
Neighbour - Do not know	77	100	98	75
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52
Friend - Do know	44	4	15	50
Friend - Do not know	66	96	85	50
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52
Family - Do know	79	10	39	68
Family - Do not know	21	90	61	32
100%	100	100	100	100
N	52	52	52	52

Scale: 0.0 to 1.0

Mean:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.487$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.047$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.186$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.476$

TABLE XIV. 4.

TOTAL NUMBER OF BRANDS OWNED BY NEIGHBOUR
FRIEND, FAMILY MEMBER.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Neighbour	7	0	2	7
Friend	8	2	3	10
Family	15	5	7	12

Means:

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 10$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 2.3$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 4$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 9.7$

CHAPTER XV.

TESTING THE MODEL AND FINAL CONCLUSIONS.

In chapters VII, VIII and XIV the variables in the model

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2}K_1 (PS + BS)$$

given $P_t > 0$ and $1 \geq A > 0$

were discussed, and a series of values were established for each variable and for each of the four appliances. In this chapter the values for each variable will be fed into the model in order to test its validity. In addition, the chapter will include the final and major conclusions of this study.

In order to test the model, it is necessary to break it into two parts. The first part includes the exogenous variables ($P \times D \times H$) and the second part includes the endogenous variables ($PV \times PD$) + ($BV \times BD$).

In developing the model, it was stated that both the endogenous and the exogenous variables were themselves predictors of shopping behaviour. Before testing the total integrated model therefore the predictability of both sets of variables will be analysed.

A. THE EXOGENOUS VARIABLES - (P x D x H)

The three exogenous variables - price P, distribution D, and homogeneity of available competing products H should as a group act as a predictor of the amount of time T consumers spend on shopping behaviour SB.

In chapter XIII a series of values was developed for each of the three variables and for each of the four appliances. The following values were developed for the variable price.

Refrigerator	0.688
Toaster	0.644
Washing Machine	0.598
Percolator	0.510

The following values were developed for the variable distribution

Washing Machine	0.661
Refrigerator	0.639
Percolator	0.437
Toaster	0.316

The following values were developed for the variable homogeneity of available competing products.

Washing Machine	0.846
Refrigerator	0.749
Toaster	0.672
Percolator	0.538

In order to develop an integrated value for the three variables, it is necessary to multiply them out. For the sake of clarity the variables have been entered into table XV.1 below.

TABLE XV.1.

MATRIX OF VALUES FOR $P \times D \times H$.

	Price - P	Distribution - D	Homogeneity - H
Refrigerator	0.688	0.639	0.749
Washing Machine	0.598	0.661	0.846
Toaster	0.644	0.316	0.672
Percolator	0.51	0.437	0.538

These values have been multiplied out in the following way; where

Refrigerator	= R
Washing Machine	= W
Toaster	= T
Percolator	= P

Refrigerator - $SB(R) = K_1 \times P \times D \times H$
 $SB(R) = K_1 \times 0.688 \times 0.639 \times 0.749$
 $SB(R) = K_1 \times 0.329$

Washing Machine - $SB(W) = K_1 \times P \times D \times H$
 $SB(W) = K_1 \times 0.598 \times 0.661 \times 0.846$
 $SB(W) = K_1 \times 0.334$

Toaster - $SB(T) = K_1 \times P \times D \times H$
 $SB(T) = K_1 \times 0.644 \times 0.316 \times 0.672$
 $SB(T) = K_1 \times 0.136$

Percolator - $SB(P) = K_1 \times P \times D \times H$
 $SB(P) = K_1 \times 0.51 \times 0.437 \times 0.538$
 $SB(P) = K_1 \times 0.119$

The final ranking and values of the four appliances in terms of the amount of time consumers would spend shopping for them taking into account only the three exogenous variables is as follows:

Washing Machine	0.334
Refrigerator	0.329
Toaster	0.136
Percolator	0.119

It is apparent from the above that consumers in this population would spend more time shopping for the two higher priced appliances than for the two lower priced appliances. This finding is consistent with earlier hypothesis made in this study.

This ranking is not, however, entirely consistent with the ranking developed in chapter XII where a series of values was established based upon respondents estimation of the amount of time they would spend shopping if they were to buy the four appliances in the future.

In chapter XII the two higher priced appliances did rank above the two lower priced appliances but the order was reversed. The refrigerator ranked above the washing machine and the percolator ranked above the toaster. The difference between the two rankings is however not significant. It was not originally intended that the values be expressed to the third decimal point. If they were expressed to only one decimal point, then the two higher priced appliances would have the same value for SB as would the two lower priced appliances.

The next stage in the testing of the model is to establish a series of values for the endogenous variables product status PS and Brand status BS or the status of the total offering STO.

B. THE ENDOGENOUS VARIABLES - $(PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)$

The four exogenous variables product visibility PV, product distribution PD, brand visibility BV and brand distinctiveness BD will as a group establish the status of the total offering STO. The status of the total offering should by itself act as a predictor of the amount of time T consumers spend on shopping behaviour SB.

In chapter XIV a series of values was developed for each of the endogenous variables and for each of the four appliances. These values are summarised in table XV.2 below.

TABLE XV.2.

MATRIX OF VALUES FOR $(PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)$

	<u>PV</u>	<u>PD</u>	<u>BV</u>	<u>BD</u>
Refrigerator	0.936	0.725	0.487	0.77
Washing Machine	0.814	0.676	0.476	0.74
Toaster	0.859	0.486	0.186	0.4
Percolator	0.436	0.451	0.047	0.25

These values have been multiplied out in the following way where

Refrigerator = R

Washing Machine = W

Toaster = T

Percolator = P

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Refrigerator} \quad - \quad SB(R) &= K_1 \times (PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD) \\ SB(R) &= K_1 \times (0.936 \times 0.725) + (0.487 \times 0.77) \\ SB(R) &= K_1 \times 0.678 + 0.375 \\ SB(R) &= K_1 \times 1.053 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Washing Machine} \quad - \quad SB(W) &= K_1 \times (PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD) \\ SB(W) &= K_1 \times (0.814 \times 0.676) + (0.476 \times 0.74) \\ SB(W) &= K_1 \times 0.55 + 0.352 \\ SB(W) &= K_1 \times 0.902 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Toaster} \quad - \quad SB(T) &= K_1 \times (PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD) \\ SB(T) &= K_1 \times (0.859 \times 0.486) + (0.186 \times 0.4) \\ SB(T) &= K_1 \times 0.417 + 0.074 \\ SB(T) &= K_1 \times 0.491 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Percolator} \quad - \quad SB(P) &= K_1 \times (PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD) \\ SB(P) &= K_1 \times (0.436 \times 0.451) + (0.047 \times 0.25) \\ SB(P) &= K_1 \times 0.197 + 0.012 \\ SB(P) &= K_1 \times 0.209 \end{aligned}$$

The final ranking and values of the four appliances in terms of the status of the total offering STO or the amount of time consumers would spend shopping for them taking into account only the four endogenous variables is as follows:

Refrigerator	1.053
Washing Machine	0.902
Toaster	0.491
Percolator	0.209

In chapter VIII it was stated that in order to make the two parts of the model comparable it was necessary to divide the status of the total offering by 2. In other words the model for the endogenous variables is

$$STO = \frac{1}{2}K_1 (PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)$$

This means that the values from the above ranking must be halved. The final values therefore are:

Refrigerator	0.526
Washing Machine	0.451
Toaster	0.245
Percolator	0.104

It is apparent from the above ranking, based on the endogenous variables, that consumers would spend more time shopping for the two higher priced appliances than for the two lower priced appliances.

This finding is consistent with earlier hypothesis made in this study. The ranking is also partially consistent with the ranking developed in chapter XII. where a series of values was established based on the populations estimation of the amount of time they would spend shopping if they were to buy the four appliances in the future.

In chapter XII the two higher priced appliances did rank above the two lower priced appliances, and furthermore the order was the same with the exception of the percolator and toaster which were reversed.

The final stage in the testing of the model involves the integration of the endogenous and the exogenous variables.

C. TESTING THE TOTAL MODEL.

The testing of the total model

$$SB = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$$

given $Pt > 0$ and $1/A > 0$

is now a simple operation. All that need be done is to add the two parts of the model together. It must be borne in mind at this stage that the variables predisposition to buy (Pt) and Awareness of available brands (A) were previously accepted as being positive and hence require no analysis. In other words (Pt) is accepted as being greater than 0 and (A) is accepted as approaching 1.

The final values for the variable shopping behaviour SB are therefore as follows:

Refrigerator - $SB(R) = K_1 \times (P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$

$$SB(R) = K_1 \times 0.329 + K_1 \times 0.526$$

$$SB(R) = K_1 \times 0.855$$

Washing Machine - $SB(W) = (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS)$

$$SB(W) = K_1 \times 0.334 + K_1 \times 0.451$$

$$SB(W) = K_1 \times 0.785$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Toaster} \quad - \quad SB(T) &= (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS) \\ SB(T) &= K_1 \times 0.136 + K_1 \times 0.245 \\ SB(T) &= K_1 \quad 0.381 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Percolator} \quad - \quad SB(P) &= (K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{4} K_1 \times (PS + BS) \\ SB(P) &= K_1 \times 0.119 + K_1 \times 0.104 \\ SB(P) &= K_1 \times 0.223 \end{aligned}$$

The final ranking of the four appliances in terms of the total amount of time T that consumers would spend shopping for them based upon the total model is as follows:

Refrigerator	0.855
Washing machine	0.785
Toaster	0.381
Percolator	0.223

These values however are based on a scale of 0.0 to 2.0. In other words the maximum value that could have been possible was 2.0. In order to convert these values to a scale of 0.0 to 1.0 it is necessary to halve them. In other words the total model must be divided by 2.

$$SB = \frac{1}{4} \left[(K_1 \times P \times D \times H) + \frac{1}{2} K_1 \times (PS + BS) \right]$$

The final and concluding ranking and values of the four appliances in the model therefore is as follows:

Refrigerator	0.427
Washing Machine	0.392
Toaster	0.19
Percolator	0.111

D. FINAL CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY.

In Part One and Part Two of this study on intensive literature survey of the field of consumer behaviour was undertaken. This survey served three functions. Firstly it enabled the writer to examine those areas of the field that had been extensively researched and those areas that had not been extensively researched. Secondly it enabled the writer to select an area of research that had not been extensively researched, and which appeared to be of major importance to an understanding of consumer behaviour. Thirdly the literature survey acted as a point of reference for the research conducted in this study.

In Part Three of this study, a model of consumer shopping behaviour was developed. This model attempts to explain why the amount of time consumers spend shopping varies from product to product. Four appliances were selected to empirically test the validity of the model.

In Part Four of this study a questionnaire was designed and a homogeneous population selected for testing the model. Fifty-two interviews were conducted and the data was analysed.

The final results of this data are contained in the last three chapters of the study.

It is now necessary to re-examine the results of the data collected and to establish a series of conclusions based on these results. The conclusions are set out below in point form.

1) Major Hypothesis.

The major hypothesis of the study was validated by the results. Consumers do spend more time shopping for some products than for other products. In this study, the model used was able to distinguish between the amount of time consumers spend shopping for refrigerators, washing machines, toasters and percolators. It seems reasonable to conclude that the model used in this study, would apply to any group of related products. Whether the model could be effectively used to determine the amount of time consumers would spend on shopping behaviour for an unrelated group of products is not known. There would appear to be no reason however to believe that the model does not have general applicability.

2) The Population.

The population used to test the model was homogeneous in terms of culture, social class, education, age, income and occupation. The use of an homogeneous sample precluded the effect of factors outside the model influencing the results. The fact that the population was homogeneous meant that it was not really a sample, but rather a population.

The use of the homogeneous population did limit the effect of factors outside the model from influencing the results. There is no reason to believe however that the model would not apply to any sample of people or in fact to the total population.

3) Ranking of Appliances.

In Part Three it was hypothesized that consumers would spend more time shopping for a refrigerator and washing machine than for a toaster and percolator. The model stipulated that the higher the price, the more exclusive the distribution, the greater the homogeneity of competing

products and the higher the product and brand status of a product the greater would be the amount of time consumers would spend shopping for it. In terms of these factors, the results of the study are relatively accurate.

Several minor inconsistencies are however evident. When asked to rank the four appliances in terms of the amount of time that respondents felt they would spend for them, the order and the values rounded off were as follows:

Refrigerator	0.77
Washing Machine	0.71
Percolator	0.38
Toaster	0.35

The results of the empirical research however show a slightly different order namely:

Refrigerator	0.43
Washing Machine	0.40
Toaster	0.20
Percolator	0.11

The actual differences between these two sets of values is of no consequence, but what is a major importance is

The ranking and the relationship between the values of the four appliances. The only inconsistency in ranking is between the toaster and the percolator. Several factors could account for this inconsistency. Firstly when one examines table Q 8 it is apparent that in spite of the fact that consumers said they would spend more time shopping for a percolator than for a toaster they went to fewer stores to purchase a percolator than a toaster. In other words what they said they would do and what they actually did are the exact opposite.

Furthermore, the same number of respondents stated that they would spend as much time shopping around for a percolator as they would for a toaster. Even more significant is the finding that over 32% of the population indicated that they would go to the nearest and most convenient store if they were going to buy a toaster. This percentage drops to 25% in the case of the percolator. In other words a greater percentage of the population indicated that they would try to save more time when purchasing a toaster than a percolator.

The major reason for these apparent inconsistencies is that a percolator is a relatively new product. It is

owned by only 44% of the population. Sixty-six percent have never bought a percolator, and therefore have no real experience of how they would behave when shopping for one.

As far as the relationship between the four appliances is concerned, again the major inconsistency occurs between the percolator and the toaster. The relationship between the refrigerator and the washing machine is entirely consistent. The results from the model indicate that the population would spend almost the same amount of time shopping for these two products. The same results are evident from the populations own estimate of the amount of time it would spend shopping for the two appliances.

The relationship between the refrigerator and the toaster is also virtually identical. In terms of the model, the population would spend 2.2 times as much time shopping for a refrigerator as they would for a toaster. The identical ratio applies to the populations own estimate of the amount of time it would spend shopping. The relationship between the washing machine and the toaster is also consistent. The only inconsistency is between the percolator and toaster

and hence between the percolator and the other two appliances.

From the above therefore it is apparent that the model does distinguish between the amount of time consumers spend shopping for appliances and probably for other goods as well.

4) Practical Value of the Model.

The value of any model is determined largely by

- a) its ability to predict and
- b) its ability to guide decision making.

The model developed in this study, is of practical value to the business man and particularly to the marketing practitioner. In addition the model is of further value in that it throws more light on the complex subject of consumer behaviour.

From the businessman's point of view, the total integrated model is of values, as are it's two parts. The first part of the model (P x D x H) can guide decision making in the following way.

- a) It indicates that for certain products the absolute price is of less importance than the perceived price utility of the product. For example in this study the perceived price utility of a toaster was greater than the perceived price utility of a percolator even though the absolute prices are similar. This means that in spite of the manufactured cost of a percolator, a businessman cannot expect the same margins on a percolator as he can on a toaster if he desires market saturation for the percolator. Consumers just don't believe that a percolator is worth the money.
- b) For higher priced more complex products the consumer expects to shop around and therefore intensive distribution is not necessary.
- c) In order to ensure that consumers do shop around and do compare products it is necessary to have one product distinguishable from another.
- d) The three variables taken together will enable a businessman to determine how much time he can expect consumers to spend shopping for his product. This information will effect his entire marketing strategy.

Does he stress convenience, does he stress speed of service, does he stress intensive distribution etc. are all questions that can partially be answered by an analysis of the first three variables.

The last four variables of the model $(PV \times PD) + (BV \times BD)$ can assist businessmen in the following ways:

- a) They enable decision making with regard to what aspect of the product to promote. Does one promote the product itself or the brand. Does one promote the visibility of the brand or the distinctiveness of the brand.
- b) The four variables together indicate the relative status of one product as opposed to another product. The fact that Frigidaire ranked as the appliance with the highest status could for example assist management in a decision of whether to push the brand name on all its appliances.
- c) One additional decision making attribute of the above four variables is that they enable management to establish priorities in the promotion of a particular product or brand. If the brand name is well accepted and has

high status then management can naturally decide to allocate its efforts in another direction.

The practical values of the total model are numerous. Some have already been covered, and only one major value will be mentioned here.

The total model is of major value in deciding where to locate a new store for example. If the goods carried have a low value on the scale of time spent on shopping behaviour then management must locate in a convenient area. Parking must be available, and goods must be displayed in such a way that consumers do not have to spend time searching for them.

By the same logic, the model will enable management to decide on the location and layout of the store. Should it be self service or not. Is the salesman's function important or are consumers in too much of a hurry to listen to a sales pitch.

5) Theoretical Value of the Model.

The model throws new light on the shopping behaviour of consumers and it also points the way to future areas of research and study.

What for example is the relationship between unrelated products and the amount of time consumers spend shopping for them? Is the model applicable to industrial goods? Is status important to industrial buyers? Is the relationship between the amount of time one group of consumers spends shopping for products the same as the relationship between the amount of time other groups spend shopping for the same products?

The writer believes that the model developed in this study can answer the above questions. Possibly some modifications would be necessary, but this would require further research not within the scope of this study.

One final aspect of the model that requires comment is its dynamic nature. The model can be used to gauge changes in consumer attitudes towards time spent shopping. New methods of retailing have altered consumer attitudes

towards shopping. The model can test and evaluate these changes over time. It is predicted that if the same population was used to test this model five years ago the results would probably have been different. In the same way the model could and should be used to evaluate future changes in the shopping behaviour of the population.

APPENDIX A.

Q TABLES AND RESULTS
FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE.*

* The Q Tables are all related to the questionnaire. The numbering is directly related to the specific number in the questionnaire from which the table was derived e.g. Table Q 7 is derived from question 7. In some cases tables may be numbered by a Q a number and a letter e.g. Q7a. These tables are further expansions of the question.

TABLE Q 1.

APPLIANCE OWNERSHIP

N = 52

	OWN	NOT OWN	N
Refrigerator	52	0	52
Percolator	23	29	52
Toaster	50	2	52
Washing Machine	47	5	52

TABLE Q 2.

APPLIANCE ACQUISITION

	NEW	SECOND HAND	GIFT	N
Refrigerator	39	2	11	52
Percolator	10	0	13	23
Toaster	32	0	18	50
Washing machine	34	7	6	47

TABLE Q 3.

LENGTH OF APPLIANCE OWNERSHIP IN YEARS

	0- $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ -1	1-3	3-6	6+	DK	N
Refrigerator	1	2	14	6	29		52
Percolator	0	0	7	6	9	1	23
Toaster	3	6	13	6	22		50
Washing machine	0	1	12	19	15		47

TABLE Q 4.

PRICE PAID FOR APPLIANCES IN RAND.

Price	<u>Refrigerator</u>	Price	<u>Percolator</u>	Price	<u>Toaster</u>	Price	<u>Washing Machine</u>
50	1	6	3	2-5	7	10-30	2
150-199	4	10	2	6-10	9	70-90	3
200-240	3	15	1	14-18	2	100-160	10
260-300	6	24	1	19-20	1	190-220	8
350-385	3	Dont own	29	Dont own	2	250-320	10
400-420	4	Dont know	3	Dont know	13	Dont own	5
500	1	Gift	13	Gift	18	Dont know	8
600-650	2	N	52	N	52	Gift	6
Dont know	17					N	52
Gift	11						
N	52						

TABLE Q 5.

BRAND OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCES

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Frigidaire	14	0	0	0
Hoover Keymatic	0	0	0	19
General Electric	11	3	7	2
Swan	0	2	0	0
Morphy Richards	0	2	19	0
Hotpoint	4	0	0	4
Rowensea	0	1	0	0
Tec	0	0	1	0
Barlow Washerama	0	0	0	1
Mercury	0	0	1	0
Bendix	0	0	0	2
Kelvinator	5	0	0	0
National	0	2	7	0
Philco	4	0	0	0
Speed Queen	0	0	1	2
Gibson	5	0	0	0
Admiral	1	0	0	0
Electrolux	1	0	0	0
Indesit	0	0	0	2
Sterling	0	0	2	0
Russel Hobb	0	1	0	0
Pineware	0	0	1	0
English Electric	2	0	0	4
Matsushiti	0	1	0	0
Liberator	0	0	0	1
Electro Master	1	0	0	0
Defy	0	0	0	2
Westpoint	1	0	0	0
Fides	2	0	0	0
Bonussi	0	0	0	1
Davey	0	1	0	0
Norge	1	0	0	0
Berda	0	1	0	0
Phillips	0	1	1	0
Kempark	0	0	0	0
Fudis	0	0	0	3
Capital	0	0	0	0
Easy	0	0	0	2
Don't own	0	29	2	5
Don't know	0	8	10	2
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE Q 5a.

KNOWLEDGE OF BRAND OF APPLIANCE OWNED.

	KNOWN	NOT KNOWN	N
Refrigerator	50	2	52
Percolator	12	11	23
Toaster	31	19	50
Washing Machine	46	1	47

TABLE Q 6.

TYPE OF STORE WHERE APPLIANCE WAS PURCHASED.

	G	S	B	AS	DS	SH	W	F	DK	O	N
Refrigerator	11	0	1	19	0	1	15	5	0	1	52
Percolator	13	0	0	2	0	0	6	1	1	0	23
Toaster	18	0	0	6	0	0	16	4	6	0	50
Washing Machine	6	0	0	13	1	4	14	6	0	3	47

Code:	Gift	G
	Supermarket	S
	Discount Store	D
	Bazaar	B
	Appliance Store	AS
	Department Store	DS
	Second Hand	SH
	Wholesale	W
	Furniture Store	F
	Don't Remember	DK
	Other	O

TABLE Q 7.

LOCATION OF STORE WHERE APPLIANCE WAS PURCHASED.

	GIFT	CITY	WYNBERG	CLAREMONT	DK	OTHER	N
Refrigerator	11	26	0	2	1	12	52
Percolator	13	7	0	1	0	2	23
Toaster	18	21	0	3	3	5	50
Washing Machine	6	24	0	1	1	15	47

TABLE Q 8.

NUMBER OF STORES USED TO COMPARE APPLIANCES.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8+	Gift	SH	DK	N
Refrigerator	27	0	5	1	0	2	1	0	11	0	5	52
Percolator	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	0	1	23
Toaster	26	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	18	0	4	50
Washing Machine	30	2	0	2	0	1	0	0	6	3	3	47

TABLE Q 9.

REASON FOR BUYING APPLIANCE AT PARTICULAR STORE.

	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	N
Refrigerator	11	1	10	5	0	2	0	2	3	11	5	2	52
Percolator	3	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	2	13	2	0	23
Toaster	7	0	5	3	0	1	3	0	4	18	5	4	50
Washing Machine	9	4	7	2	1	2	1	2	2	6	7	4	47

- Code:
- Low Price a
 - Service of Staff b
 - Dependable products c
 - Carried desired brand d
 - Advertising e
 - Friends recommendation f
 - Convenience - near home g
 - Good credit facilities h
 - Always buy there i
 - Gift j
 - Store personnel are friends k
 - Other l

TABLE Q 10.

LENGTH OF TIME IN MONTHS FROM DESIRE TO PURCHASE
TO ACTUAL PURCHASE OF APPLIANCE.

	1	2	3	4-8	8+	Gift	DK	N
Refrigerator	30	1	4	3	1	11	2	52
Percolator	9	0	0	0	0	13	1	23
Toaster	28	0	0	0	0	18	4	50
Washing Machine	25	2	5	4	3	6	2	47

TABLE Q 11.

WHO IN FAMILY DECIDED ON PURCHASE OF APPLIANCE.

	HUSBAND	WIFE	HUSBAND/WIFE	GIFT	N
Refrigerator	6	7	28	11	52
Percolator	0	3	7	13	23
Toaster	5	13	14	18	50
Washing Machine	3	14	24	6	47

TABLE Q 12 and 13.

MAJOR COMMENTS ON LIKES AND DISLIKES OF SHOPPING.

LIKES:

Spending money	5
Getting things	14
Improving my home	13
Browsing	1
Looking at new things and seeing the fashions	4
Seeing everything displayed	1
Getting away from household chores	2
Getting bargains	4
Not seeing anyone I know	1

DISLIKES:

Spending money	5
Not being able to afford what I want	5
The time involved	19
Standing in queues	3
Trying on clothes	1
Hate the sales ladies	6
Not being able to find things	3
Making decisions	2
Parking	4
The crush	1
Taking the kids	1
Driving	1
Bad service	5
Poor choice	1
Going out in bad weather	1

TABLE Q 14.

BEST WAY OF GETTING DEPENDABLE APPLIANCE AT
A REASONABLE PRICE.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Shop around the various stores	23	14	16	25
Shop around at various stores, select brand and buy wholesale	10	7	5	10
Buy wholesale	6	12	10	7
Check that store gives good after sales service	1	1	1	2
Go to City Council	2	0	0	2
Go to friend for advice	9	1	1	4
Ask husband for advice	1	0	0	2
Go to nearest store	0	13	17	0
Always buy same brand	0	2	0	0
Go to discount store	0	1	2	0
Never buy one	0	1	0	0
Check advertisements	0	0	0	0
For easiest one to operate	0	0	0	1

TABLE Q 15.

SOURCES OF ADVICE FOR PURCHASE OF APPLIANCE

	a	b	c	d	N
	FRIEND	SALESMAN	ENGINEER	NO-ONE	
Refrigerator	26	11	5	10	52
Percolator	18	12	0	12	52
Toaster	16	13	0	23	52
Washing Machine	26	13	3	10	52

TABLE Q 16.

PERCEIVED OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCES

N = 52 FOR EACH CATEGORY

	WHITE DOCTOR			BANTU BUSINESSMAN			COLOURED SCHOOL TEACHER			WHITE TRUCK DRIVER		
	Y	DK	P	Y	DK	P	Y	DK	P	Y	DK	P
	Refrigerator	52	0	0	42	6	4	51	0	1	43	0
Percolator	42	2	8	3	49	0	7	40	5	5	44	3
Toaster	51	1	0	22	23	7	32	13	7	30	17	5
Washing Machine	52	0	0	13	32	7	28	17	7	15	28	9

Code:

Yes does own Y
 Don't know or no does not own DK
 Probably does own P

TABLE Q 17.

PERCEIVED BRAND OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCES
BY WHITE DOCTOR.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Hotpoint	1	0	0	2
National	0	0	1	0
Phillips	0	2	1	0
Gibson	1	0	0	0
Hoover Matic	0	0	0	17
Bendix	0	0	0	9
Fridgedaire	11	0	0	0
Whirlpool	1	0	0	0
Murphy Richards	0	1	16	0
Capital	0	0	1	0
Kelvinator	7	0	0	0
Defy	1	0	0	0
G.E.C.	4	5	5	3
Fuchsware	5	0	0	0
Indeset	0	0	0	1
Easy	0	0	0	1
Electrolux	1	0	0	0
DK	20	44	28	19
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE Q 17. (Continued)

PERCEIVED BRAND OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCES BY
COLOURED SCHOOL TEACHERS.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Swan	0	0	1	0
Whirlpool	1	0	0	0
Norge	3	0	0	0
National	0	0	2	0
Fuchsware	6	0	0	0
Fridgedaire	4	0	0	0
Murphy Richards	0	0	3	0
Cheap make	2	0	1	0
Small Hoover	0	0	0	14
G.E.C.	3	2	3	0
Easy	0	0	0	3
Fides	1	0	0	0
Electrolux	1	0	0	0
Sterling	0	0	1	0
Westpoint	1	0	1	1
Defy	0	0	0	1
Kelvinator	1	0	0	0
Phillips	0	0	1	0
DK	29	50	39	33
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE Q 17. (Continued)

PERCEIVED BRAND OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCES BY
WHITE TRUCK DRIVER

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Hoover Big	0	0	0	1
National	0	0	4	0
Kelvinator	2	0	0	0
Fuchsware	4	0	0	0
Hoover small	0	0	0	8
Fridgedaire	2	0	0	0
Rinegold	1	0	0	0
Defy	1	0	0	0
G.E.C.	5	2	2	0
Whiripool	1	0	0	0
Small cheap make	2	0	0	1
Norge	4	0	0	0
Easy	0	0	0	4
Phillips	0	0	1	0
Sterling	0	0	1	0
Electrolux	1	0	0	0
DK	29	50	44	38
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE Q 17. (Continued)

PERCEIVED BRAND OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCES BY
BANTU BUSINESSMEN.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Swan	0	1	1	0
Easy	0	0	0	1
Norge	2	0	0	0
Whirlpool	1	0	0	0
G.E.C.	1	1	1	0
Fuchsware	4	0	0	0
Hoover	0	0	0	7
Klinpark	0	0	1	0
Indecit	1	0	0	0
Cheap make	2	0	2	0
Fridgedaire	1	0	0	0
Fides	1	0	0	0
Hotpoint	0	0	0	2
Phillips	0	0	1	0
Westpoint	1	0	0	1
National	0	0	1	0
Electrolux	1	0	0	0
DK	37	50	45	41
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE Q 18.

EXPECTED STORE TYPE FOR FUTURE PURCHASE OF APPLIANCE.

	SU	D	B	AS	DS	SH	W	FS	O	N
Refrigerator	0	11	1	15	0	0	20	2	3	52
Percolator	0	14	1	12	0	0	22	2	1	52
Toaster	0	15	1	12	0	0	20	3	1	52
Washing Machine	0	11	1	13	0	0	21	2	4	52

CODE:

Supermarket	SU
Discount Store	D
Bazaar	B
Appliance Store	AS
Department Store	DS
Second Hand	SH
Wholesale	W
Furniture Store	FS
Other	O

TABLE Q 19.

WORK DONE BY HUSBANDS OF TWO CLOSEST FRIENDS.

FRIEND ONE		FRIEND TWO	
Factory Owner	7	Architect	2
Accountant	5	Accountant	7
Minister of Religion	2	Salesman	3
Director of Companies	8	Director of Companies	6
Doctor/Dentist	8	Lawyer	3
Insurance Agent	3	Doctor	13
Chemist	7	Factory Owner	7
Salesman	2	Wholesaler	2
Shop Owner	3	Chemist	3
Lawyer	3	Shop Fitter	1
Manager	2	Student	1
Importer	1	Estate Agent	1
Photographer	<u>1</u>	Electrician	1
N	52	Shop Owner	1
		Manager	<u>1</u>
		N	52

TABLE Q 19a.

CATEGORIZATION OF WORK DONE BY HUSBANDS OF TWO CLOSEST FRIENDS IN TERMS OF METHOD USED TO SELECT ORIGINAL POPULATION.

	FRIEND ONE	FRIEND TWO
Professional Technical and Related Worker	18	25
Owner or Major Shareholder of Business	27	21
Administrative, Executive and Salesworker	7	5
	52	51*

* One member of population is a student.

TABLE Q 20.

WORK DONE BY HUSBANDS OF TWO CLOSEST NEIGHBOURS.

NEIGHBOUR ONE		NEIGHBOUR TWO	
Factory Owner	4	Architect	2
Accountant	4	Doctor/Dentist	5
Minister of Religion	2	Printer	3
Teacher	2	Accountant	5
Professor	3	Shop Owner	6
Architect	5	Chemist	2
Engineer	3	Estate Agent	1
Lawyer	3	Salesman	4
Manager	4	Lecturer	1
Salesman	2	Retired	4
Agent	2	Minister of Religion	1
Bank Manager	2	Director of Companies	6
Electrician	1	Agent	2
Economist	1	Lawyer	1
Carpenter	1	Mechanic	1
Retired	3	Electrician	1
Wholesaler	3	Factory Owner	2
Civil Servant	1	Don't know	5
Doctor	6		
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	52		52

TABLE Q 20a

CATEGORIZATION OF WORK DONE BY HUSBANDS OF TWO CLOSEST
NEIGHBOURS IN TERMS OF METHOD USED TO SELECT ORIGINAL
POPULATION.

	NEIGHBOUR ONE	NEIGHBOUR TWO
Professional Technical and Related Worker	29	17
Owner or Major Shareholder of Business	8	17
Administrative Executive Management and Sales Worker	10	7
	47*	41**

* Three members of population are retired.
One member of population is a civil Servant.
One member of population is a carpenter.

** Four members of population are retired.
Five members of population did not know what their
neighbours did.
One member of the population is an electrician.

TABLE Q 21.

FREQUENCY OF HOME ENTERTAINING A MONTH.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
1	3	3	5	12	9	3	1	6	9

TABLE Q 22.

PERCEIVED PRICE UTILITY OF APPLIANCE.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
10	9	4	1	3
9	4	1	6	7
8	9	5	11	7
7	3	4	5	3
6	2	7	5	3
5	12	5	9	12
4	4	1	5	6
3	4	5	4	8
2	2	10	4	2
1	3	3	1	1
0	0	7	1	0
N	52	52	52	52

SCALE: 0.0 to 1.0

Mean

Refrigerator $\bar{x} = 0.626$
 Percolator $\bar{x} = 0.415$
 Toaster $\bar{x} = 0.582$
 Washing Machine $\bar{x} = 0.559$

TABLE Q 22a.

PERCEIVED RANKING OF APPLIANCES IN TERMS OF PRICE UTILITY.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
4 First	23	12	18	10
3 Second	11	14	14	17
2 Third	13	10	13	17
1 Fourth	5	16	7	8
N	52	52	52	52

SCALE 0.0 to 0.4

Mean

Refrigerator $\bar{x} = 0.3$
 Percolator $\bar{x} = 0.242$
 Toaster $\bar{x} = 0.282$
 Washing Machine $\bar{x} = 0.255$

Converted to Scale 0.0 to 1.0

Mean

Refrigerator $\bar{x} = 0.75$
 Percolator $\bar{x} = 0.605$
 Toaster $\bar{x} = 0.705$
 Washing machine $\bar{x} = 0.637$

TABLE Q 23.

PERCEIVED INTENSITY OF APPLIANCE DISTRIBUTION*

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
0	2	3	2	2
1	0	3	8	1
2	1	6	7	1
3	5	4	5	2
4	3	8	12	3
5	7	9	11	9
6	9	9	2	8
7	15	3	2	13
8	4	5	3	7
9	5	1	0	5
10	1	1	0	1
N	52	52	52	52

* Values in this table have been reversed in order to reflect intensively distributed products with a lower score than selectively or exclusively distributed products.

SCALE: 0.0 to 1.0

<u>Mean</u>	Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.6$
	Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.457$
	Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.365$
	Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.607$

TABLE Q 23a.

PERCEIVED RANKING OF APPLIANCES IN TERMS OF DISTRIBUTION.

		Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
First	1	5	33	50	4
Second	2	9	10	0	5
Third	3	34	2	2	37
Fourth	4	4	7	0	6
N		52	52	52	52

SCALE 0.0 to 0.4

<u>Mean</u>	Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.271$
	Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.107$
	Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.167$
	Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.286$

Converted to Scale 0.0 to 1.0

<u>Mean</u>	Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.677$
	Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.267$
	Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.417$
	Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.715$

TABLE Q 24.

ESTIMATED TIME THAT WOULD BE SPENT IN THE PURCHASE OF APPLIANCES.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
10	9	2	1	7
9	5	0	0	5
8	7	0	0	8
7	8	0	0	6
6	4	0	0	6
5	5	2	2	7
4	2	2	3	0
3	2	13	10	4
2	2	9	8	3
1	3	12	14	2
0	5	12	14	4
N	52	52	52	52

SCALE: 0.0 to 1.0

Mean

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.609$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.198$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.176$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.6$

TABLE Q 24a.

RANKING OF APPLIANCES IN TERMS OF ESTIMATED TIME
THAT WOULD BE SPENT IN PURCHASE.

		Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
First	4	40	7	6	38
Second	3	11	3	3	12
Third	2	0	37	33	0
Fourth	1	1	5	10	2
N		52	52	52	52

SCALE: 0.0 to 1.0

<u>Mean</u>	Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.373$
	Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.223$
	Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.209$
	Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.365$

Converted to Scale: 0.0 to 1.0

<u>Mean</u>	Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.932$
	Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.557$
	Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.522$
	Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.912$

TABLE Q 26.

PERCEIVED PRODUCT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN APPLIANCES.

	YES	NO	DK	N
Refrigerator	38	13	1	52
Percolator	28	14	10	52
Toaster	32	19	1	52
Washing Machine	44	8	0	52

TABLE Q 27.

PERCEIVED PRICE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN APPLIANCES.

	YES	NO	DK	N
Refrigerator	40	11	1	52
Percolator	28	15	9	52
Toaster	38	13	1	52
Washing Machine	44	8	0	52

TABLE 28.

PRODUCT OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCES BY NEIGHBOUR, FRIEND, FAMILY.

N = 52 IN EACH CATEGORY.

		Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Neighbour	DO	43	13	33	34
Neighbour	NO	1	8	1	5
Neighbour	DK	8	31	18	13
Friend	DO	51	28	49	48
Friend	NO	0	13	0	1
Friend	DK	1	11	3	3
Family	DO	52	27	52	45
Family	NO	0	16	0	5
Family	DK	0	9	0	2

CODE: Does own appliance DO
 Does not own appliance NO
 Don't know DK

TABLE Q 29.

FREQUENCY OF ACTUAL SIGHT OF APPLIANCE AT NEIGHBOUR,
FRIEND, FAMILY.

N = 52 IN EACH CATEGORY.

		Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Neighbour	N	18	43	31	30
Neighbour	O	13	6	15	14
Neighbour	F	21	3	6	8
Friend	N	3	24	15	8
Friend	O	14	10	19	23
Friend	F	35	18	18	21
Family	N	0	24	1	7
Family	O	7	8	16	14
Family	F	45	20	35	31

CODE: Never N
 Occasionally O
 Frequently F

TABLE Q 30.

ACTUAL BRAND OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCES BY NEIGHBOUR.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
General Electric	2	0	0	1
Bendix	0	0	0	4
Fuchsware	1	0	0	1
Murphy Richards	0	0	2	0
Kelvinator	2	0	0	1
Hoover	0	0	0	4
Hoovermat	0	0	0	1
Hotpoint	1	0	0	1
Frigidaire	3	0	0	0
Gibson	2	0	0	0
Defy	1	0	0	0
National	0	0	1	0
DK	40	52	49	39
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE Q 30. (Continued)

ACTUAL BRAND OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCE BY FRIEND.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
General Electric	10	0	0	2
Indesit	0	0	0	2
Whiripool	0	0	0	0
Earlow Washerama	1	0	0	1
Easy	0	0	0	1
Gibson	3	0	0	0
National	0	0	3	0
Hotpoint	2	0	0	3
Murphy Richards	0	0	4	0
Hoover	0	0	0	13
Frigidaire	7	0	0	0
Fuchsware	4	0	0	1
Sunbeam	0	0	1	0
Bendix	0	0	0	1
Cataline	1	0	0	0
Liberator	0	0	0	1
Westpoint	1	0	0	1
Kempar	0	1	0	0
Phillips	0	1	0	0
DK	23	50	44	26
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE Q 30. (Continued)

ACTUAL BRAND OWNERSHIP OF APPLIANCE BY FAMILY.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
Westpoint	1	0	0	0
Phillips	0	1	1	0
Liberator	0	0	0	1
Frigidaire	12	0	0	0
Crossley	1	0	0	0
Hotpoint	4	0	0	2
RCA	2	0	0	0
Swan	0	0	1	0
Hoover	0	0	0	16
G.E.C.	6	0	1	2
Bendix	0	0	0	5
Gibson	1	0	0	0
Murphy Richards	0	1	12	0
Fuchsware	2	0	0	2
Russel Hobbs	0	1	0	0
Indecit	0	0	0	1
Kelvinator	6	0	0	0
National	0	0	3	0
Washerama	0	0	0	1
International	1	0	0	0
Thor	0	0	0	1
Norge	1	0	0	0
Philco	1	0	0	0
Defy	1	0	0	1
Westing House	1	0	0	0
Capital	0	0	1	0
Easy	0	0	0	2
Kenwood	0	1	0	0
Kenspark	0	0	1	0
Kempar	0	1	0	0
Speedqueen	0	0	0	1
Edbio	1	0	0	0
DK	11	47	32	17
N	52	52	52	52

TABLE Q 31.

BELIEF THAT CERTAIN APPLIANCES HAVE MORE STATUS THAN
OTHER APPLIANCES.

YES	NO	N
35	17	52

TABLE Q 32.

RANKING OF APPLIANCES IN TERMS OF STATUS.

	Refrigerator	Percolator	Toaster	Washing Machine
4 First	20	8	0	14
3 Second	6	8	3	25
2 Third	4	11	25	2
1 Fourth	12	15	14	1
	42	42	42	42

SCALE: 0.0 to 1.0

Mean

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.20$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.221$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.173$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.323$

Converted to Scale: 0.0 to 1.0

Mean

Refrigerator	$\bar{x} = 0.7$
Percolator	$\bar{x} = 0.552$
Toaster	$\bar{x} = 0.432$
Washing Machine	$\bar{x} = 0.807$

TABLE Q 33.

BELIEF THAT CERTAIN BRANDS OF APPLIANCES HAVE MORE STATUS THAN OTHER BRANDS.

YES	NO	N
39	13	52

TABLE Q 34.

RANKING OF APPLIANCE BRANDS IN TERMS OF STATUS.

	FIRST	SECOND	THIRD
G.E.C.	5	6	7
Indecit	0	1	0
Frigidaire	13	4	4
Fuchsware	3	6	3
Defy	1	1	2
Morphy Richards	2	3	2
Westinghouse	0	2	0
Keivinator	1	1	2
Bendix	5	2	1
Philco	1	1	0
Gurnsey (Canada)	0	1	0
Speedqueen	0	0	1
Hoover	2	5	6
Gibson	3	0	0
Westpoint	0	1	0
Whirlpool RCA	0	1	0
Hotpoint	2	0	0
English Electric	3	0	1
Easy	0	0	1
Electrolux	0	0	1
DK	11	17	21
N	52	52	52

TABLE Q 34a.

RANKING OF APPLIANCE BRANDS IN TERMS OF STATUS BY SCORING
3 FOR FIRST, 2 FOR SECOND, AND 1 FOR THIRD.

	SCORE	RANKING
Frigidaire	51	1
General Electric	34	2
Fuchsware	24	3
Hoover	22	4
Dendix	20	5
Morphy Richards	14	6
English Electric	10	7
Defy	7	8
Kelvinator	7	8
Gibson	6	10
Hotpoint	6	10
Philco	5	12
Westinghouse	4	13
Indesit	2	14
Gurnsey	2	14
Westpoint	2	14
Whirlpool	2	14
Easy	1	18
Electrolux	1	18
Speedqueen	1	18

APPENDIX B.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

DOCTORAL RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

INTRODUCTION: Good morning/afternoon/evening, my name is

I am from Market Research Africa, a company that specializes in doing surveys on various problems, subjects and products.

(SHOW IDENTITY CARD). At present we are doing a survey on people's attitudes toward appliances, and we would greatly appreciate your views on the subject. The survey is part of a University of Cape Town Research project and your views will be kept strictly confidential.

DETAILS OF CALL

Call No.	Date	Interviewer's Signature	No.	Time Started	Time Taken	People Present			Call back Reason
						Husband	Children	Others	
Call 1									
Call 2									
Call 3									

REASONS FOR NO INTERVIEW

CODE NUMBER

CHANGE OF ADDRESS

COMMENTS QUESTIONS:

COMMENTS INTERVIEW:

2.

1. Do you own any of the following appliances

Refrigerator	yes	no
Electric Coffee Percolator	yes	no
Toaster	yes	no
Washing machine	yes	no

2. Did you buy these appliances new, second hand or as a gift

Refrigerator	new	second hand	gift
Percolator	new	second hand	gift
Toaster	new	second hand	gift
Washing machine	new	second hand	gift

3. Approximately how long ago did you acquire your

Refrigerator	0-6 mo, 6-12 mo, 1-3 yrs, 3-6 yrs, 6 yrs +, D.K.
Percolator	0-6 mo, 6-12 mo, 1-3 yrs, 3-6 yrs, 6 yrs +, D.K.
Toaster	0-6 mo, 6-12 mo, 1-3 yrs, 3-6 yrs, 6 yrs +, D.K.
Washing machine	0-6 mo, 6-12 mo, 1-3 yrs, 3-6 yrs, 6 yrs +, D.K.

4. Approximately how much did you pay for your appliance including discounts and H.P.

Refrigerator	R.....	Gift	D.K.
Percolator	R.....	Gift	D.K.
Toaster	R.....	Gift	D.K.
Washing machine	R.....	Gift	D.K.

5. What make or brand is your

Refrigerator	D.K.
Percolator	D.K.
Toaster	D.K.
Washing machine	D.K.

Key: Specify if respondent does not know off hand what the brand is by the following designation: D.K.

Allow respondent to check physically on brand names if necessary.

6. Where did you buy your

- Refrigerator G, S, D, B, AS, DS, SH, W, F, DK, O
- Percolator G, S, D, B, AS, DS, SH, W, F, DK, O
- Toaster G, S, D, B, AS, DS, SH, W, F, DK, O
- Washing machine G, S, D, B, AS, DS, SH, W, F, DK, O

- Key: Gift G
- Supermarket S
- Bazaar e.g. O.K. Bazaar B
- Appliance Store AS
- Department Store DS
- Second hand SH
- Wholesale W
- Furniture Store F
- Don't remember DK
- Other - specify O

SHOW CARD

7. Where was the store at which you bought your appliance located

- Refrigerator G, C, W, CL, DK, O
- Percolator G, C, W, CL, DK, O
- Toaster G, C, W, CL, DK, O
- Washing machine G, C, W, CL, DK, O

- Key: Gift G
- City C
- Wynberg W
- Claremont CL
- Don't remember DK
- Other O

SHOW CARD

4.

8. Can you remember how many stores you went to, to compare appliances before you decided on the one you bought.

- Refrigerator 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8+, Gift, DK
- Percolator 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8+, Gift, DK
- Toaster 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8+, Gift, DK
- Washing machine 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8+, Gift, DK

9. Why did you buy the appliance at that particular store

- Refrigerator a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l
- Percolator a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l
- Toaster a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l
- Washing machine a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l

- Key:
- Low price a
 - Service of staff b
 - Dependable products c
 - Carried desired brand d
 - Advertising e
 - Friends recommendation f
 - Convenience near home g
 - Good credit facilities h
 - Always buy there i
 - Gift j
 - Store personnel are friends k
 - Other - specify l

SHOW CARD

10. How much time elapsed from the time you first got the idea to buy your present appliance to the actual purchase

- Refrigerator Gift, 1 mo, 2 mo, 3 mo, 4-8 mo, 8+ mo, DK
- Percolator Gift, 1 mo, 2 mo, 3 mo, 4-8 mo, 8+ mo, DK
- Toaster Gift, 1 mo, 2 mo, 3 mo, 4-8 mo, 8+ mo, DK
- Washing machine Gift, 1 mo, 2 mo, 3 mo, 4-8 mo, 8+ mo, DK

11. Who in the family actually decide on the purchase

Refrigerator	Husband.....	Wife.....	Husband/Wife.....	Gift.....
Percolator	Husband.....	Wife.....	Husband/Wife.....	Gift.....
Toaster	Husband.....	Wife.....	Husband/Wife.....	Gift.....
Washing machine	Husband.....	Wife.....	Husband/Wife.....	Gift.....

12. What do you enjoy most about going shopping

- Spending money
- Getting things
- Going with friends
- Improving your home
- Other - specify
-

13. What do you enjoy least about going shopping

- Spending money
- Not being able to afford what you want
- The time involved
- Other - specify
-

14. If you want to buy a dependable appliance at a reasonable price how would you go about doing this

- Refrigerator
-
- Percolator
-
- Toaster
-
- Washing machine
-

15. If you needed advice on what brand or type of appliance to buy which of the following people would you go to for advice

- Refrigerator a, b, c, d
- Percolator a, b, c, d
- Toaster a, b, c, d
- Washing machine a, b, c, d

- Key: Friend a
- Shop Salesman b
- Engineer c
- No-one d

16. Which of the following appliances do you think the following people own

	<u>Refrigerator</u>	<u>Percolator</u>	<u>Toaster</u>	<u>Washing machine</u>
White Doctor	_____	_____	_____	_____
Bantu Businessman	_____	_____	_____	_____
Coloured School Teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____
White Truck driver	_____	_____	_____	_____

Key: Don't know or no answer with DK
 Probably with a P

17. What brand of appliance do you think the following people own

	<u>Refrigerator</u>	<u>Percolator</u>	<u>Toaster</u>	<u>Washing machine</u>
White Doctor	_____	_____	_____	_____
Bantu Businessman	_____	_____	_____	_____
Coloured School Teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____
White Truck driver	_____	_____	_____	_____

Key: Don't know or no answer with a DK

18. If you were going to buy one of the following appliances this month, what kind of store would you go to

	<u>Refrigerator</u>	<u>Percolator</u>	<u>Toaster</u>	<u>Washing machine</u>
Supermarket	_____	_____	_____	_____
Discount Store	_____	_____	_____	_____
Bazaar	_____	_____	_____	_____
Appliance Store	_____	_____	_____	_____
Department Store	_____	_____	_____	_____
Second hand	_____	_____	_____	_____
Wholesale	_____	_____	_____	_____
Furniture Store	_____	_____	_____	_____
Other	_____	_____	_____	_____

SHOW CARD

19. What kind of work do the husbands of your two closest friends do (DETAILS)

Friend one

Friend two

20. What kind of work do the husbands of your two closest neighbours do. (DETAILS)

Neighbour one

Neighbour two

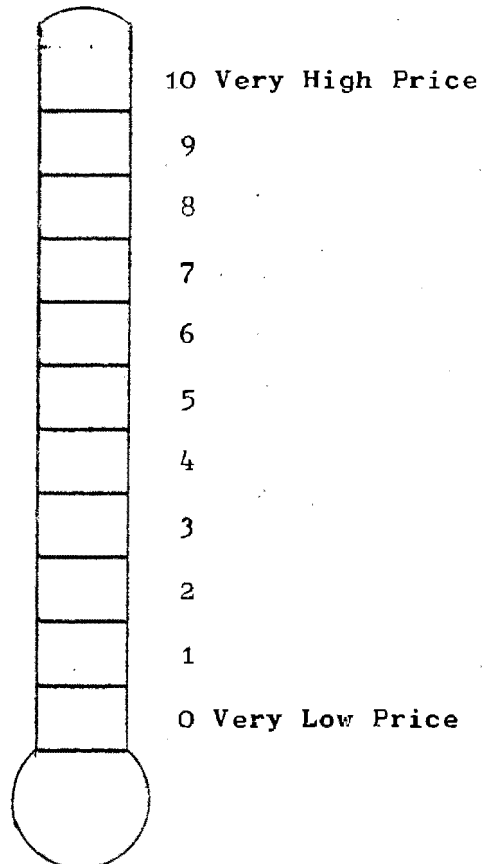
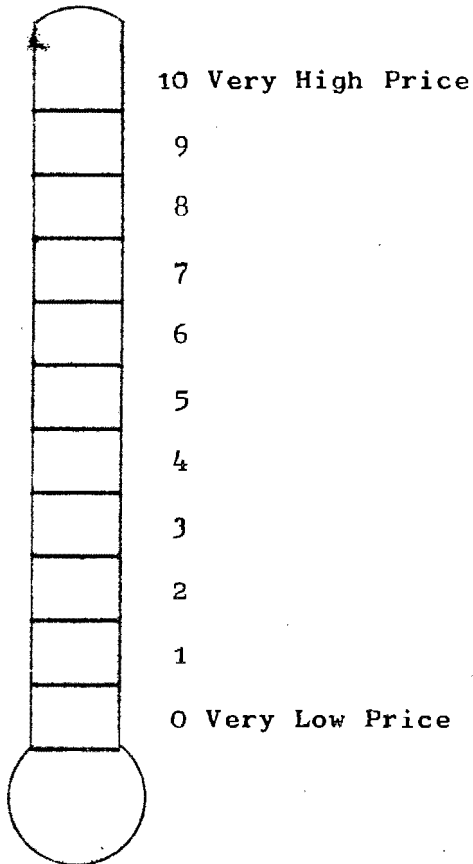
21. How many times a month do you entertain friends or family at your home

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9+

22. I would now like you to rate these four appliances in terms of how high you think their price is. Below is a thermometer in which 0 is a very low price and 10 a very high price. Compare on this thermometer the four appliances in terms of how you see their price. Refrigerator, Percolator, Toaster, Washing machine.

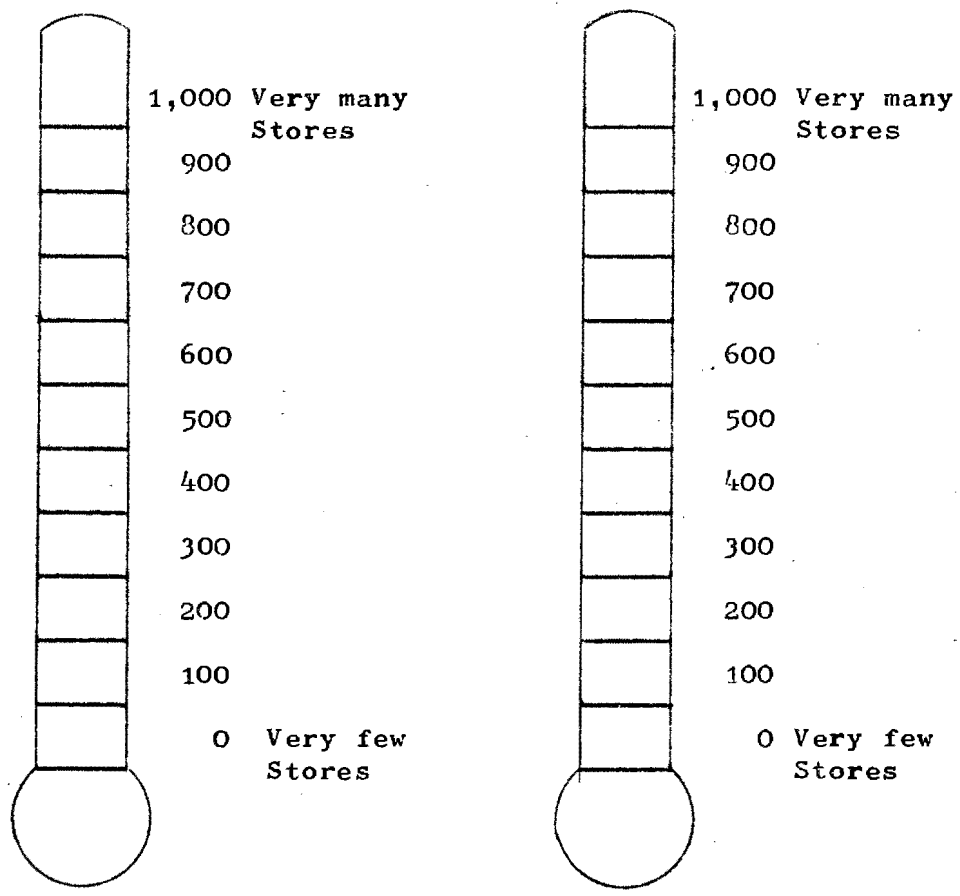
INTERVIEWER DEMONSTRATE by using a vacuum cleaner, polisher and hair drier.

EXAMPLE



23. I would now like you to compare the four appliances - Refrigerator, Percolator, Toaster, Washing machine in terms of how many stores you think carry them. Assume that there are a total of 1,000 stores in Cape Town altogether and then compare the appliances on the thermometer below in terms of how many stores you think carry them. INTERVIEWER DEMONSTRATE using vacuum cleaner, polisher and hair-drier.

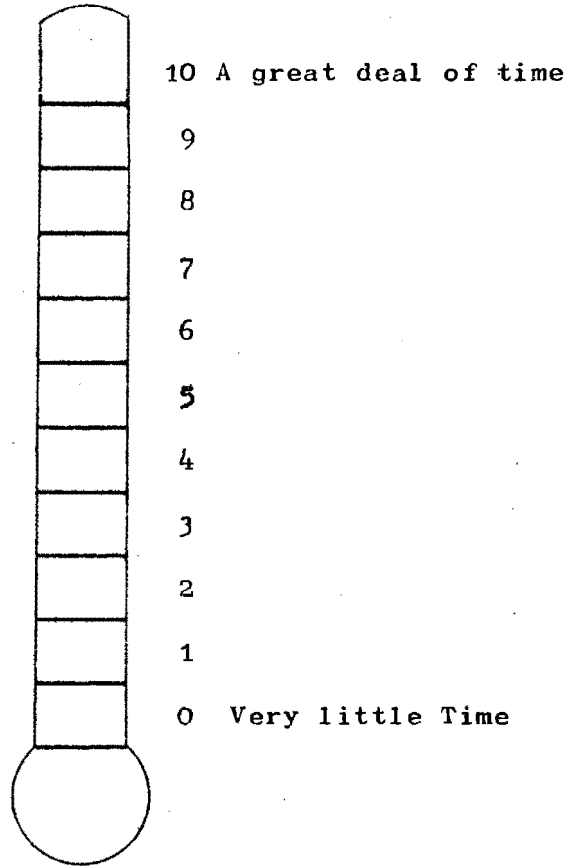
EXAMPLE



10.

CODE NO.

24. I would now like to know how much time you think you would spend shopping for the various appliances before you would actually buy them. Below is a thermometer in which 0 means very little time shopping and 10 means a great deal of time shopping.



CODE NO.

25. What brand names of the following products are you familiar with

- Refrigerator
- Percolator
- Toaster
- Washing machine

26. Do you think that there are significant differences between one brand of appliance and another brand of appliance

Refrigerator	yes	no	DK
Percolator	yes	no	DK
Toaster	yes	no	DK
Washing machine	yes	no	DK

27. Do you think that there are significant price differences between the various brands of

Refrigerator	yes	no	DK
Percolator	yes	no	DK
Toaster	yes	no	DK
Washing machine	yes	no	DK

28. Which of the following appliance does your closest neighbour, friend, family own

	<u>Neighbour</u>	<u>Friend</u>	<u>Family</u>
Refrigerator	DO, NO, DK	DO, NO, DK	DO, NO, DK
Percolator	DO, NO, DK	DO, NO, DK	DO, NO, DK
Toaster	DO, NO, DK	DO, NO, DK	DO, NO, DK
Washing machine	DO, NO, DK	DO, NO, DK	DO, NO, DK

Key: Does own DO
 Does not own NO
 Don't know DK

29. How often have you seen these appliances at your closest neighbour, friend, family's home

	<u>Neighbour</u>	<u>Friend</u>	<u>Family</u>
Refrigerator	N, O, F.	N, O, F.	N, O, F.
Percolator	N, O, F.	N, O, F.	N, O, F.
Toaster	N, O, F.	N, O, F.	N, O, F.
Washing machine	N, O, F.	N, O, F.	N, O, F.
Key: Never	N		
Occasionally	O		
Frequently	F		

30. What brand or make of the following appliance does your closest friend, neighbour, family own

	<u>Neighbour</u>	<u>Friend</u>	<u>Family</u>
Refrigerator	_____	_____	_____
Percolator	_____	_____	_____
Toaster	_____	_____	_____
Washing machine	_____	_____	_____

Key: Don't know - DK

31. Do you believe that certain appliances have more status than other appliances

yes

no

INTERVIEWER: DEMONSTRATE USING AUTOMOBILES

32. Rank the following appliances in terms of how you see their status

- Refrigerator
- Percolator
- Toaster
- Washing machine

INTERVIEWER: DEMONSTRATE USING ROLLS ROYCE, VOLKSWAGEN AND BUICK.

33. Do you believe that certain brands of appliances have more status than other brands

- yes
- no

34. Please list the names of the three brands of appliances that you believe have the most status

-
-
-

APPENDIX C.

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