THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL CULTURAL ORIENTATIONS AND CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING STYLES THROUGH CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

by

JI ISAACSON
88488315

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

DCom (Marketing Management)

in the

DEPARTMENT OF MARKETING MANAGEMENT

FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

Supervisor:
Prof. Y. Jordaan

Co-supervisor:
Dr. G. van Heerden

Declaration Regarding Plagiarism

The Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences emphasises integrity and ethical behaviour with regard to the preparation of all written assignments.

Although the lecturer will provide you with information regarding reference techniques, as well as ways to avoid plagiarism (see the "Guidelines on Referencing" document), you also have a responsibility to fulfil in this regard. Should you at any time feel unsure about the requirements, you must consult the lecturer concerned before submitting an assignment.

You are guilty of plagiarism when you extract information from a book, article, web page or any other information source without acknowledging the source and pretend that it is your own work. This does not only apply to cases where you quote the source directly, but also when you present someone else's work in a somewhat amended (paraphrased) format or when you use someone else's arguments or ideas without the necessary acknowledgement. You are also guilty of plagiarism if you copy and paste information <u>directly</u> from an electronic source (e.g., a web site, e-mail message, electronic journal article, or CD-ROM) without paraphrasing it or placing it in quotation marks, <u>even if you acknowledge the source</u>.

You are not allowed to submit another student's previous work as your own. You are furthermore not allowed to let anyone copy or use your work with the intention of presenting it as his/her own.

Students who are guilty of plagiarism will forfeit all credits for the work concerned. In addition, the matter will be referred to the Committee for Discipline (Students) for a ruling. Plagiarism is considered a serious violation of the University's regulations and may lead to your suspension from the University. The University's policy regarding plagiarism is available on the Internet at *http://www.library.up.ac.za/plagiarism/index.htm.* Also see the notes for Theme 2.

For the period that you are a student in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, the following declaration must accompany **all** written work that is submitted for evaluation. No written work will be accepted unless the declaration has been completed and is included in the particular assignment.

I (full names & surname):	**Jeffrey Ian Isaacson**
Student number:	**88488315**

Declare the following:
1. I understand what plagiarism entails and am aware of the University's policy in this regard.
2. I declare that this assignment is my own, original work. Where someone else's work was used (whether from a printed source, the Internet or any other source) due acknowledgement was given and reference was made according to departmental requirements.
3. I did not copy and paste any information <u>directly</u> from an electronic source (e.g., a web page, electronic journal article or CD ROM) into this document.
4. I did not make use of another student's previous work and submitted it as my own.
5. I did not allow and will not allow anyone to copy my work with the intention of presenting it as his/her own work.

Jeffrey Ian Isaacson   **6 July 2017**
Signature   Date

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my saviour, the Lord Jesus Christ, in whom all things are possible. My beautiful, loving wife, Chrizelda, and our precious daughter, Christen, who brings us great joy each day.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study has been an incredible and unforgettable journey. Not only in terms of learning but more especially, in terms of my own personal development. I am sincerely grateful to the following people without whom this journey would not have been possible:

- My wife, Chrizelda, for your loving and continual encouragement and support throughout the entire duration of this journey. For your incredible patience and for the many personal sacrifices you made in affording me the time and opportunity to successful complete this study. I will be forever grateful.

- My precious daughter, Christen, for your smile, your laughter and for the great joy you bring to our lives.

- My supervisor, Professor Yolanda Jordaan, and co-supervisor, Professor Gené van Heerden, for your commitment to seeing this study through to its successful completion. For your guidance, for your patience and for your willingness to offer up your time when needed. I look forward to investing in other students as you have invested in me.

- Staff of the Department of Marketing Management for your friendliness and continued encouragement.

- Dr Jacques Nel of the University of the Free State's Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences for your guidance and assistance with the statistical analysis.

I am also forever grateful to my Lord and Saviour for everything comes from Him. All glory to Him forever!

SUMMARY

Every individual is a consumer who purchases goods and services on a regular basis. Indeed, from a very young age, individuals are involved in consumer behaviour as an integral part of their everyday lives. From searching for, purchasing and consuming, through to evaluating and disposing of goods and services, consumer behaviour affects nearly every aspect of an individual's life.

Globalisation has brought about a renewed interest in the influence of culture on consumer behaviour. Culture is viewed as the collective programming of the hands, heart and mind which distinguishes individuals or groups of individuals from each other and encompasses not only beliefs, attitudes and skills but, most importantly, a system of values. It affects all aspects of human existence within societies. Its influence is particularly apparent when considering the effect of national culture on decision-making. The influence is, however, not just limited to the national level but extends to the individual level as well. A knowledge gap currently exists in terms of understanding the relationship between individual-level culture and decision-making.

Besides culture, consumer involvement also influences consumer behaviour. Considered to have a causal effect with a number of related consequences on the purchase and communication behaviours of individuals, it influences the extent or complexity of decision-making processes. However, despite the growing importance of consumer involvement as a construct that explains consumer behaviour, a further knowledge gap exists in that the relationship between individual-level culture and decision-making through consumer involvement has not been thoroughly researched.

The conceptual framework adopted for the purpose of this study is based on the Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model described by Flynn and Goldsmith (1993). This model includes involvement as its central component, along with two sets of related variables, namely antecedents and consequences. In terms of this research, antecedents relates to two dimensions of national culture, namely Uncertainty Avoidance – concerns the extent to which individuals feel threatened by, and try to avoid, uncertainty – and Masculinity/Femininity – relates to the affect of biological differences on

the emotional and social roles of individuals. These national culture antecedents were reconceptualised at the individual-level as Risk Aversion – concerns the reluctance of individuals to assume risk – and Ambiguity Intolerance – relates to the extent to which individuals are able to tolerate uncertainty – and as Masculinity – concerns the dominance of masculine values – and Gender Equality – relates to the extent to which the genders are perceived as being equal, respectively. Further, involvement distinguishes between different types of Consumer Involvement, both cognitive, namely Risk Involvement – concerns product risk and the relative importance or probability of this risk – and Normative Involvement – relates to the importance of a product to an individual's values – and affective, namely Situational Involvement – concerns the purchase or use of a product in a particular situation – and Enduring Involvement – relates to the importance of a product to an individual's values across all and not just specific situations. Finally, the consequences measured in this study relate to two styles of consumer decision-making associated with choosing brands, namely Brand Loyalty – an orientation towards consistently choosing the same brands – and Brand Consciousness – an orientation towards buying expensive, well-known brands.

A descriptive research design was employed, consistent with the postpositivism research paradigm and deductive research adopted for the purpose of this study. The survey method entailed using online self-administered questionnaires to collect primary data. The target population encompassed adults, 21 years and older, who spoke English as either a first or second language, who resided in South Africa, and who were responsible for purchasing their own clothing. The sampling frame was an online panel which leveraged third-party applications and websites to target respondents. A final sample of 814 respondents was obtained. In addition to the analysis of descriptive data, the results of the survey research were analysed using partial least squares structural equation modelling.

It is evident from the findings of the study that firstly, Consumer Involvement does not fulfil a role in the relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance, measured at the individual-level by Risk Aversion and Ambiguity Intolerance, and Brand Loyalty and Brand Consciousness. Indeed, the findings indicate that there is only a direct relationship between Risk Aversion and Brand Loyalty. Marketers should, therefore, with regard to their messaging, emphasise the mitigation of risk in terms of those product attributes that are important to risk averse consumers.

Secondly, Consumer Involvement does fulfil a role in the relationship between Masculinity/Femininity measured at the individual-level by Masculinity and Brand Loyalty and Brand Consciousness but not in the relationship between Gender Equality and the two styles of consumer decision-making. Indeed, with regard to Gender Equality, the direct effect between the construct and Brand Consciousness is greater than the indirect effect though Consumer Involvement. In terms of targeting consumers displaying either a Masculinity or Gender Equality cultural orientation marketers are encouraged to tailor their communications to not only take into account the level of involvement but also the different types of involvement. Therefore, when targeting consumers with a masculine cultural orientation, the promotional message should convey expressions of assertiveness and ambition, for example, while for consumers with a gender equality orientation, the message should appeal to rights and responsibilities depending on the product.

In conclusion, in addressing the overall purpose of the research, the relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity and Brand Loyalty and Brand Consciousness through Consumer Involvement was either not statistically or practically significant, or in instances where it was, it was not significantly larger than the direct effect.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL CULTURAL ORIENTATIONS AND CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING STYLES THROUGH CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

1   CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCTION

The increased pace of globalisation is driven by the movement of goods, services and financial capital as well as the growing importance of export-oriented industrialisation (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2011:181; Gereffi, Humphrey, Kaplinsky & Sturgeon, 2001:1; Sharma, 2010:788). Even though globalisation continues to quicken, it has not eroded local differences between countries (Mowforth & Munt, 1998:12). In fact, it is surmised that globalisation has rather become the reason behind the renewal of local cultural identities across the world. Indeed, global homogenous markets do not exist because individuals are unique and do not behave as a consistent group of consumers (de Mooij, 2004:5&9).

This chapter provides an overview of the research study. It begins by describing the background to the study before presenting the problem statement. It then states the overarching research objective. This is followed by a brief outline of the conceptual framework underpinning the study followed by a description of the research design and methodology. Next, the chapter briefly describes the scope and delimitations of the study before providing definitions of key terms. The chapter concludes by outlining the plan of the study.

1.2   BACKGROUND

Each and every individual is unique. Yet, despite their many differences, a common characteristic is shared by them all. Every individual is a consumer who purchases goods and services on a regular basis (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:23). Indeed, from a very young age, individuals are involved in consumer behaviour as an integral part of their everyday lives whether they shop at a retail store or stop by a quick-service restaurant (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel, 2006:3-4). From searching for, purchasing, and consuming though to

evaluating and disposing of goods and services, consumer behaviour is important in influencing almost every aspect of an individual's life (Blackwell *et al.,* 2006:4-5; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:23).

Consumer behaviour is a relatively new and rather eclectic field of marketing study which began to develop in the mid- to late-1960s. Because it did not have much of its own body of research, marketing theorists have, over time, gradually adopted and incorporated concepts developed in other scientific disciplines (Jones, Shaw & McLean, 2009:47; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:36). Initially, the study of consumer behaviour was based on economic theory, with the earliest models of consumer behaviour being developed by economists (Du Plessis, 1990:17; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:600; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:36). Later, as the field of study of consumer behaviour continued to evolve, newer concepts borrowed from the discipline of behavioural sciences, particularly from the sub-disciplines of psychology and sociology, were introduced to explain consumer behaviour and what influenced it (Du Plessis, 1990:19; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605). These later models were quite different from the traditional models in that they began to focus on the decision-making process and on the mental activity that consumers engage in before, during, and after the purchase decision (Du Plessis, 1990:19; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605). In addition, these models highlighted that the consumer decision-making process is affected by many different factors and determinants, both internal and external to the consumer (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:86). In this regard, the examination of decision-making in the context of this study is essential as two of the key constructs, namely culture and involvement are determinants affecting this decision-making process. Further, while decision-making is considered to be a cognitive process comprising a series of stages consumers typically proceed through when making a decision, consumers often resort to specific decision-making styles when having to make a decision. As such, decision-making styles is the third key construct of this study.

In terms of the determinants affecting consumer behaviour, one of these is culture (Karami, Olfati & Dubinsky, 2017:[5]). Indeed, culture is considered to constitute the broadest and most pervasive influence on the many dimensions of human behaviour (Soares, Farhangmehr & Shoham, 2007:277), more especially, consumer behaviour (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007:27). Culture is viewed as the collective programming of the

hands, heart and mind which distinguishes individuals or groups of individuals from each other and encompasses not only beliefs, attitudes and skills but, most importantly, a system of values (Hofstede, 2001:9-10). Culture also affects all aspects of human existence within societies (Soares *et al.*, 2007:277). Culture is, however, not confined to the national level. Indeed, cultural values are held by individuals and are an integrated part of the individual consumer (de Mooij, 2011:35; Sharma, 2010:788). Defined as "… an individual's [cultural] values …" Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) are found across cultures (Yoo & Donthu, 2005:10). Centred on a system of societal values affected by norms and standards shared by the majority of the population, PCO are the result of personal learning which occurs through the interaction between an individual and the social environment (Yoo in Zhang, Zheng, Jiang & Zhang, 2013:444).

The influence of culture on consumer behaviour is particularly apparent when considering the affect of national culture on Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS). While CDMS are considered to be relatively consistent patterns of cognitive and affective responses (Leng & Bothelo, 2010:261), the impact of national culture on individual attitudes and values is significant (Leo, Bennett & Härtel, 2005:32). In extending the research undertaken by Leo *et al.* (2005), other researchers (Correia, Kozak & Ferradeira, 2011; Leng & Botelho, 2010; Podrug, 2011) also came to the same conclusion, namely that cultural values influence consumer decisions and CDMS. The impact of culture on CDMS, however, is not just limited to the national level. Indeed, research conducted by Zhang *et al.* (2013) at the individual level determined that consumers with different self-construals[1] adopted different decision-making styles.

Another determinant that is considered to be central in affecting consumer behaviour and, therefore, is integral to decision-making, is Consumer Involvement (CI) (Broderick, 2007:344). In referring to extant literature, Mittal and Lee (1989:363) have stated that CI has become increasingly important as a construct which explained consumer behaviour. This importance has also been highlighted in later research such as the work undertaken by Broderick and Mueller (1999:97), O'Cass (2000:546) and Bienstock and Stafford (2006:210).

---

[1] Self-construal is defined by Markus and Kitayama (in Zhang *et al.*, 2013:444) as "… one's conception of oneself or one's self-image".

CI is defined as "… a motivational variable reflecting the extent of personal relevance of the decision to an individual in terms of basic goals, values and self-concept …" (Gabbott & Hogg, 1999:160). As such, it is considered to have a causal effect with a number of related consequences on the purchase and communication behaviours of consumers, influencing the extent or complexity of decision processes (Gabbott & Hogg, 1999:159; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:42). It is, however, not only the decision-processes which are influenced by CI but, as with culture, CDMS as well.

1.3   RESEARCH PROBLEM

While decision-making is considered to be culturally contingent, affecting each step of the decision-making process (Podrug, 2011:39), the relationship between culture and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) has mainly been measured at the national level. When one attempts to assess individual-level behaviour using a national-level construct it can be misleading, resulting in what has been labelled as an "ecological fallacy" (Bond, 2002:75; de Mooij, 2011:36; Sharma, 2010:788; Venaik & Brewer, 2013:469). This brings to the fore the first research gap by highlighting the need to measure cultural values on an individual level, instead of on a national level. This need has already been identified by Podrug (2011:44) when he stated: "Future research needs to measure cultural values at the individual level and try to assess connections between individual cultural values and decision-making styles". For this purpose, Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) was used to investigate the affect of individual level culture on consumer behaviour. The lack of research in considering individual level culture is a problem because: a) PCO as an individual measure can be especially meaningful since it considers shared cultural values and norms, as well as personal beliefs based on unique individual experiences; and b) the level of complexity and extent of heterogeneous sub-cultures present in a national cultural values measurement does not provide the appropriate connections between individual cultural values and decision-making styles (Yoo in Zhang *et al.*, 2013:444).

A further knowledge gap exists in that not a single study, conducted either internationally or in South Africa, could be found which specifically researched the relationship between PCO and CDMS through Consumer Involvement (CI). This is significant as CDMS are

governed by a consumer's involvement (Bauer *et al.*, 2006:351-352; Gupta & Jackson, 2010:32). CI is thus considered to be an enduring intervening construct which has an important influence on the style of decision-making exhibited by a consumer (Bauer *et al.*, 2006:350 & 352). This brings to the fore the importance of investigating these relationships and served as a further impetus for this study.

Addressing the afore-mentioned research problems will be of practical and theoretical importance. Practically, it will provide marketers with insight into the influence of PCO on CDMS, enabling them to predict consumer decision-making behaviour and to tailor their marketing and communication strategies accordingly. Theoretically, filling the research gaps will extend current research on the relationship between culture and CDMS by focusing on individual cultural values and their relationship with CDMS. Also, uncovering the relationship between PCO and CDMS, directly and indirectly, through CI will contribute to the antecedents and consequences of CI, more specifically the affect of PCO on CI and CI on CDMS. In terms of this study, the use of the term "through" is considered to be an indirect effect encompassing sequences of relationships containing at least one intervening construct which, in this instance, is CI.

1.4   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Flowing from the research problem, the general focus research question that forms the basis for the formulation of related primary- and secondary research objectives is: "What is the nature of the relationship between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) through Consumer Involvement (CI)?". In answering this research question, the overarching research objective is to determine the relationship between PCO and CDMS through CI. In this regard, two primary research objectives have been formulated:

- Primary research objective 1 (PO1): determine the relationship between PCO and CDMS
- Primary research objective 2 (PO2): determine the relationship between PCO, CI and CDMS

The secondary research objectives related to each of these primary research objectives are listed in Chapter 6: Section 6.4.1.

1.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework employed for the purpose of this study is shown in Figure 1.1 and is based on the Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model described by Flynn and Goldsmith (1993). This model was selected as it draws on earlier conceptualisations of the Consumer Involvement (CI) construct developed by Houston and Rothschild (1978), Bloch and Richins (1983) and Laurent and Kapferer (1985) and, in particular, the model developed by Mittal and Lee (1989) which distinguishes between forms of CI and its sources and effects. As such, the A-I-C model includes involvement as its central component, along with two sets of related variables, namely Antecedents, considered to be motivating factors, and Consequences, regarded as being behavioural outcomes, resulting from involvement.

Since the A-I-C model allowed the researcher to investigate the overarching research objective focusing on CI whilst allowing for two other related variables (Antecedents and Consequences) to be included as well, made this the ideal basis for the planned study. Furthermore, the A-I-C model's ability to distinguish between different forms of CI within the model also supported the appropriateness of the model as a basis for the study.

Figure 1.1   Conceptual framework

- 6 -
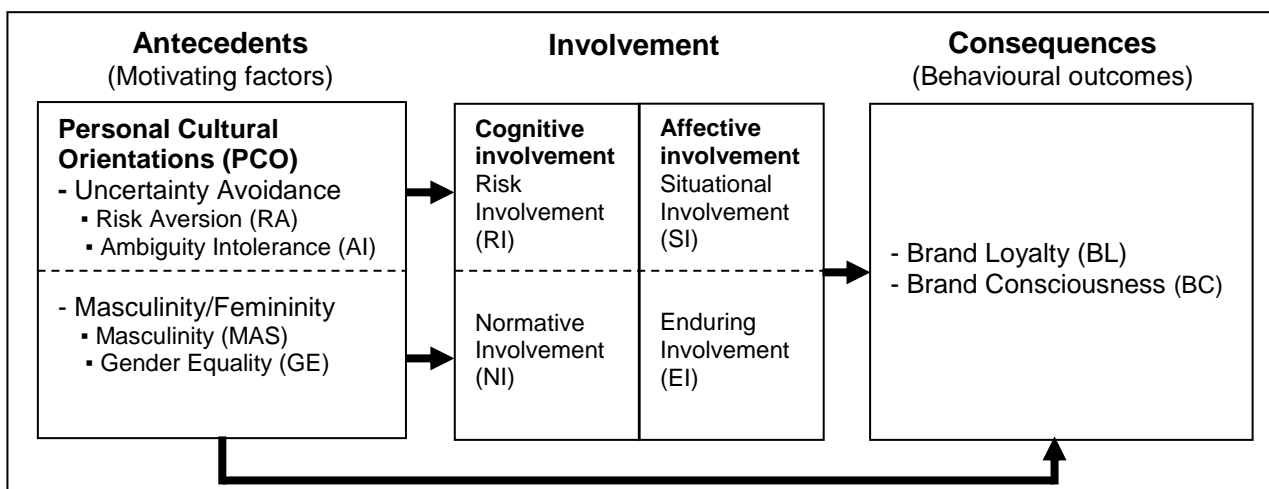
i.   In terms of this study and the A-I-C model, the "A" in the conceptual framework (Antecedents) relates to two dimensions of national culture, namely Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity. In terms of measuring individual-level Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and in order to avoid the ecological fallacy, the two dimensions of national culture are measured by means of Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) together with Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE). The "I" in the proposed A-I-C framework (Involvement) distinguishes between two types of cognitive involvement, namely Risk Involvement (RI) and Normative Involvement (NI). These, in turn, affect two types of felt involvement which are Situational Involvement (SI) and Enduring Involvement (EI). Finally, the "C" in the A-I-C framework (Consequences) relates to two styles of consumer decision-making associated with choosing brands, namely Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC). The decision to select these two styles was based on firstly, practical considerations. Secondly, brand focus in that both these CDMS were focussed on brand. Thirdly, concern regarding respondent fatigue and fourthly, the findings from previous studies in which the inclusion of brand-related constructs together with either culture- or involvement-related constructs led to positive results.

1.6   RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research design and methodology adopted for the purpose of this study is discussed briefly below with a more detailed discussion in Chapter 7.

Research design is a masterplan, guiding the process of collecting and analysing data. A category of research design known as descriptive research was selected as the framework for the study. This type of research design is intended to describe some or other research phenomena. It is ideally suited to describing the relationships between marketing variables although it must be done circumspectly as descriptive research is not appropriate in determining the cause-and-effect between these variables.

The chosen research strategy was that of survey research, which is commonly employed in consumer behaviour research. A single quantitative data collection technique, namely

self-administered questionnaires, was used in conjunction with a single quantitative data analysis technique, namely partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM).

Non-probability sampling was selected for this study, not only for reasons of cost and convenience, but because the technique is firstly, sufficient for the purpose of achieving the stated research objectives and secondly, online panel samples cannot be considered probability samples. The particular non-probability sampling technique used in the study was quota sampling. This technique was used in order to firstly, improve the representativeness of the sample and secondly, ensure that it contained the same distribution of characteristics as the target population, namely adults, 21 years and older, who spoke English as either a first or second language, who resided in South Africa, and who were responsible for purchasing their own clothing.

The sampling frame used in this research study was an online panel compiled by Dalia Research GmbH, a research house based in Germany, which leverages third-party applications and websites to target respondents. A final sample of 814 respondents, 404 (49.6%) male and 410 (50.4%) female, was obtained.

1.7   CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

This study is intended to investigate the role of involvement in consumer behaviour using the Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model as the basis of a theoretical framework formulated to address the research question and objectives of the study. Within this context, the focus is on understanding the relationships between the relevant constructs as explored in previous research studies, such as those undertaken by Bauer *et al.* (2006), Gupta and Jackson (2010), Podrug (2011) and Zhang, Zheng, Jiang and Zhang (2013). Because the focus of the study was on the relationships of CI with the other constructs, and not the level of CI, the study did not put its focus on specific product categories or types of products, or even the South African clothing industry. For this reason, specific brands of clothing were not selected such as, for example, Levi, Pringle or Burberry, but rather branded clothing as a general category. This decision was based on two main reasons: firstly, branded clothing as a general category are readily available to consumers and buying clothes make up part of their daily lives. Secondly, clothing as a

general category is relevant to both male and female consumers as represented in the sample drawn for the study.

For the purpose of this study, branded clothing was seen as garments or items of clothing that display a label and/or logo identifying a particular designer, manufacturer or retailer. Respondents were made aware that branded clothing excluded accessories such as shoes, jewellery and sunglasses.

1.8   SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The scope of the study encompasses the investigation of the role of involvement in consumer behaviour using the Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model as its conceptual basis. The model is an integration of earlier frameworks developed to research involvement together with two sets of related variables, namely Antecedents, which relate to the sources of involvement, and Consequences, which relate to the outcomes of involvement. The model has been applied to reflect the purpose of the study, as shown in Figure 1.1.

1.9   DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The scope of the study is explained by several limitations, each of which will be described briefly below.

- *Antecedents of involvement* – there are a number of different factors affecting involvement including product, situational and communications factors. In terms of this study, the focus is on personal factors related to an individual's cultural values.
- *Involvement* – is a multidimensional construct, conceptualised and measured in a multitude of different ways. In terms of this study, Broderick's (2007) nomological network of consumer involvement, differentiating between cognitive and subsequent affective involvement states, was applied.
- *Consequences of involvement* – involvement influences the purchase behaviours of consumers. However, it is not only the decision-making process that is affected but decision-making styles as well. In terms of this study, the focus was on Sproles and Kendall's (1986) two decision-making orientations related to the choosing of brands.

1.10 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS): According to Sproles and Kendall (1986:268) a consumer decision-making style is defined as: "…a mental orientation characterising a consumer's approach to making choices".

Consumer Decision Process (CDP): This process relates to the seven stages a consumer will typically move through when making decisions, as shown in Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3: Section 3.2.

Consumer Involvement (CI): As a general definition, consumer involvement is defined as: "… a motivational variable reflecting the extent of personal relevance of the decision to an individual in terms of basic goals, values and self-concept" (Gabbott & Hogg, 1999:160).

Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO): According to Sharma (2010:792), personal cultural orientations consist of: "… shared cultural values and norms, as well as personal beliefs based on unique individual experiences …".

Table 1.1 below lists the key abbreviations used in this document.

Table 1.1   List of key abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning
CDMS:	Consumer Decision-making Styles
CDP	Consumer Decision Process
CI	Consumer Involvement
PCO	Personal Cultural Orientations

1.11 PLAN OF THE STUDY

The study is structured into nine chapters outlined below.

Chapter 1 is the introductory chapter, providing an overview of the study.

Chapter 2 focuses on consumer behaviour and on the evolutionary development of consumer behaviour models, describing a number of traditional and contemporary models, particularly the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model which forms the basis of Chapters 3, 4 and 5.

Chapter 3 describes the consumer decision-making process and its associated stages. The chapter also discusses the first of the key constructs related to this study, namely Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS).

Chapter 4 discusses the second of the key constructs related to this study, namely Consumer Involvement (CI). In addition to exploring it origins, antecedent factors and different types, the chapter also describes the assortment of approaches to conceptualising CI, including the Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model. Finally, the chapter focuses on the means of measurement of the involvement construct, discussing two of the most widely-used involvement measures as well as the measure used for this study, the International Consumer Involvement (ICI) scale.

Chapter 5 provides a brief overview of the environmental influences and individual differences affecting the consumer decision-making process. It also defines and discusses the components and means of measurement of the final key construct related to this study, namely Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO).

The next four chapters address the research process adopted for the purpose of this study.

Chapter 6 defines the research problem and determines the associated primary and secondary research objectives. Next, the chapter draws on the relevant theory and

literature to describe the conceptual framework and the formulation of the research hypotheses.

Chapter 7 discusses the research paradigm and approach which guided the study. Next it outlines the research design encompassing the inquiry strategy, inquiry methods and time horizon, as well as the research methodology, including the data collection, sampling and data analysis employed in undertaking this research. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion concerning the research ethics which guided this study.

Chapter 8 describes the analysis and interpretation of the research data. In addition to providing an assessment of the descriptive data, it also provides assessments of the measurement and structural models associated with the partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) method, the primary analysis technique used in this study.

Finally, **Chapter 9** provides a summary of the research findings, its academic and managerial contribution as well as its limitations, before concluding with suggestions for future research.

1.12 SUMMARY

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to this research study. It first described the background to the research as well as the problem and purpose statements. Next, it listed the overarching primary objective of the study. The chapter then provided a brief outline of the conceptual framework underpinning the study, as well as a description of the research design and methodology. This was followed by a brief description of the assumptions and delimitations of the study. Some key terms were then defined, followed by an outline of the plan of study.

The next chapter provides a perspective on consumer behaviour, extending beyond the purchase decision to focus on the entire decision-making process which consumers engage in before, before, during, and after purchase.

2   CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN PERSPECTIVE

2.1   INTRODUCTION

"The consumer is king" is an expression which is commonly used in business today. It is a reflection of the immense power consumers exert in the marketplace. As such, it is a business imperative for companies to truly understand consumers and their behaviours for it is only by "pleasing the king" that they will improve their profits and prosper (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:7-8).

Understanding consumer behaviour is particularly important in the context of this study as all three of the key constructs, namely Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO), Consumer Involvement (CI) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) are related to this field of marketing study with each either affecting or guiding the consumer-decision-making process. In this regard, the chapter begins by defining the concept. It extends beyond buyer behaviour to also encompass the thoughts, feelings and actions of consumers as part of the consumption process as well as the environment which influences this process. Next, the chapter describes the evolution in the growing importance of consumers and of consumer behaviour. Thereafter, the chapter charts the development of consumer behaviour models from an evolutionary perspective, describing a number of widely quoted traditional and contemporary models. It concludes with a comprehensive discussion of the revised Engel, Blackwell and Miniard model, known as the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model, which forms the basis of the literature review conducted in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 describing the variables affecting the consumer decision-making process.

2.2   DEFINING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Traditionally, consumer behaviour was defined as the study of buyer behaviour or the "why and how people buy". While this definition was considered to be accurate, it was also considered to be inadequate because it did not fully describe all of the activities consumers would typically engage in prior to purchasing, as well as during and after consumption. As such, the contemporary definition of consumer behaviour is much

broader and has been extended to include the analysis of consumption, or the "why and how people use products" (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:4; Kardes, Cline & Cronley, 2011:8).

Examples of contemporary definitions include those of Blackwell *et al.* (2006:4): "… activities people undertake when obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services"; Solomon (2007:7): "… the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires"; Schiffman and Kanuk (2010:23): "… the behaviour that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs"; and Kardes *et al.* (2011:8): "… all consumer activities associated with the purchase, use, and disposal of goods and services, including the consumer's emotional, mental, and behavioural responses that precede, determine, or follow these activities".

It is, however, the *American Marketing Association's* definition which appears to provide the most comprehensive definition of consumer behaviour. According to this organisation, consumer behaviour is: "… the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behaviour, and the environment by which human beings conduct the exchange aspect of their lives" (American Marketing Association, *s.a.*). From this definition it is apparent, as highlighted by Peter and Olsen (2010:5-10), that consumer behaviour:

- *is dynamic* – due to the constant changes in the thoughts, feelings and actions of consumers, whether they be individuals, groups or society at large, and their environments;
- *involves interactions* – in addition to the constant changes in the thoughts, feelings and actions of consumers and their environments, there are also ongoing interactions between consumers and their environments; and
- *involves exchanges* – the interactions between consumers and their environments eventually lead to exchanges whereby consumers offer up something of value, usually money, in order to receive something of value in return, either products or services.

As the definition of consumer behaviour continues to evolve, so too does its importance along with the growing importance of the consumer within the supply chain as described in the next section.

2.3   THE EVOLUTION OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Henry Ford, who introduced the world's first affordable car in the early 1900s, the Model T, is credited with saying that "consumers can have a car in any colour they want, as long as it is black" (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:70). Who determines the final selection of what consumers buy has, however, changed over time as consumers have forced the evolution of supply chains into demand chains (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:14).

A supply chain is defined simply as all of the organisations, from wholesalers and manufacturers to retailers and facilitating organisations such as advertising agencies and banking institutions, which are involved in taking a product from manufacture to market. In the past, these organisations together determined what consumers were able to buy. However, as market forces have continued to evolve, there has been a steady increase in the influence of consumers on the supply chain as illustrated in Figure 2.1 (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:14&17).

Initially, the consumer had little influence on the supply chain. During the late 1500s to 1700s in Europe and between 1750 and 1850 in the United States, the focus and therefore the power within the supply chain lay with the wholesaler. It was these distributors that determined what was available for consumers to purchase (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:14).

With the onset of the Industrial Revolution[2] in England in the latter half of the 1700s the focus, and therefore the control, within the supply chain began to shift towards the manufacturer (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:15). Extending until the late 1920s, the focus during this period shifted to production and on improving manufacturing capabilities. With demand exceeding supply there was little, if any, emphasis on product variation with consumers

---

[2] The Industrial Revolution refers to a period of economic development between 1760 and 1840 characterised by a change from an agrarian-based economy to one dominated by industry and manufacturing (Encyclopaedia Britannica, s.a.).

generally satisfied with the generic forms of products. A manufacturing orientation towards conducting marketing activities dominated this period (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:17-18; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:26).

Figure 2.1   The shift in power within the supply chain

	Low	Power of consumers		High

	Wholesaler →	Manufacturer →	Retailer →	→ Consumer
United States	1750 – 1850	1850 – WWII	1970 – 2000	2000+
Europe	1560 – 1760	1760 – WWII	1970 – 2000	2000+
		Manufacturing orientation	Selling orientation	Marketing orientation	Consumer orientation/ Societal orientation
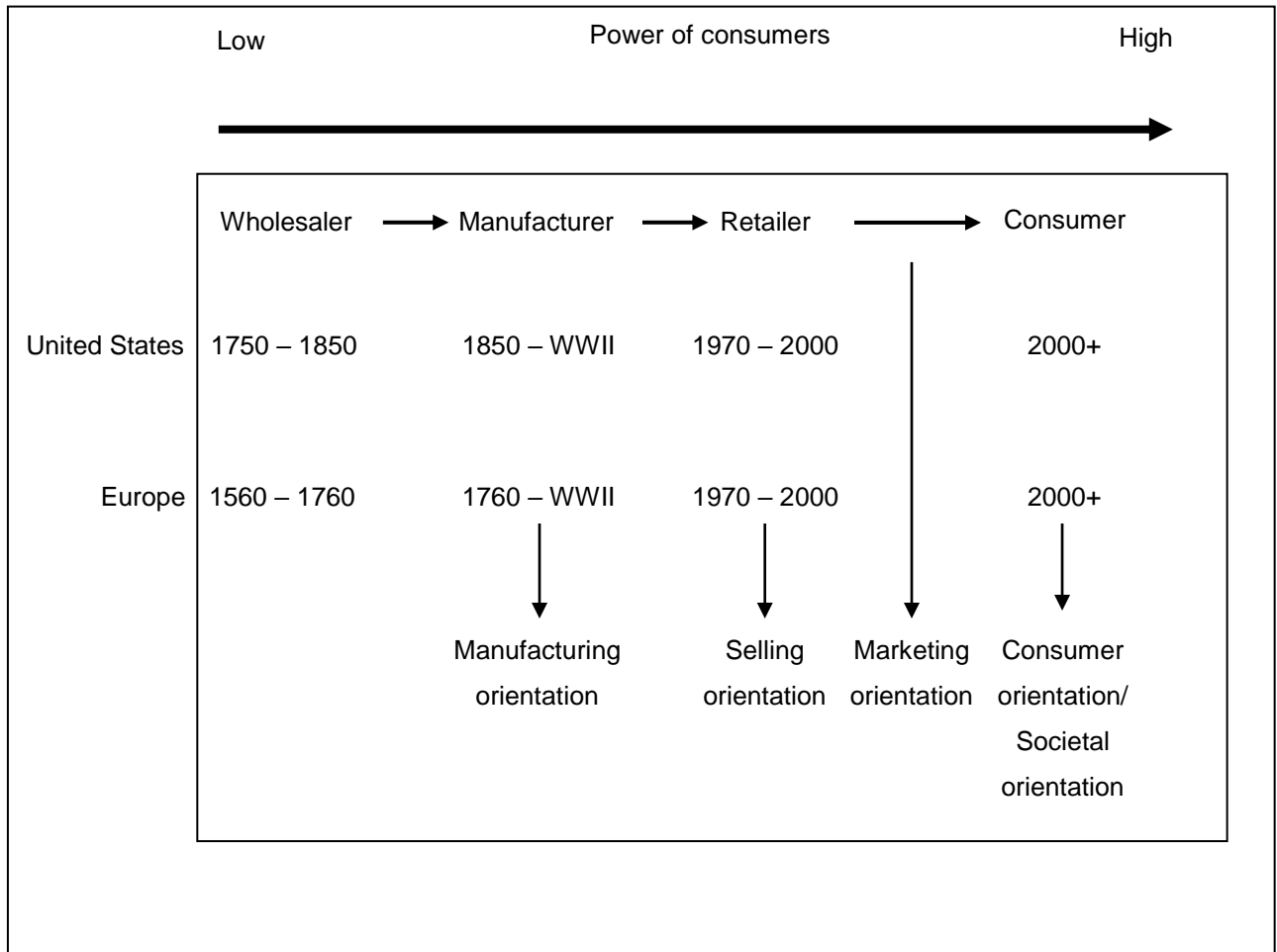
Source: Adapted from Blackwell *et al.* (2006:15).

The end of World War II saw another shift in the focus and power within the supply chain with retailers now assuming the dominant position. This period was characterised by an oversupply of products with production consistently exceeding demand. As such, and apart from their size, with so-called mega-retailers being larger than many manufacturers, the dominance of retailers was based on their closeness to the consumer, providing as they did the link between production and consumption. A selling orientation dominated marketing activities during this period with the focus on advertising and sales (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:15&18; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:26).

Although dominant for a period, the selling orientation gradually began to give way to a new orientation which was instead focused on consumers and on satisfying their individual needs. Central to what became recognised as a marketing orientation was the marketing concept (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:18-20; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:26). Considered to be a "core philosophy" of marketing (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:26), the key assumption underlying the marketing concept was that in order for a company to be successful, it must be more effective than the competition in creating, delivering and communicating value to its customers (Kotler, 2000:19; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:26).

The beginning of the new millennium brought about yet another shift in the focus and power within the supply chain. Due to, amongst other things, increased competition and a slow-down in population growth, the consumer has become the focus and the basis of the supply chain. As such, this period is characterised by a consumer orientation whereby manufacturing and retailing, for example, are all structured around the needs of consumers (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:15&20). This period has also been characterised by the emergence of a societal orientation which has been described by Drumwright (in Handelman & Arnould, 1999:33) as the intertwining of a marketing orientation which is economic with one that is non-economic and which has a predominant social orientation. In this regard, the marketing focus is on the long-term well-being of consumers and society Kotler, 2000:25 and, as such, encompasses corporate social responsibility programmes, cause-related marketing activities and the inclusion of environmental concerns in management decision-making (Shultz & Holbrook in Ward & Lewandowska, 2005:676).

It is evident from the preceding discussion that consumer behaviour has continued to evolve and, as it has done so, the influence of consumers on the supply chain has grown. Indeed, such is the power of consumers today that the supply chain has now evolved into a customer-centric demand chain. As such, an understanding of consumer behaviour – the why and how consumers buy and consume; the influences that affect consumer decisions; and how consumer decisions are made – is more vital than ever (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:15; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:23).

2.4 MODELS OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

2.4.1 <u>The value of models in studying consumer behaviour</u>

A model, according to Engel and Blackwell (1982:22), is "… a replica of the phenomenon it is intended to designate". As such, models are useful in highlighting the underlying variables, the relationships between these, and the manner in which these variables exert their influence on behaviour. Similarly, Schiffman, Kanuk and Hansen (2012:65), describe models as providing "… a general view or perspective as to how [and why] individuals behave as they do".

Although models can never be regarded as being complete, always being influenced by new research, they do, nevertheless, provide advantages in studying consumer behaviour (Engel & Blackwell, 1982:22-23), as listed below:

i. *Provide a reference framework* – models provide a basic structure and method that enable research findings to be consolidated into an integrated whole. Models provide for the identification of any gaps in knowledge (Du Plessis, 1990:18; Engel & Blackwell, 1982:23).

ii. *Plays a key role in the development of theory* – the development of new models forms the basis for extending knowledge, often leading to the development of new ideas (Du Plessis, 1990:18; Engel & Blackwell, 1982:23; Mellott, 1983:20).

iii. *Facilitate the understanding of the interrelationships between variables* – models facilitate the collation of existing knowledge or learning and enable its representation according to a logical structure (Du Plessis, 1990:18; Mellott, 1983:20).

iv. *Provide explanations for behaviour* – models enable the prediction of consumer behaviour under different circumstances (Engel & Blackwell, 1982:23).

v. *Enables the integration of research findings into a meaningful whole* – models provide the basis for assessing and assimilating new research findings from beyond just the field of behavioural sciences (Engel & Blackwell, 1982:23).

2.4.2 Traditional models of consumer behaviour

Initially, the study of consumer behaviour relied on concepts derived from other academic disciplines. As such, economics was one of the first disciplines to address consumer behaviour, with the earliest consumer models being developed by economists who sought to gain a better understanding of the influence of consumers on economic systems. In this regard, two alternative models of consumer behaviour were developed based on the major disciplines within economics, namely the microeconomic- and macroeconomic models. (Du Plessis, 1990:17; Du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999:5; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:600).

2.4.2.1 *Microeconomic model of consumer behaviour*

Developed in the early nineteenth century, the discipline of microeconomics is based on an understanding of the nature of the so-called 'average' consumer based on a number of assumptions and how large numbers of such consumers influenced the workings of the economy. The focus of microeconomists was solely on the 'act of purchase' with the emphasis on explaining *what* would be purchased and in *what quantities*. Also, *why* consumers developed particular preferences and *how* these were ranked were assumed to already be known (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:600).

Given the assumption concerning consumer preferences and a number of other assumptions concerning consumer behaviour, including that consumers, given a limited budget, would seek to maximise their satisfaction; consumer preferences are not influenced by others; and that consumers know exactly how much satisfaction they can derive from a product, microeconomists contended that consumers were perfectly rational and would only purchase those products that provided them with the highest level of satisfaction when compared to cost. As such, consumers would constantly strive to attain a situation where the expression below would hold true for (n) number of products where MU = Marginal Utility and P = Price (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:601):

$$\frac{MU_1}{P_1} = \frac{MU_2}{P_2} = \frac{MU_3}{P_3} = \ldots = \frac{MU_n}{P_n}$$

Although this model has proven to be useful in providing an understanding of consumer behaviour, it does suffer from at least three major deficiencies according to Berkman and Gilson (1986:21) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:601), namely:

i.   Unrealistic assumptions.

ii. A narrow focus on the act of purchase.

iii. Difficult to measure.

As such, while useful, it cannot be considered a comprehensive explanation of consumer behaviour, even though it continues to influence contemporary thinking in this regard (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:602).

2.4.2.2   *Macroeconomic model of consumer behaviour*

The discipline of macroeconomics is based on an understanding of aggregate flows of goods and other resources in the economy in terms of where these flows are directed, and how these flows change over time. Based on this understanding, macroeconomists sought to anticipate the behaviour of consumers who influenced these aggregate flows (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:602).

Importantly, although this discipline did not develop a unified model of consumer behaviour, it did, however, generate of number of interesting insights into possible influences on consumption patterns. According to Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:602) these insights included:

i.   The development of the *relative-income hypothesis* which proposes that the influence of consumers' peers and social groups rather than absolute income levels, explain consumption.

ii. The development of the *permanent-income hypothesis* which explains why sudden increases or decreases in consumers' income do not immediately lead to similar increases or decreases in consumption.

While the above-mentioned insights and economic theory in general are useful in explaining consumption patterns, they assume a rational, utilitarian consumer and largely fail to account for psychological factors related to a consumer's learning, attitudes and

motivation, to mention but a few. As such, their usefulness was limited in understanding consumer behaviour (Berkman & Gilson, 1986:24; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:602).

2.4.3 <u>Behavioural economics model of consumer behaviour</u>

Behavioural economics, an approach espoused by George Katona, sought to address the apparent shortcomings of economic models discussed in the previous section by incorporating an appreciation of the effect of psychological factors on economic behaviour (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:603).

Therefore, while economic conditions such as interest rates, household income and levels of unemployment were believed to influence consumer behaviour, these conditions were not thought to influence behaviour directly, as indicated in Figure 2.2 below. Instead, these conditions were thought to be modified by psychological factors which in turn influenced consumer sentiment. Consumer behaviour was, therefore, influenced by the outcome of a consumer's levels of confidence about current and future economic conditions rather than these conditions *per se* (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:603).

Figure 2.2   The behavioural economics model of consumer behaviour
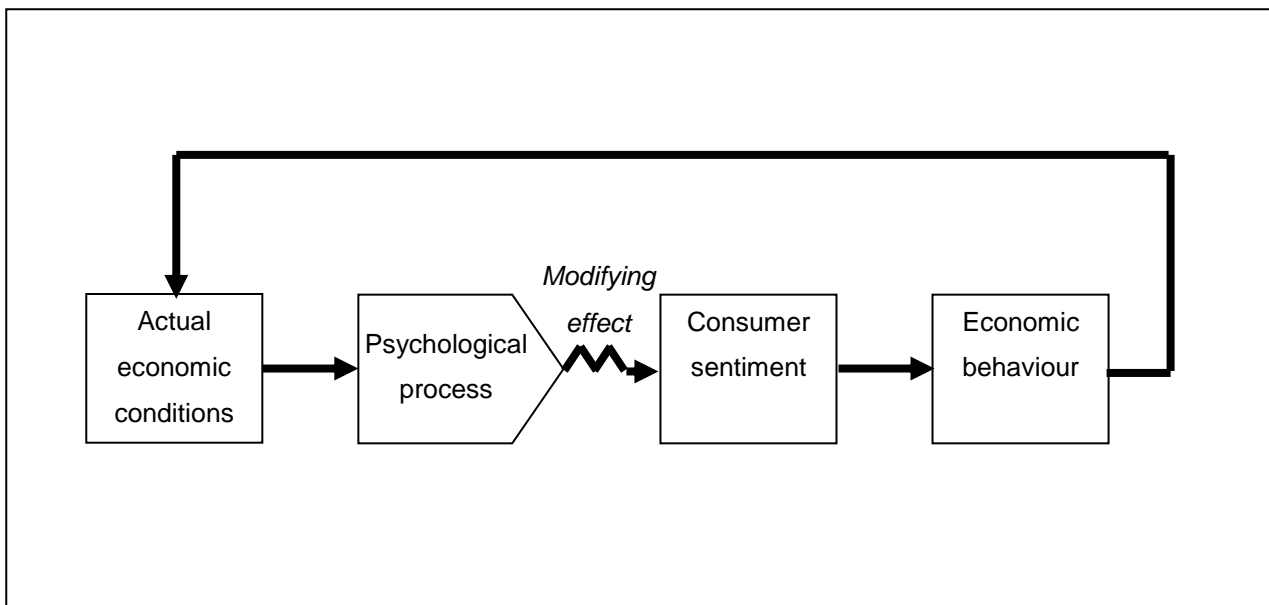
<u>Source:</u>   Adapted from Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:603).

2.4.4 Contemporary models of consumer behaviour

While the behavioural economics approach did contribute to an improved understanding of consumer behaviour in a given economic system, its explanation of the mental processes involved in the decision-process was lacking (Berkman & Gilson, 1986:24; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605).

As the study of consumer behaviour continued to evolve, newer concepts borrowed from the discipline of behavioural sciences, particularly from the sub-disciplines of psychology and sociology, were introduced to explain consumer behaviour and what influenced it (Du Plessis, 1990:19; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605). The contemporary models which began to evolve were somewhat different from the traditional, economic models highlighted in the previous sections. These models began to focus on the decision process and on the mental activity which consumers engage in before, during, and after the purchase decision (Du Plessis, 1990:19; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605).

While Mellott (1983:20) only identified three contemporary models of consumer behaviour, authors such as Du Plessis (1990:19) and Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:605) have identified a large number of models, each varying according to different factors such as their level of sophistication and scope. It would, therefore, be more precise to state that rather than there being just three contemporary models, there are three models which are far more widely quoted than any of the others. These models are the Nicosia model; the Howard-Sheth model; and the Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model. Each of these models is discussed in more detail below.

2.4.4.1 *Nicosia model of consumer behaviour (1966)*

Francesco Nicosia is considered to be one of the pioneers within the discipline of consumer behaviour. His research stands out as one of the first attempts to review and collate all of the existing literature related to consumer behaviour. His research also stands out because it focused on the far more complex ongoing decision process that consumers engage in rather than just the act of purchase itself. Nicosia considered the purchase

action to be but one of the major components or fields of the decision process (Du Plessis, 1990:19; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605).

Similar to the steps in a computer programme, the Nicosa consumer behaviour model is represented as a sequence of successive steps in a flow-chart format, as illustrated in Figure 2.3. It emphasises the decision process while attempting to describe a circular flow of influences between an organisation's decision-making process and the consumer reactions to the organisation (Du Plessis, 1990:19; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605; Mellott, 1983:22-23).

The model is generally divided into four major components or fields, each of which is described below. Its starting point is the introduction of a new product by the organisation into the marketplace (Du Plessis, 1990:19-21; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605-606; Mellott, 1983:22-23):

- *Field One* – this field focuses on the development of an attitude, which if favourable, serves as the input into the next step in the decision process. The field is divided into two subfields:
  i. *Subfield One* – encompasses the organisation's attempts at communicating with prospective consumers with the attributes of the promotional messages serving as the input into Subfield Two.
  ii. *Sub-field Two* – these attributes, together with the psychological attributes of a particular consumer such as, for example, their motives at the time the promotional messages were received, combine to develop an attitude.
- *Field Two* – given a positive attitude, the consumer is likely to engage in both internal and external search activity, eventually leading to an evaluation of both the product and possible product alternatives.
- *Field Three* – a positive attitude and favourable evaluation of the product will, in all likelihood, motivate the consumer to act and to proceed towards a purchase of the product.

Figure 2.3 **Nicosia model of consumer behaviour**

Field One: From the source of a message to the consumer's attitude

Subfield One

Firm's attributes

Message exposure

Subfield Two

Consumer's attributes (especially predispositions)

Attitude

Search evaluation

Field Two:

Search for, and evaluation of, means-to-an-end relation(s) (pre-action field)

Motivation

Experience

Field Four:

The feedback

Consumption

Storage

Decision (action)

Field Three:

The act of purchase

Purchasing behaviour

Source: Adapted from Nicosia (in Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:606).

- *Field Four* – following the purchase of the product, there is a feedback flow which encompasses the use or consumption of the product by the consumer, the flow of purchase information to the organisation, and the possible influence of the consumption experience on the future buying process.

While Nicosia's model is considered to be pioneering in how it influenced the understanding of consumer behaviour, it did suffer from some shortcomings that resulted in only limited acceptance, a few of which are listed below (Du Plessis, 1990:21; Longart, Wickens & Bakir. 2016:176; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605-606; Mellott, 1983:24):

i.   A somewhat restrictive format.
ii. The assumption that the consumer begins the decision process without any positive or negative attachment towards an organisation.
iii. The inability to explain buying decision-making of a repetitive nature.
iv. The definition of consumer activities associated with buying decision-making in vague terms.

2.4.4.2   *Howard-Sheth model of consumer behaviour (1973)*

One of the limitations of the Nicosia Model, as stated previously, was its inability to explain routinised decision-making. This limitation is addressed in the Howard-Sheth model which, for the first time, explicitly recognised that there were different types of consumer decision-making and different types of behaviours associated with searching for information (Loudon & Della Bitta; 1993:609-610).

The theoretical basis for the Howard-Sheth model, illustrated in Figure 2.4, is to be found in stimulus-response learning theory, which attempts to explain how decision-making is influenced by stimuli and how repeated decision-making results in increased knowledge and experience. As such, the model depicts how the requirement for information, coupled with learning and past experience, influences the brand choice behaviour of buyers. The model identifies three levels or stages of decision-making (Du Plessis, 1990:21-22; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:607; Mellott, 1983:20):

i.   *Extensive problem solving* – this represents the early stage of decision-making when the buyer is assumed to have little information about specific products or brands and

has also not developed a set of choice criteria for evaluating these. This level is characterised by extensive information gathering although this is usually not very detailed.

ii. *Limited problem solving* – this represents a later stage of decision-making when the set of choice criteria has been well defined although the buyer has not yet developed a preference for a particular brand. This level is characterised by information gathering that is far more specific and, as such, far more limited.

iii. *Routinised response behaviour* – this represents a final stage in decision-making characterised by well-defined choice criteria and a strong predisposition towards a particular brand. This level is characterised by little, if any, search for information. Instead, the purchase of a particular brand, assuming of course its continued use is satisfactory, is largely routine.

These three levels of decision-making occur within the four major constructs or variables of the model described briefly below (Du Plessis, 1990:23; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:607&609; Mellott, 1983:20-21):

i. Inputs – these are the three stimuli that exist within the buyer's environment:

    a. *Significance stimuli* – these are the actual characteristics of the physical product or brand itself that are objectively observable.

    b. *Symbolic stimuli* – these are the characteristics or the physical product or brand but represented in symbolic form, either verbally or visually, through advertising, for example.

    c. *Social stimuli* – these are inputs emanating from within the social environment comprising a buyer's family members and reference groups, to mention a few.

ii. *Outputs* – these are the variety of observable responses that a buyer would typically display in response to the stimulus inputs as described above and mediated by the internal state variables. The process of responding begins with attention being paid to a stimulus and then ends with a purchase decision being made.

iii. *Learning constructs* – these constructs are concerned with the buyer's formation of concepts and encompass the objectives, information on brand alternatives, choice criteria, satisfaction, confidence in the particular brand, and purchasing intentions.

Figure 2.4   Howard-Sheth model of consumer behaviour

Solid lines indicate flow of information; dashed lines indicate feedback effects.
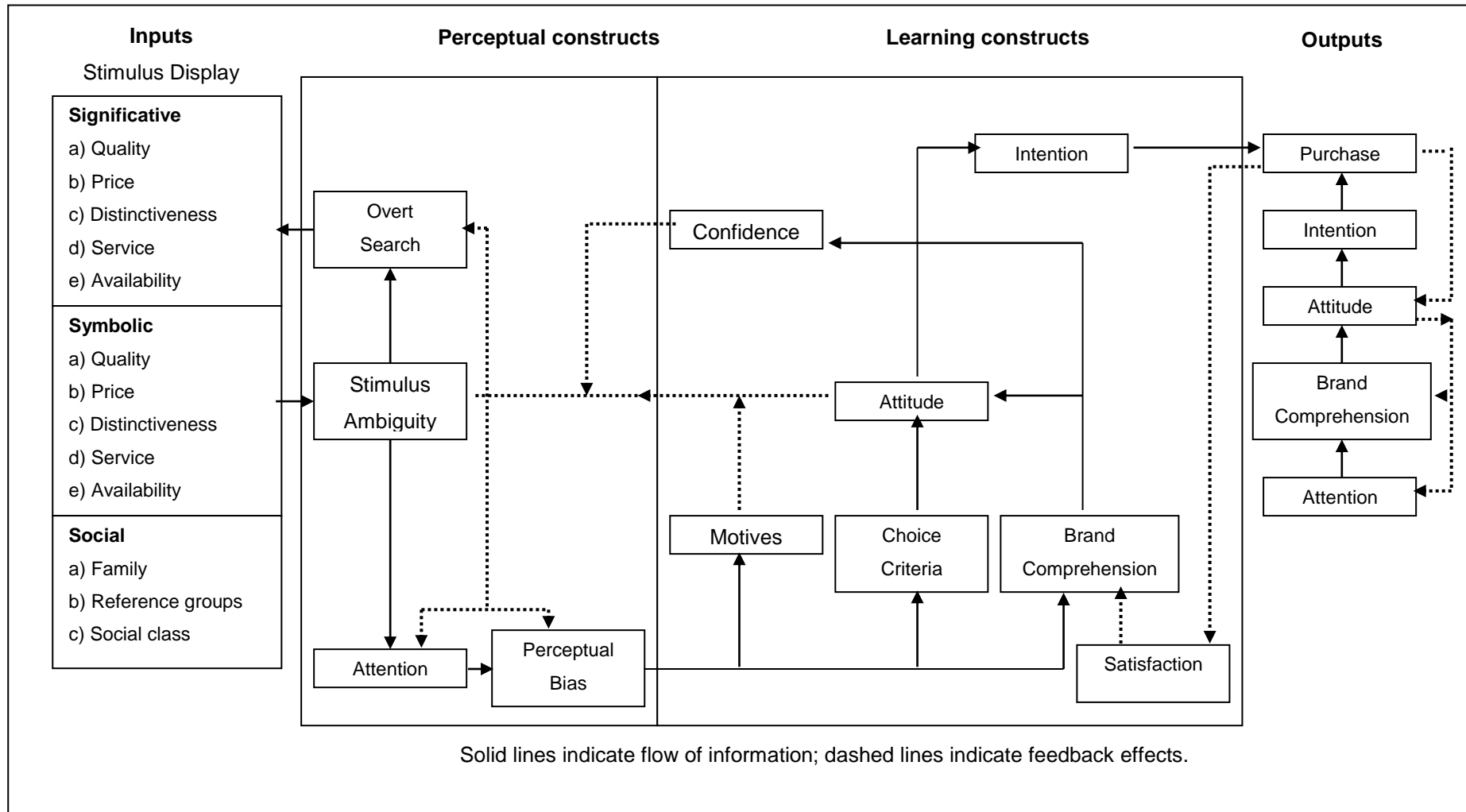
Source: Adapted from Howard and Sheth (in Du Plessis, 1990:22).

iv. *Perceptual constructs* – contained within the heart of the model, between the inputs and outputs, are the so-called internal-state or psychological variables that come into effect when a buyer attempts to make a decision. These variables are represented by two major groups of hypothetical constructs, namely perceptual and learning constructs. The perceptual constructs are concerned with how a buyer receives and processes information and encompasses the overt search for information, stimulus ambiguity, attention, and perceptual bias.

While the Howard-Sheth model is considered by Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:607) to provide an integrative framework for what they consider to be "… a very sophisticated comprehensive theory of buyer behaviour", it does suffer from several limitations. These shortcomings have been highlighted as being (Du Plessis, 1990:24; Longart, Wickens & Bakir. 2016:176; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:610; Mellott, 1983:22):

i. *Lack of generality* – the model is not useful when explaining joint decision-making or when choosing between two alternative actions.

ii. *Too complex* – the model is considered to be too complicated to be of any practical value.

iii. *Poorly defined variables* – variables are, in some instances, not clearly defined and, as a result, difficult to measure.

2.4.4.3   *Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model of consumer behaviour (1968)*

The original version of the Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model was first published in 1968 and subsequently revised by the same authors in 1973 and 1978 (Du Plessis, 1990:25). The basis of this model is consumer decision-making and as such it describes five stages associated with the decision process as shown in Figure 2.5 (Mellott, 1983:24 & 26):

- *Stage 1: Problem recognition* – this first stage in the decision process is triggered by stimuli received via a consumer's so-called 'active memory'. These stimuli may originate from various sources, from the mass media through to a consumer's own individual motives. Importantly, regardless of the stimuli received, activation will only occur should a large enough difference exist between a consumer's actual and ideal states.

Figure 2.5   Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model of consumer behaviour

| Information input | Information processing | Decision-process stages | Product brand evaluations | General motivating influences | Internalised environmental influences |
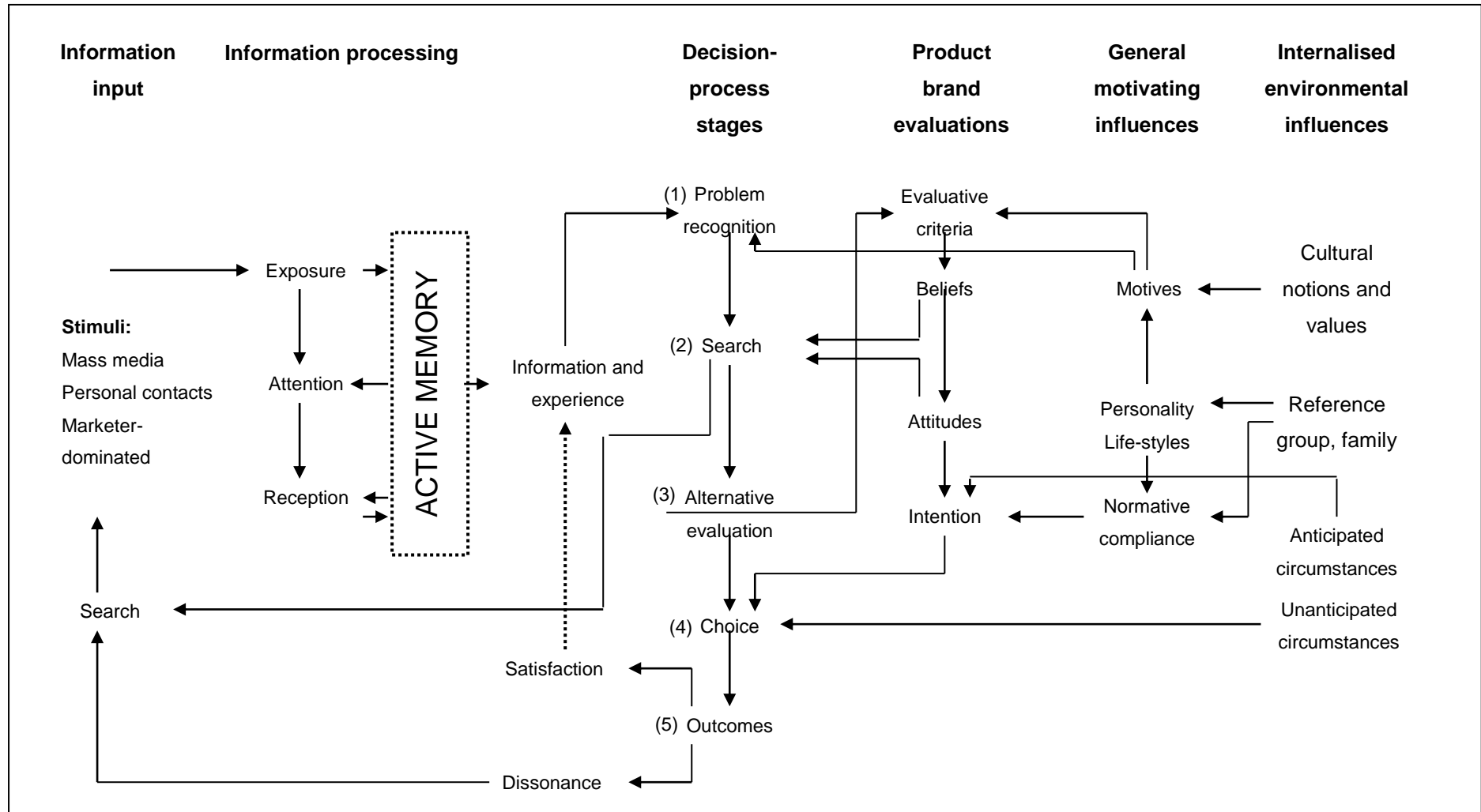
Source: Adapted from Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (in Mellott, 1983:25).

- *Stage 2: Information search* – this stage begins once the consumer has identified a particular problem or need. The information sought may come from an internal source, such as a consumer's own beliefs and attitudes, or it may come from an external source such as the mass media. Significantly, the flow of information forms a loop and as it continuously flows through the active memory, the consumer continues to organise it until it becomes meaningful.
- *Stage 3: Alternative evaluation* – this stage entails the evaluation among different alternatives in order to arrive at a purchase decision. As such, this stage requires an evaluation of the different alternatives according to particular evaluative criteria and an evaluation of the consumer's own beliefs, attitudes and purchase intention.
- *Stages 4: Choice* – this penultimate stage in the decision process involves the eventual selection of both the product and retail store.
- *Stage 5: Outcome* – this final stage can have one or two outcomes, namely satisfaction if the consumer perceives the outcome of the decision process to be positive or dissonance if the consumer doubts the choice of alternative he/she made.

While this model's major contribution to the study of consumer behaviour has been its inclusion of the many variables influencing the decision process, its over emphasis on the search and evaluation stages is considered to be its major limitation (Mellott, 1983:26).

The model was subsequently revised again in 1986, being contributed to by Miniard in conjunction with Engel and Blackwell (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:610). The revised model was structurally identical to the previous Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model with each having the decision process as their focal point. There was, however, one significant difference between the original model and the revised model namely, that the revised Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model distinguishes between both high- and low-involvement behaviour (Du Plessis, 1990:25).

Figure 2.6   **Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model of consumer behaviour**
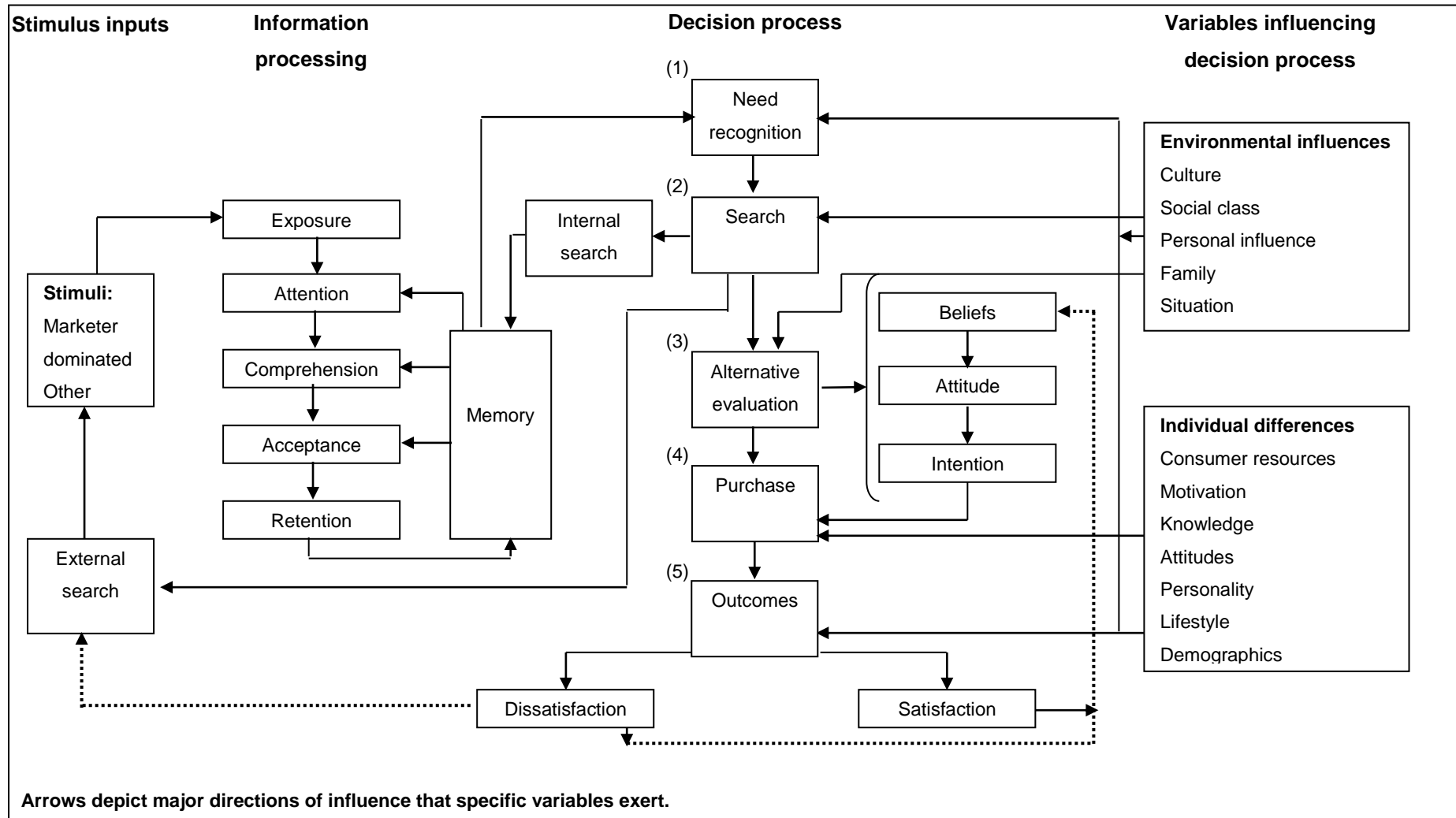
Source: Adapted from Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (in Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:611)

This high- and low-involvement behaviour relates to two "… distinct modes of operation …" adopted by consumers with the first described as extended problem-solving behaviour and the second as limited problem-solving behaviour. The former is associated with high levels or involvement and/or perceived risk, while the latter is associated with low levels of both. Engel, Blackwell and Miniard are of the opinion that the same basic model can be used to depict both extended and limited problem-solving behaviour given that, according to these authors, it is only the degree to which consumers will use the different stages in the decision process that will differ (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:610).

Considering extended problem-solving behaviour, in describing the functioning of the model and the influence exerted by particular variables on the decision process, reference will be made to a more recent version of the Blackwell-Miniard-Engel model, namely the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:70). In terms of this version of the model, the Outcomes stage has been divided into two separate stages, namely the Consumption stage and the Post-consumption stage while a third stage, the Divestment stage, has also been added to the model as illustrated in Figure 2.7.

In terms of:

- *Stage 1: Need recognition* – the decision process is started when a need develops, brought about by a discrepancy between a consumer's ideal or preferred state and their present or actual state. This need is influenced by information stored in the consumer's own memory, environmental influences such as the consumer's family or culture, and the consumer's individual characteristics such as their personality, lifestyle and values (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:71; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:610). It is the consumer's values, together with culture, which underlie the Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) construct, as defined for the purpose of this study in Chapter 5: Section 5.3.1.

- *Stage 2: Search* – this next stage in the decision process will commence with an internal search, retrieving knowledge from the consumer's own memory. If, however, the consumer feels uncomfortable with their existing knowledge of the alternative brands and of their ability to choose among them, an external information search will be activated (Blackwell *et al.,* 2006:74; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:610-611). Affecting the extent of the research activities and the sources employed, amongst

various other individual factors, is the consumer's PCO and the extent of their Consumer Involvement (CI). Also important, are their particular Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS).

- *Stage 3: Alternative evaluation* – this third stage in the decision process entails comparing information obtained about alternative brands identified during the previous stage with the consumer's own evaluation criteria. The end result of this stage is a change in beliefs concerning the evaluated brands which, in turn, may lead to changes in attitudes and finally, changes in intentions to purchase (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:79-81; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:611-612). As with the previous stage, the pre-purchase evaluation of products and services is affected by various internal differences including a consumer's PCO, the extent of their involvement and their particular CDMS.

- *Stage 4: Purchase* – intentions to purchase will result in purchase behaviour, the fourth stage in the decision process, unless a situation such as, for example, insufficient money either postpones or ends the process (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:81-82; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:612).

- *Stage 5: Consumption* – in the earlier Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model, this stage was referred to as the Outcomes stage and was considered the final stage of the decision process. In the more recent CDP model, this stage is only concerned with consumption, as illustrated in Figure 2.7. In this regard, consumption of the product may either take place immediately or be delayed (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:82).

- *Stage 6: Post-consumption evaluation* – this is the stage in which consumers experience either satisfaction or dissatisfaction following the consumption of a product (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:83). The outcome of this evaluation may lead to the search for further information concerning the product or even a change in beliefs concerning its suitability but, regardless of the outcome, the decision process is considered to be one continuous loop (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1993:612).

- *Stage 7: Divestment* – this, the final stage in the decision process and not included in the earlier Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model, entails the disposal of a product, whether it be, for example, through recycling or reselling (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:84-85).

Figure 2.7   Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model of consumer behaviour

Stimulus inputs

Information processing

Decision process

Variables influencing decision process

(1) Need recognition

(2) Search

Internal search

Environmental influences
Culture
Social class
Personal influence
Family
Situation

Exposure

Attention

Comprehension

Acceptance

Retention

Stimuli:
Marketer dominated
Other

Memory

(3) Alternative evaluation

Beliefs

Attitude

Intention

Individual differences
Consumer resources
Motivation
Knowledge
Attitudes
Personality
Lifestyle
Demographics

(4) Purchase

(5) Consumption

External search

Previously the Outcomes stage – *Refer to Figure 2.6*

(6) Post-consumption evaluation

Dissatisfaction

(7) Divestment

Satisfaction

Arrows depict major directions of influence that specific variables exert.

Source: Adapted from Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006:85).

- 34 -

Overall, the functioning of the model is similar for limited problem-solving behaviour although, due to the lack of involvement on behalf of the consumer, the number of stages in the decision process that the consumer proceeds through may be less than those listed above or, alternatively, the duration of these stages may be shortened (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:612). While there are many advantages associated with the CDP model including, for example, its inclusion of different levels of consumer involvement in the decision process it does have one primary drawback, namely that the influence of particular variables such as environmental variables, are not clearly specified and rather vague (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:212).

While economic theory did indeed contribute to an improved understanding of consumer behaviour it largely failed to account for the influence of psychological factors on decision-making. Contemporary models sought to address this failure. In this regard, the Nicosia model introduced a far more complex decision-making process which commenced with the forming of positive consumer attitudes towards a particular product, influenced by an organisation's promotional messaging and the consumer's psychological attributes. A later model introduced by Howard and Sheth extended the complexity of the decision-making process, explicitly recognising that decision-making is influenced by different types of stimuli and how repeated decisions lead to increased knowledge and experience associated with a particular product or brand. The subsequent models developed by Engel-Kollat-Blackwell, Engel-Blackwell-Miniard and culminating in one of the most widely quoted representations of consumer behaviour in use today (Du Plessis, 1990:25&29; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605, 610 & 612), the Blackwell-Miniard-Engel Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model, simplified the decision-making process but introduced many more variables that are thought to influence this process, both internal and external to the consumer. In this regard, of particular interest in terms of this study are those influences related to culture and consumer involvement.

2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter sought to provide a clear understanding of the consumer behaviour concept. As such, it first focussed on providing a broad definition of consumer behaviour extending beyond buyer behaviour and encompassing the individual and environmental variables

which affect this construct. Next, the chapter focussed on describing the evolution in the growing importance of consumers and consumer behaviour over the past four centuries. Thereafter, the chapter reviewed the development of consumer behaviour models from an evolutionary perspective, describing a number of widely quoted traditional and contemporary models. It then concluded with a discussion of the revised Engel, Blackwell and Miniard model, known as the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model, which, for reasons highlighted in the text, forms the basis of the following three chapters.

The next chapter describes consumer decision-making with a particular focus on the stages of the decision-making process and on the first of the key constructs related to the study, Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS).

3   CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING

3.1   INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 2, the evolution of consumer behaviour was discussed. Characterising this evolution was gradual shift in the focus and power within the supply chain away from the wholesaler to ultimately, the consumer. Similarly, models developed to study consumer behaviour evolved too with contemporary models increasingly focussing on the ongoing decision process and on the individual and environmental variables affecting this process and not just the act of purchase itself.

Based on the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model of consumer behaviour, this chapter begins by discussing the decision-making process and all of the stages associated with the process. It then concludes by discussing the "Consequences", as identified in terms of the conceptual framework, namely Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS).

3.2   THE CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

As discussed in Chapter 2: Section 2.4.4.3, the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model is an evolution of two earlier models, namely the Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model and then later, the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model. It is described as representing "… a road map of consumers' minds that marketers and managers can use to help guide product mix, communication, and sales strategies" (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:70). In this regard, a simplified version of the model, as shown in Figure 3.1, highlights the seven key stages of consumer decision-making, which consumers typically proceed through when making decisions (Blackwell, *et al.*, 2006:70).

3.2.1   <u>Stage 1: Need recognition</u>

The first stage in the consumer decision process is concerned with a need (Blackwell *et al*, 2006:71; Schiffman *et al*, 2012:70) or problem recognition (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007:514; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:252). This takes place when a

discrepancy between a consumer's current or actual state and their desired or future state occurs, which is sufficiently large to initiate the consumer decision-making process (Blackwell *et al.,* 2006:101-102; Hill in Hawkins *et al.,* 2007:514).

Figure 3.1   Simplified CDP model

```
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                                                    │
│           ┌────────────────────────────────────────────┐          │
│           │ Stage 1: Need recognition [Section 3.2.1]   │          │
│           └────────────────────────────────────────────┘          │
│                              │                                     │
│                              ▼                                     │
│          ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────┐         │
│          │ Stage 2: Search for information [Section 3.2.2]│        │
│          └──────────────────────────────────────────────┘         │
│                              │                                     │
│                              ▼                                     │
│      ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐     │
│      │ Stage 3: Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives       │    │
│      │ [Section 3.2.3]                                         │    │
│      └──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘     │
│                              │                                     │
│                              ▼                                     │
│             ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐           │
│             │ Stage 4: Purchase [Section 3.2.4]         │          │
│             └─────────────────────────────────────────┘           │
│                              │                                     │
│                              ▼                                     │
│            ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐           │
│            │ Stage 5: Consumption [Section 3.2.5]       │          │
│            └──────────────────────────────────────────┘           │
│                              │                                     │
│                              ▼                                     │
│       ┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐      │
│       │ Stage 6: Post-consumption evaluation [Section 3.2.6] │     │
│       └────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘      │
│                              │                                     │
│                              ▼                                     │
│            ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐           │
│            │ Stage 7: Divestment [Section 3.2.7]        │          │
│            └──────────────────────────────────────────┘           │
│                                                                    │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
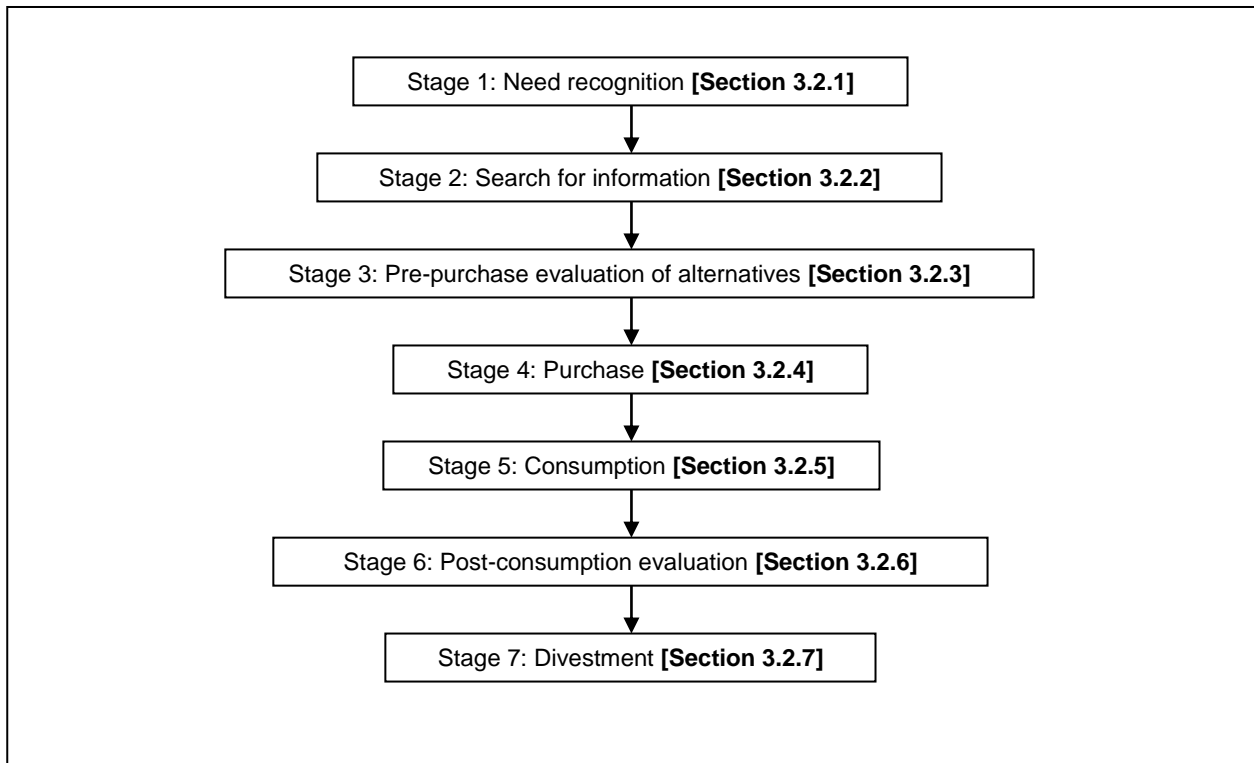
Source: Adapted from Blackwell *et al.* (2006:70).

Key to need recognition, according to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:102), is the degree of discrepancy between the desired and actual states because only when the actual or desired states are significantly out of alignment or when the perceived difference meets or exceeds a particular threshold, is a need recognised as illustrated in Figure 3.2. According to Hawkins *et al.* (2007:514), however, it is rather the importance of the problem, the situation itself, or the degree of satisfaction or inconvenience caused by the problem that results in need recognition, while for Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:252-253), need recognition is merely an awareness of the need to change given that it is, according to these authors, chiefly a perceptual phenomenon.

- 38 -

Figure 3.2   The need recognition process
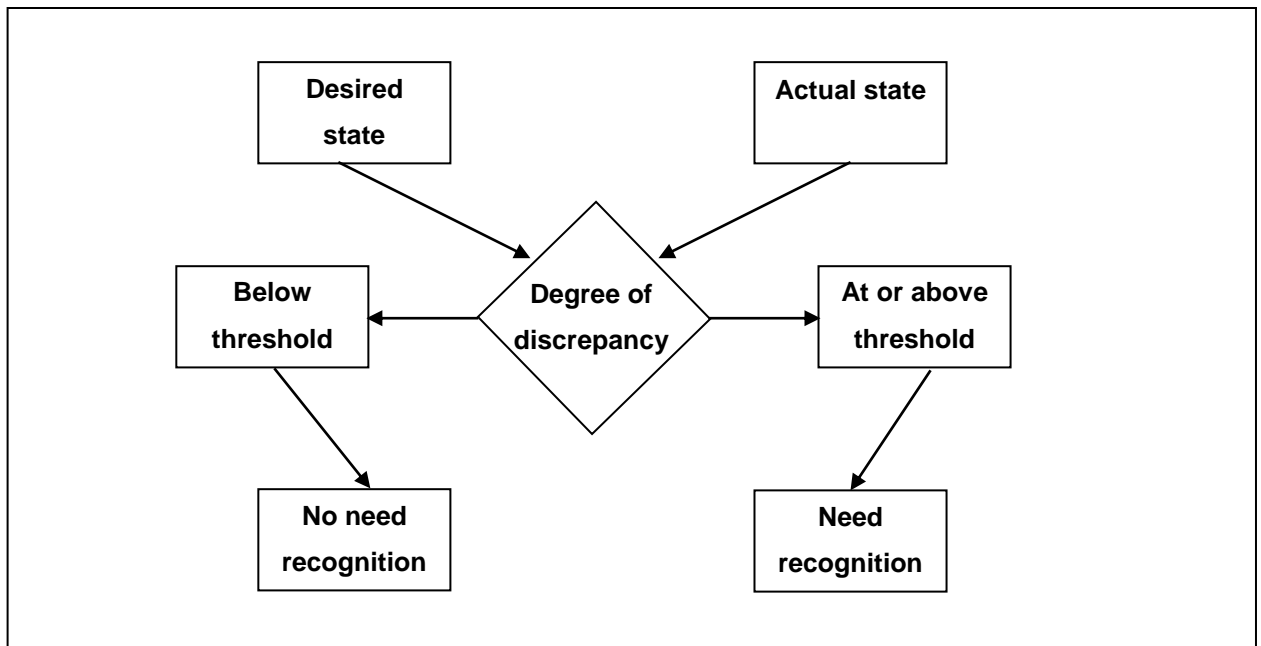
Also key to need recognition is an understanding that the cognitive processes resulting from the motivated behaviour activated by the discrepancy between current and desired states varies considerably, being influenced by three factors (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:253):

i.   Information stored in the consumer's memory.

ii. Various external influences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.1).

iii. The consumer's own individual differences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.2).

These same factors listed above were also identified by Blackwell *et al.* (2006:71) and included in their CDP model.

3.2.2   Stage 2: Search for information

The search for and the processing of information describes the second stage of the decision process and is defined by Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:254) as "… the mental and physical activities undertaken by consumers to obtain information on identified problems", with the emphasis being on the activities undertaken. Blackwell *et al.* (2006: 109) define the search for information as "… the motivated

activation of knowledge stored in memory or acquisition of information from the environment about potential need satisfiers", with the emphasis instead on the sources of information.

i)   Internal and external information search

The search process usually commences with the consumer searching their memory for a resolution to a consumption-related need. If this is not forthcoming, the search process is extended to include an external information search as indicated in Figure 3.3 (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:532; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:70). A consumer's eventual decision to undertake an external search is determined by the following factors:

- Whether the consumer possesses any past experience or has existing knowledge concerning a particular product or product category (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:110; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:70).

- Whether the consumer is comfortable with the relevancy of the past experience or existing knowledge they possess of a particular product or product category (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:110; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:70).

- Whether the consumer was satisfied with the results of prior purchases with regards to a particular product or product category (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:110).

- The consumer's ability to access knowledge stored in their memory (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:110).

An external information search is concerned with collecting additional information from various external resources (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:111; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:532) which can be categorised, according to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:75), as either:

- *Marketer dominated* – encompasses all of the information generated by a marketer for the purposes of information and persuasion including advertising, point-of-sale promotions and the provision of salespeople;
  or

- *Non-marketer dominated* – encompasses all of the information emanating from sources over which the marketers have little influence or control such as family, friends and the media.

- 40 -

Figure 3.3 **The internal search process**
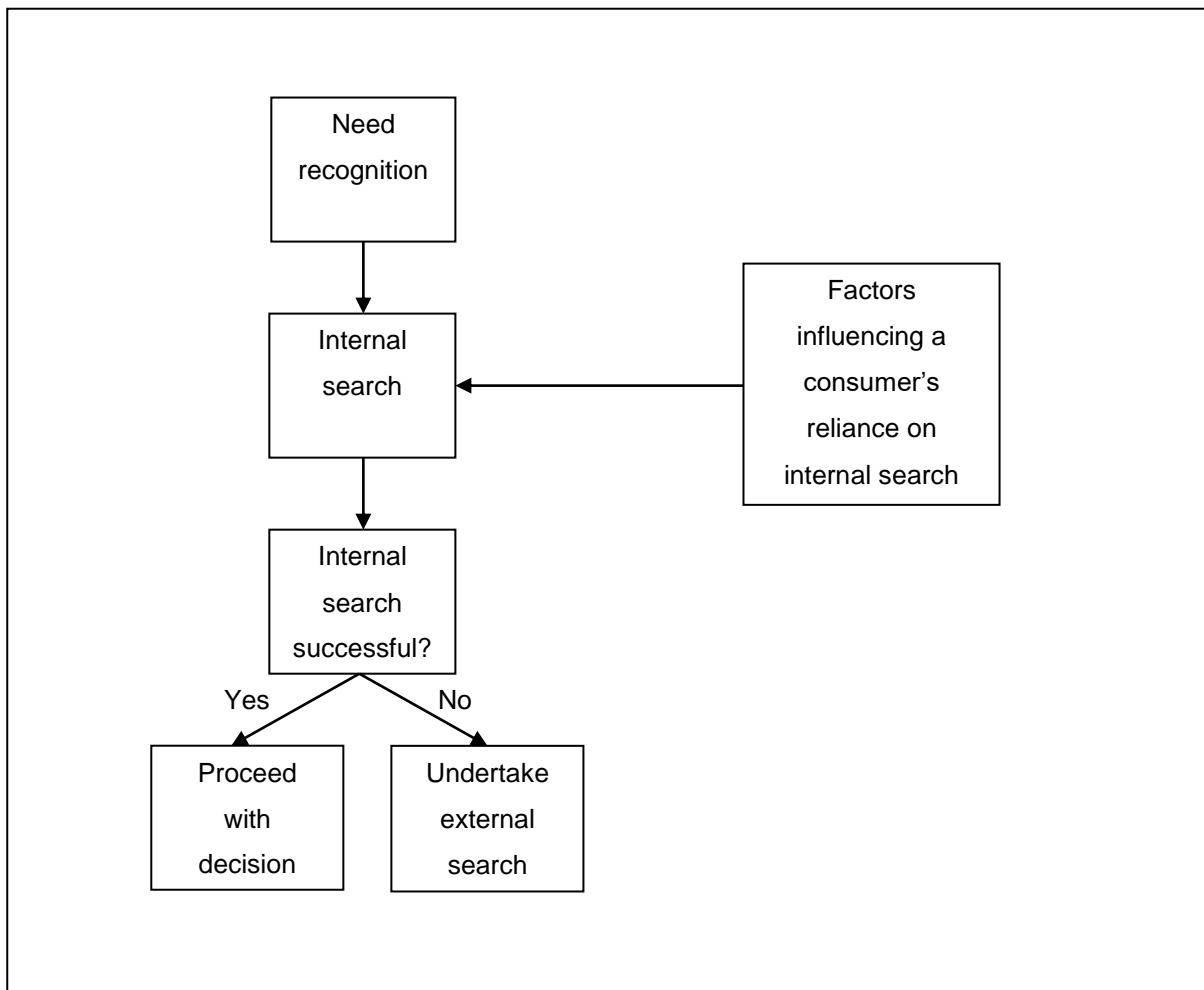
Source: Adapted from Blackwell *et al.* (2006:110)

ii) Information processing

All of the information collated during the external information search, regardless of the source, is gradually processed by consumers according to a series of steps, as illustrated in Figure 3.4, with new information eventually being retained and stored in their memory to influence future decision-making. These steps include (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:77, 79):

- *Step 1: Exposure* – encompasses the activation of one or more senses in response to stimuli from the external environment and the commencement of preliminary information processing.

- *Step 2: Attention* – concerns the allocation of information processing capacity to specific incoming information dependent on the relevancy of the information and its content.

- *Step 3: Comprehension* – entails the analysis of the information attracting attention against categories of meaning stored in a consumer's memory.

Figure 3.4   Information processing
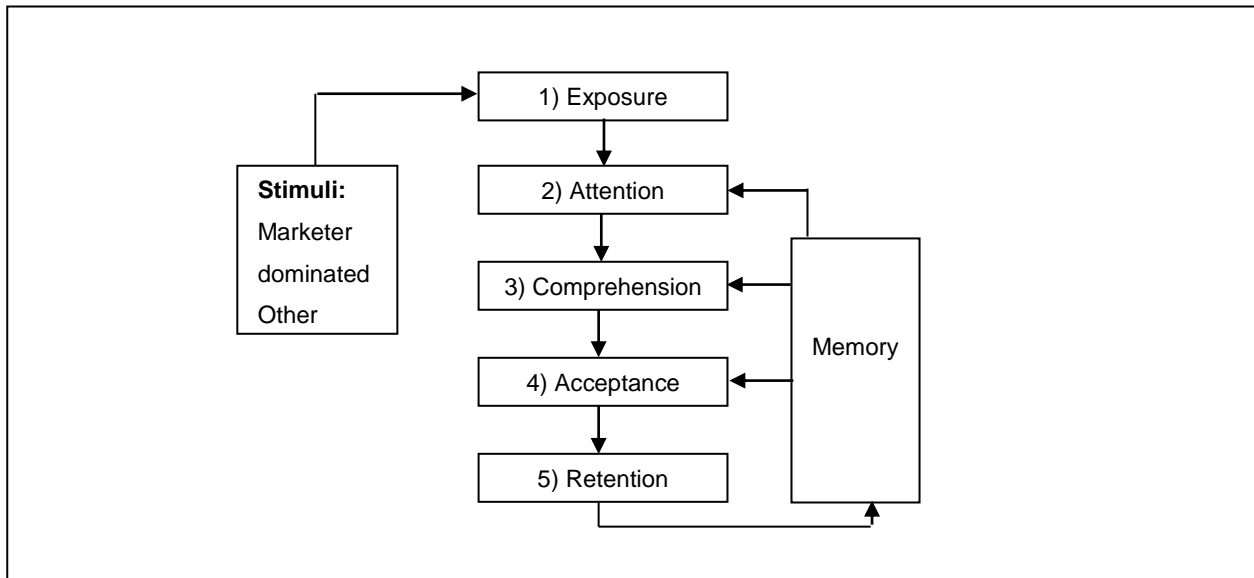
- *Step 4: Acceptance* – following comprehension of the information, the message it contains can either be accepted or dismissed. Should there be some acceptance, either modification or some change to existing beliefs and attitudes may occur.
- *Step 5: Retention* – the modification or changes to existing beliefs and attitudes are then, as a final stage in information processing, stored in the consumer's memory for future use.

iii) Types of information required

Whereas the previous sections focused on the processes associated with searching for information, this section highlights the three types of information required for consumer decision-making as determined by Hawkins *et al.* (2007:533). The types of information sought are shown in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5   **Search for information**
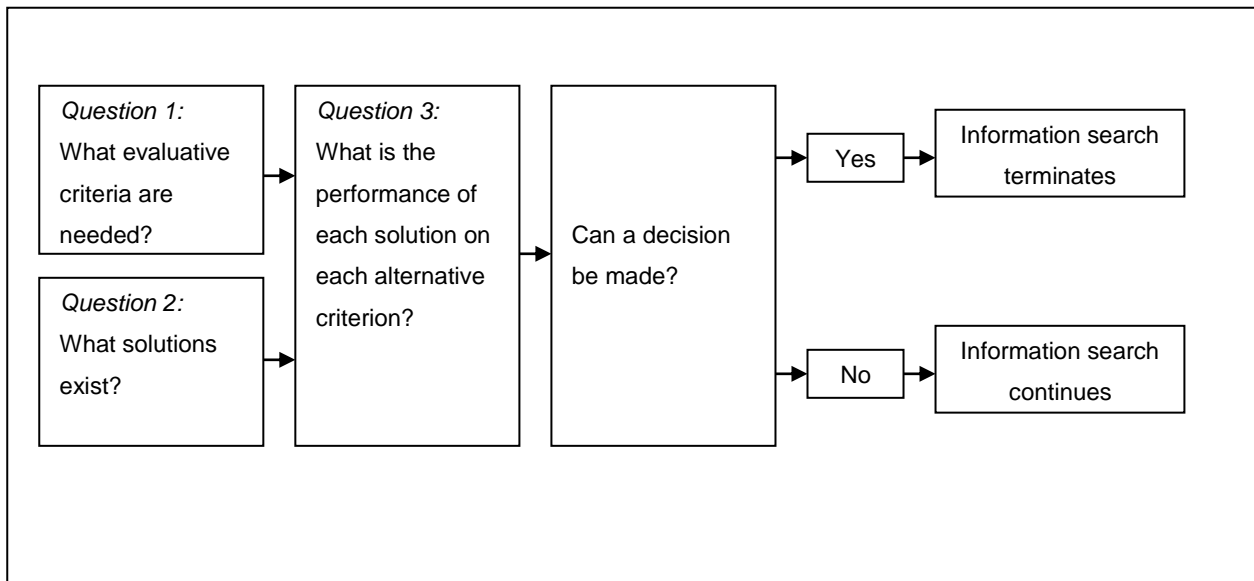
Source: Adapted from Hawkins *et al.* (2007:534)

The first type of information required concerns the determination of evaluative criteria appropriate for the resolution of the recognised need or problem, while the second type is concerned with determining whether any appropriate solutions exist. The third and final type of information concerns the level of performance of each alternative solution, compared to each of the appropriate evaluative criteria (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:533-537).

iv) Degree of information search

The extent of the activities and of the sources employed in undertaking an information search are determined by various factors including, amongst others, environmental influences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.1) and individual differences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.2).

3.2.3   Stage 3: Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives

Pre-purchase evaluation is the third stage in the decision process and is concerned with the evaluation of choice alternatives. While it is included as a separate stage in the CDP model, it is intricately intertwined with the previous stage. The search information as

- 43 -

shown in Figure 3.5, typically requires an evaluation of alternatives which, in turn, may require the continuation of the search (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:127-128).

i) The evoked set

Consumers, according to Schiffman *et al.* (2012:72), generally evaluate potential alternatives by first considering a set of brands (alternatives) from which they intend to choose. Consumers do not consider all of the potential brands (alternatives) available to them but instead consider only a subset of brands (alternatives), known as the consideration or evoked set (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:128; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:534; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:74), as indicated in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6   The evoked set as a sub-set of categories of decision alternatives
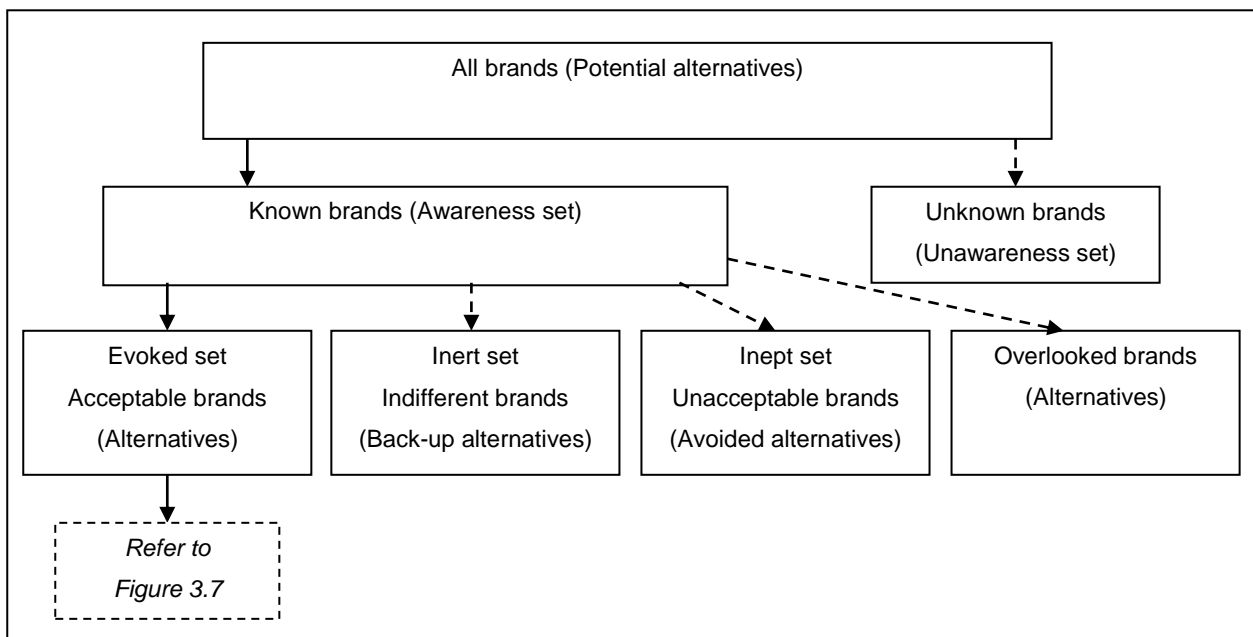
<u>Source:</u>   Adapted from Hawkins *et al.* (2007:536) and Schiffman *et al.* (2012:74).

ii) The alternative evaluation process

In order to evaluate the sub-set of brands (alternatives) which constitute the evoked set, consumers usually use criteria associated with important product attributes such as processing speed, price and display quality when evaluating personal computers (Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:72,75). Blackwell *et al.* (2006:132, 134) extend this process to also incorporate the use of pre-existing product evaluations stored in the consumer's memory,

as well as the construction of new product evaluations, either according to a categorical or piecemeal process, as shown in Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7   The alternative evaluation process
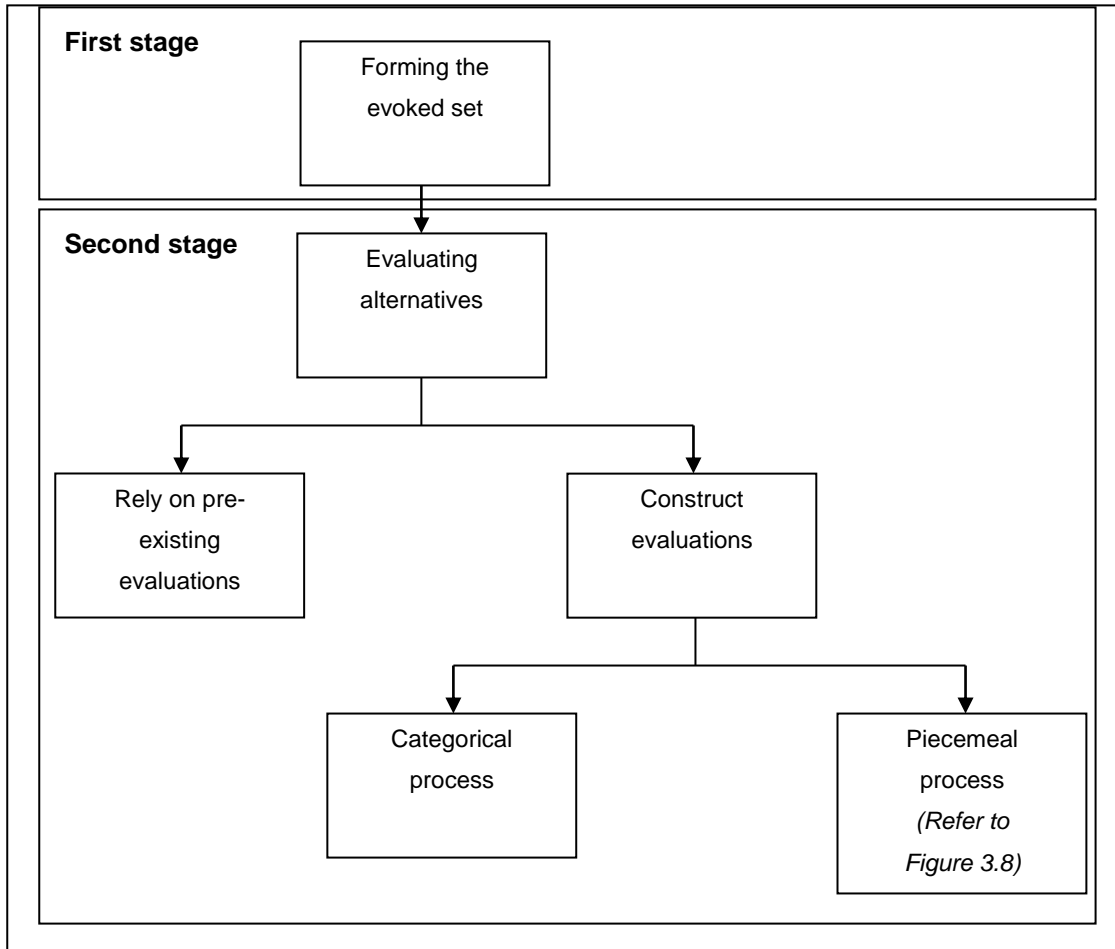
In terms of the so-called 'piecemeal' process, also described by Hawkins *et al.* (2007:566), it essentially entails the evaluation and choice amongst brands (alternatives) by considering their performance when compared to selected evaluative criteria (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:132,134) as illustrated in Figure 3.8.

The piecemeal process encompasses the following steps as described briefly below:

- *Step 1: Determine the evaluative criteria* – this step involves selecting those product attributes or benefits that will be used in considering the different brands (alternatives), in response to a particular problem (Blackwell *et al*, 2006:134; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:572).

- 45 -

Figure 3.8   The piecemeal process
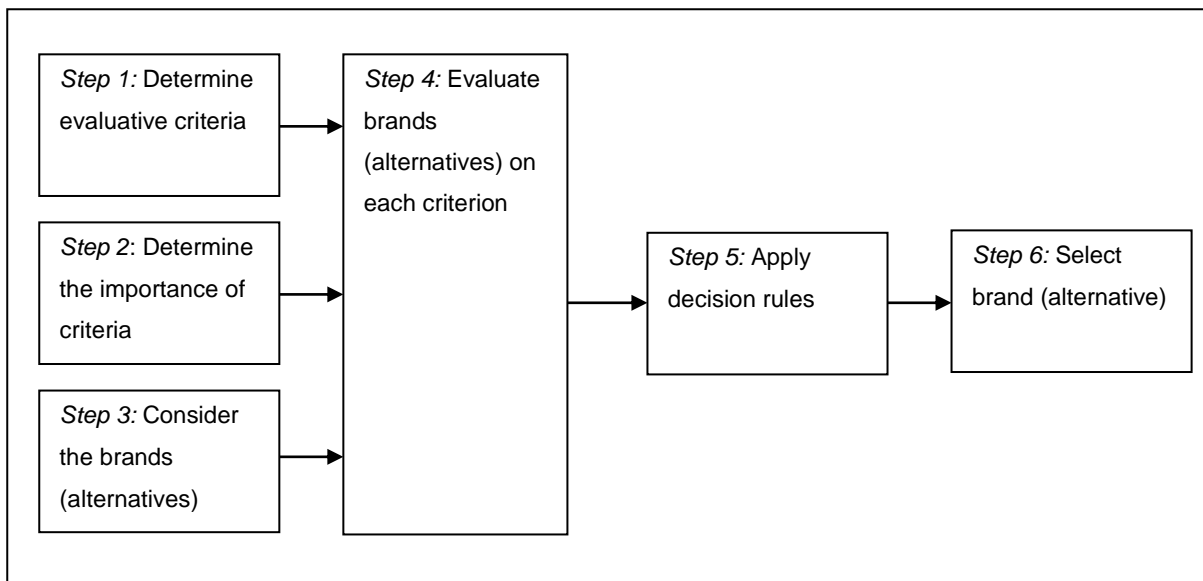
- *Step 2: Determine the importance of the criteria* – this step entails ranking the importance of each of the evaluative criteria (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:574).

- *Step 3: Consider the brands (alternatives)* – the step relates back to the first stage in the alternative evaluation process described by Blackwell *et al.* (2006) to the brands (alternatives) contained within the evoked set.

- *Step 4: Evaluate brands (alternatives) on each criterion* – this step involves an evaluation of each of the brands (alternatives) contained within the evoked set with each of the evaluative criteria ranked according to their importance.

- *Step 5: Apply decision rules* – this penultimate step in the process entails using individual judgements to determine the overall acceptability of each evaluated brand (alternative) (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:135-136). These decision rules facilitate brand (alternative) choices by simplifying the decision process (Babin & Harris, 2012:273; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:136; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:77-78).

- *Step 6: Select the brand (alternative)* – this is the final step in the process and entails the selection of a brand (alternative) which will satisfy the specific problem.

iii) Number of alternatives considered

As with information search, this stage in the decision process is also influenced by various factors. The number of alternatives considered is dependent upon, amongst others, and environmental influences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.1) and individual differences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.2).

3.2.4   Stage 4: Purchase

The purchase stage is the fourth stage in the consumer decision process (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:150; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:260). Schiffman *et al.* (2012:83) simply describe this stage in terms of purchase behaviour, highlighting three types of purchases, namely trial purchases, repeat purchases and long-term purchases. This stage, however, extends far beyond just the types of purchases. As such, it encompasses decisions concerned not only about what to buy and where, but also whether and when to buy and how to pay (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:150).

Having evaluated the choice alternatives contained within the consideration set described in the previous section in Step 3, consumers must then decide whether to proceed with the purchase of the particular product or service or, instead, either defer or abandon the process. Next, having decided if and when to purchase, the consumer then moves through two phases, as illustrated in Figure 3.9, with the first, concerning the type and choice of retailer and the second, concerning the type and choice of product (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:150).

Each of these phases is described briefly below:
i. *Phase 1: Choice of store* – this process is concerned with matching a consumer's individual characteristics with the characteristics of the particular purchase and with the characteristics of a particular store using a set of evaluative criteria, as listed in Figure 3.9 (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:157).

Figure 3.9   The two phases of the purchase process

Phase 1: Choice of store

| **Individual characteristics** |
| Lifestyles |
| Economic variables |
| Views of shopping situation |

| **Purchase characteristics** |
| Type of product |
| Timing variables |
| Price/quality situation |

| **Evaluative criteria** |
| Location |
| Assorted breadth and depth |
| Price |
| Advertising and promotion |
| POP displays |
| Store personnel |
| Services |
| Customer characteristics |
| Store atmosphere |

Evaluating types of retailer

Evaluating retail competitors

Store choice

Phase 2: Choice of product

Product choice

Brand choice

Purchase

Outcome

Source: Adapted from Blackwell *et al.* (2006:157)

ii. *Phase 2: Choice of product* – this process, a continuation of Phase 1, involves in-store choices associated with particular product or service-types and brands. The final decision in this phase concerns the method of payment. In this regard, there are numerous payment options, from cash to credit (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:81,150-151).

- 48 -

Whereas the purchase process illustrated above describes, according to Hawkins *et al.* (2007:598), an 'outlet first, brand second' approach to purchasing, there are two further approaches consumers can adopt when purchasing, namely a 'brand first, outlet second' approach or a 'brand and outlet simultaneously' approach. These different approaches are possible given that stores or retailers can also form an evoked set (Brand & Cronin in Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:598). Similarly, Blackwell *et al.* (2006:150-151) also identify different approaches to purchasing although these relate to Phase 2 of the purchase process described above. These authors identify:

i.   *Fully planned purchases* – product and brand are selected in advance.
ii.   *Partially planned purchases* – product selected but brand choice deferred until in-store.
iii. *Unplanned purchase* – product and brand choice made at point-of-sale.

Affecting this stage of the decision process decision are so-called 'timing factors' which, according to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:151), include factors such as seasonality, promotions and price. Also affecting this stage are other factors related to environmental influences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.1) and individual differences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.2).

3.2.5 <u>Stage 5: Consumption</u>

Consumption is the fifth stage in the decision process and is concerned with the usage of the particular brand which was acquired during the previous stage (Blackwell *et al.* 2006:82).

i) Dimensions of consumption behaviour

Other than classifying consumption behaviour on the basis of usage or non-usage, consumption can be classified according to particular behavioural dimensions as indicated in Figure 3.10.

Figure 3.10   Dimensions of consumption behaviour
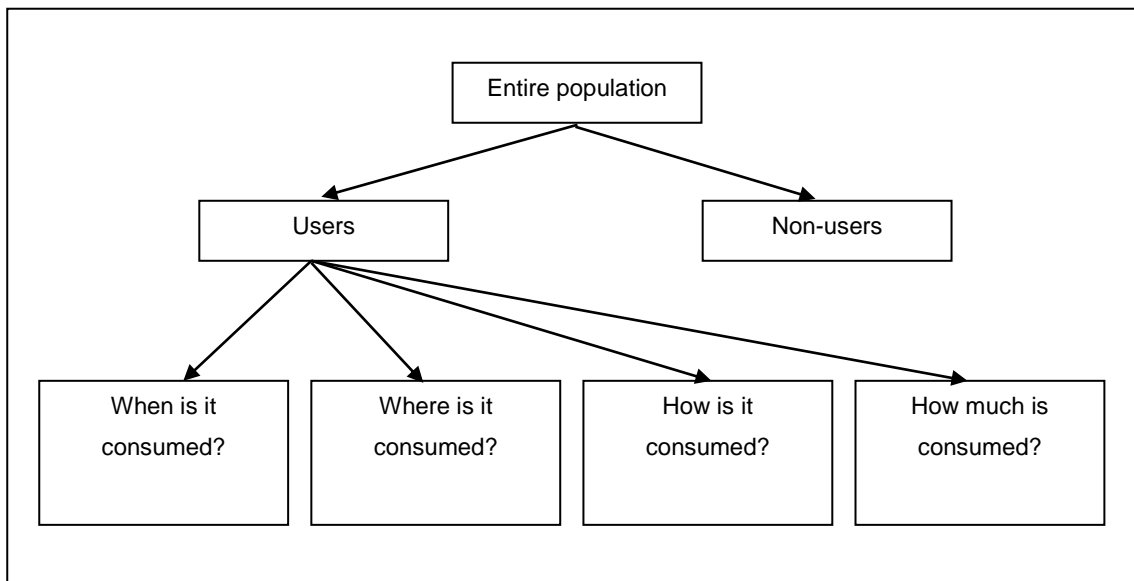
Each of these dimensions is discussed briefly below:

- *When is it consumed?* – This characteristic of consumption is affected by firstly, the proximity of consumption to purchase (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:191) and secondly, the time of day when consumption occurs (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:191; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:486,493).

- *Where is it consumed?* – Another characteristic of consumption that shapes consumer behaviour is firstly, the physical location and secondly, the particular situation in which the consumption of a product or services occurs (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:194; Hawkins *et al*, 2007:486,488).

- *How is it consumed?* – Also affecting consumption behaviour is the manner in which a particular product or service is consumed. As such, consumers often tend to use the same product or service differently depending on the consumption situation (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:194; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:492).

- *How much is consumed?* – Finally, consumption behaviour is also affected by the amount of a particular product or service that is consumed. In this regard, marketers distinguish between three types of users, namely heavy-, moderate- and light users (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:196-197).

ii) Types of consumption experiences

In addition to the behavioural dimensions or characteristics associated with consumption, there are particular feelings associated with consumption as well. In this regard, consumption experiences differ in terms of the type of positive or negative outcomes they either lead to or help avoid (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:202-203):

- *Positive reinforcement* – the consumption experience provides the consumer with a positive outcome such as, for example, riding attractions at amusement parks.

- *Negative reinforcement* – in this instance, the consumption experience is one which avoids a negative outcome such as, for example, using eye drops to avoid the redness associated with irritated eyes.

- *Punishment* – the consumption experience results in a negative outcome for a consumer such as, for example, when cosmetic surgery goes wrong.

It is evident from the above discussion that consumption can take many forms with consumption behaviour being influenced by environmental influences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.1) such as society's norms and rituals or by individual differences (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.2.2) such as individual's desires (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:206-207).

3.2.6 <u>Stage 6: Post-consumption evaluation</u>

The sixth stage in the decision process encompasses a post-purchase assessment in which the consumer evaluates the outcome of the consumption process as well as a post-purchase learning in which the consumer stores the result of the assessment in their long-term memory (Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard, 2012:260).

The interactions between the post-purchase processes are indicated in Figure 3.11. Whereas some purchases result in non-use, a consequence of the consumer either retaining the product or returning it to the retailer unused, most result in product usage (Hawkins *et al*., 2007:638). As the product is used, the consumer continuously evaluates its performance against their own expectations. This evaluation results in three possible

- 51 -

outcomes (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:260; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:498; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:84):

i. *A neutral feeling* – perceived performance matches the consumer's expectations.
ii. A *feeling of satisfaction* – perceived performance exceeds the consumer's expectations.
iii. A *feeling of dissatisfaction* – perceived performance is below the consumer's expectations.

Another important outcome of this evaluation is an attempt by the consumer to reduce post-purchase cognitive dissonance. As such, the consumer is constantly reassuring themselves that the choice of brand (alternative), especially if it was a difficult and relatively permanent decision, was indeed the correct one (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:84; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:638; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:498).

The outcomes of the post-consumption process are critical, in that they are stored, as mentioned previously, in a consumer's long-term memory to be referred to during future decision making (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:83-84).

Figure 3.11   Post-purchase consumer behaviour
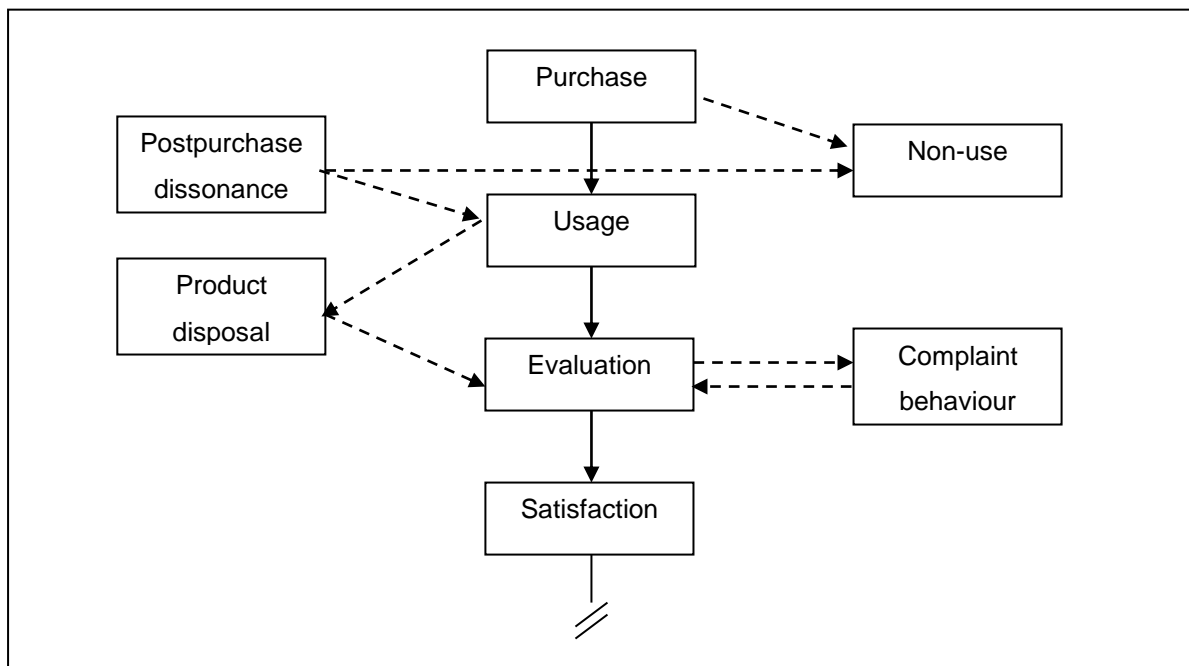
Source: Adapted from Hawkins *et al.* (2007:638).

3.2.7 Stage 7: Divestment

Divestment, also referred to as product disposition, is the final stage in the consumer decision process and is concerned with the disposal of products and/or their containers (Blackwell *et. al.*, 2006:84-85; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:644). In this regard, consumers can choose to either retain the product and its packaging or dispose of it. In terms of disposal, the consumer can choose to either discard the product and its packaging permanently by, for example, selling it or recycling it, or temporarily by, for example, loaning or renting it (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:646; Solomon, 2007:366).

It is evident from the above discussion that the first five stages of the consumer decision-making process, from need recognition through to consumption, are all influenced by a host of variables, some related to environmental influences and others to individual differences among consumers. Also evident from the above discussion is that consumer decision-making is a cognitive process which entails selecting from among various alternatives. In this regard, consumers apply individual decision rules to guide decision-making. However, consumers do not always apply rational principles when making decisions but instead adopt certain decision-making styles (Sproles, 1985:79; Sproles & Kendall, 1986:267).

3.3 CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING STYLES

3.3.1 Defining Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS)

There is an underlying belief that all consumers adopt basic characteristics or decision-making styles when shopping (Durvasula *et al.*, 1993:56; Lysonski *et al.*,1996:11). In this regard, Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) are defined by Sproles (1985:79) "… as a patterned, mental cognitive orientation towards shopping and purchasing, which consistently dominates the consumer's choices", and as "… a basic consumer personality, analogous to the concept of personality in psychology". A later definition by Sproles and Kendall (1986:268) which defines the construct simply "… as a mental orientation characterising a consumer's approach to making choices" extends the construct somewhat to include both cognitive and affective characteristics.

- 53 -

Scott and Bruce (1995:820), a decade later, defined a decision-making style "…as the learned, habitual response pattern exhibited by an individual when confronted with a decision situation". Unlike the previous definitions of Sproles (1985) and Sproles and Kendall (1986), these authors do not consider decision-making styles to be 'personality' traits, but rather habitual responses to particular decision contexts (Scott & Bruce, 1995:820). Thunholm (2004:941), in turn, extended Scott and Bruce's (1995) definition to encompass not only general information processing practices, but other basic cognitive abilities as well, including self-evaluation and self-regulation. In doing so, the author concluded that decision-making styles are stable decision-making characteristics and not just habits (Thunholm, 2004:934,941).

3.3.2   Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) approaches

CDMS can be characterised according to three distinct approaches or dimensional patterns (Bauer *et al.*, 2006:342; Durvasula, Lysonski & Andrews, 1993:56; Lysonski, Durvasula & Zotos, 1996:11; Sproles & Kendall, 1986:268), namely:

i.   *The psychographic or lifestyle approach* – concerns the identification of characteristics related to consumer behaviour; related to consumer choices or general lifestyle activities.

ii. *The consumer typology approach* – concerns the identification of general consumer types.

iii. *The consumer characteristics approach* – concerns both cognitive and affective decision-making orientations.

Due to its focus on mental orientations, both cognitive and affective, towards making decisions, the consumer characteristics approach is considered to be the most powerful and explanatory (Durvasula *et al.*, 1993:56; Lysonski *et al.*, 1996:11).

3.3.3   Measures of Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS)

The definitions determined by Sproles (1985) and Sproles and Kendall (1986) on the one hand, differ from those determined by Scott and Bruce (1995) and Thunholm (2004), on the other hand, in terms of their acceptance of decision-styles as basic consumer

personalities and their cross-situational generalisability. As such, two different measures to operationalise the construct according to these two differing perspectives, the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) and the General Decision-making Style (GDMS) test are discussed in more detail.

3.3.3.1 *Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI)*

In 1985 Sproles published the findings of an exploratory study which identified a parsimonious, six-factor model of decision-making style traits (Sproles, 1985:79, 81; Sproles & Kendall, 1986:270). A year later, Sproles and Kendall, based on the findings of this exploratory study, conceptualised eight basic decision-making style characteristics and then constructed an instrument, the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI), to measure each of these characteristics empirically (Sproles & Kendall, 1986:267, 270).

In formulating the measurement instrument, Sproles and Kendall (1986:269) first identified, using their own judgement, what they believed to be the most fundamental or basic characteristics of consumer decision-making, as cited in consumer behaviour literature. The authors then examined these characteristics according to whether the mental characteristics of decision-making they contained were considered important, 'real world' consumer characteristics such as quality or brand consciousness. Following this examination, eight characteristics where identified. According to Sproles and Kendall (1986:269,271) each of these characteristics, in addition to being consistent with their definition, are largely independent representations of a consumer's mental orientation towards consumption. Each of the eight characteristics are described below (Mitchell & Bates, 1998:202; Sproles, 1985:81; Sproles & Kendall, 1986:271,273-274):

i. *Perfectionism* – this characteristic measures the search for products or services of the highest or very best quality. Consumers scoring high in terms of this characteristic generally shop more carefully. These consumers are not satisfied with products that are merely 'good enough'.

ii. *Brand consciousness* – it measures an orientation towards buying expensive, well-known national brands in the belief that the higher expense will relate to better quality. Consumers measuring high on this characteristic generally harbour positive attitudes

towards department and so-called, speciality stores where expensive brands are most prevalent.

iii. *Novelty-fashion consciousness* – this characteristic is a measure of the pleasure and excitement brought about by the seeking out of new products and services. Consumers scoring high on this characteristics are generally fashion conscious with 'being in-style' important to them. They can also be impulsive at times, appearing less price-conscious when style is at stake.

iv. *Recreational shopping consciousness* – a measure of consumers' pleasurable or fun orientation towards shopping. Research has indicated that consumers scoring high on this measure generally just shop for the 'fun of it'.

v. *Price-value consciousness* – measures the price and value-for-money consciousness of consumers. Generally, consumers scoring high on this measure are neither style nor brand conscious, being concerned only with obtaining the lowest price and the 'best value for money'.

vi. *Impulsiveness* – this characteristic measures an unconcerned orientation towards shopping with little consideration about how much is spent. Consumers scoring high on this characteristic do not typically plan their shopping and are furthermore, unconcerned about the amount of money they spend.

vii. *Confused by 'overchoice'* – confusion caused by the quantity of brands and stores to choose from and by the amount of information available. Consumers scoring high on this measure generally have difficulty in making shopping choices.

viii. *Brand loyal-habitual* – this characteristic measures a brand-loyal consumer orientation coupled with formed habits in choosing these brands. Consumers that score high on this measure are generally expected to have favourite brands and stores and to have formed habitual behaviour in selecting these.

Next, Sproles and Kendall (1986:270-271) developed a CSI instrument to measure the eight basic mental characteristics. The instrument contained 48 randomly ordered items, six per characteristic, which were measured using a five-point Likert-scale. The CSI was then administered to a sample of 501 students with 482 usable surveys eventually being completed and returned. In order to determine the construct and content validity of the CSI, factor analyses was undertaken employing the Principle Components method with

Varimax rotation. The factor solution explained 46% of the variance with the factors confirming each of the characteristics while all of the eigenvalues exceeded 1.0.

Some researcher have, however, raised concerns about the validity, reliability and/or cross-cultural equivalence of the instrument, including:

- Mitchell and Bates (1998) who, having examined three reliability estimates, concluded that the overall reliability of the measure was poor. The authors also identified a number face-validity problems with several of the items used in the scale.

- Walsh, Hennig-Thurau, Wayne-Mitchell and Wiedmann (2001) determined that the factor structure presented by Sproles and Kendall (1986) was inadequate with these authors suggesting a seven-factor model would be more reliable. These authors also raised concerns about the face-validity of scale items.

- Bauer *et al.* (2006) who identified very low to average reliability coefficients due to apparent shortcomings in the formulation of the scale items and in the conceptualisation of the construct. Furthermore, the authors questioned the appropriateness of the tool given that both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis could not confirm the predicted factor structure.

Yet, despite the concerns raised concerning the CSI scale, and the fact that the original factor structure may not be applicable across all cultures (Anić, Rajh & Bevanda, 2012:16; Radder, Li & Pietersen, 2006:31), it is still deemed robust (Sinkovics, Leelapanyalert & Yamin, 2010:1030) and useful as a basic model (Goswami & Khan, 2015:305). As such, it is today one of the most well-established and widely replicated instruments worldwide with regard to researching decision-making styles, particularly within a cross-cultural context (Bauer *et al.*, 2006:343; Sinkovics, Leelapanyalert & Yamin, 2010:1030).

3.3.3.2   *General Decision-making Style (GDMS) test*

Developed by Scott and Bruce in 1995, the General Decision-making Style (GDMS) test is, according to Curşeu and Schruijer (2012:1053) and Wood (2012:2), a very widely used measure for assessing decision-making styles. Based on extant theory and empirical research, the authors identified four decision-styles which they then defined in behaviour terms, namely (Loo, 2000:896; Scott & Bruce, 1995:820; Thunholm, 2004:933):

i. *Rational style* – characterised by an extensive search for information and a logical alternative evaluation process.

ii. *Intuitive style* – characterised by a dependency on hunches or feelings rather than fact.

iii. *Dependent style* – characterised by a dependency on the advice and guidance of others, particularly before making key decisions.

iv. *Avoidant style* – characterised by efforts to consistently avoid making decisions.

Behaviourally phrased scale items were then developed based on the definitions listed above. Initially comprising 37 items, the scale was reduced to just 25 items, each modified to encompass all important decisions and not just those related to career decisions. Responses were obtained using a five-point response scale (Scott & Bruce, 1995:821-822). Based on factor-analytic results, a fifth decision-making style was identified (Loo, 2000:896; Scott & Bruce, 1995:823; Thunholm, 2004:933):

v. *Spontaneous style* – characterised by feelings of immediacy and a need to progress through the process of decision-making as swiftly as possible without any delay.

In terms of scale independence, the pattern of correlations among the scales suggested, according to Scott and Bruce (1995:827), conceptual independence. While in terms of content validity, the authors determined that the scale items had both face validity as well as content validity (Scott & Bruce, 1985:827). The internal reliability of the GDMS was confirmed by Thunholm (2004:938) with Chronbach's alpha coefficients varying between 0.65 and 0.81 while the results of a confirmatory factor analysis performed by the author indicated a significant fit, $\chi^2 = 520.46$ for a five-factor model (Thunholm, 2004:939). The findings of Loo's (2000:903) research also confirms Scott and Bruce's (1995) five-factor model and the construct validity of the GDMS.

The CSI measurement scale was, however, selected for the purpose of this study given firstly, its cross-cultural generalisability including its application in South African studies undertaken previously by Potgieter, Wiese and Strasheim (2013), Radder, Li and Pietersen (2006) and Ruzane (2010), for example. And secondly, its use in previous research relevant to this study such as the studies undertaken by Bauer *et al.* (2006), Correia, Kozak and Ferradeira (2011), Leng and Botelho (2010) and Leo *et al.* (2005) which rather than viewing CDMS in behavioural terms viewed CDMS as decision-making

traits. Further, only those scale items related to *Brand consciousness* and *Brand loyal-habitual* were selected. The decision to only select these items was based on a number of reasons:

i. *Practical considerations* – time and funding constraints meant that it was not possible to focus on all eight CDMS.

ii. *Brand focus* – these two CDMS were related in that both focused on the brand, namely brand loyalty and brand consciousness. It is specifically the brand-related elements (only these two were brand-related) that made these ideal sub-constructs to include in the study.

iii. *Concern regarding respondent fatigue* – it was not possible to include all eight CDMS in the questionnaire as it would have made it too lengthy, resulting in possible respondent fatigue. As such, a decision was made to include only these two CDMS sub-constructs.

iv. Previous studies – findings from previous studies such as Bauer *et al.* (2006), Correia *et al.* (2011) and Leng and Botelho (2010) suggest that that there is a connection between either culture- or involvement-related constructs and brand-related CDMS, making these ideal for this study which included both culture and involvement.

3.4   SUMMARY

This chapter sought to provide a broad understanding of consumer decision-making. As such, it first focussed on the consumer decision-making process and on each of its seven stages before concluding by discussing the first key construct of the study, Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS). In this regard, CDMS has been incorporated into the conceptual framework as the behavioural outcome influenced by involvement.

The next chapter discusses the second of the key constructs related to the study, Consumer Involvement (CI).

4 CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Historically, researchers of consumer behaviour such as Nicosia (1966) viewed decision-making as a sequential process characterised by an extensive and complex series of mental and behavioural stages (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:605; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:216). Subsequent research has, however, determined that there are some purchase situations that do not require extensive and complex processing of information (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:612; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:216). Rather consumer behaviour is viewed as a dichotomy, characterised on the one hand, by low involvement consumer behaviour and on the other hand, by high involvement consumer behaviour (Zaichkowsky, 1985:341).

This chapter begins by defining Consumer Involvement (CI). Next, it discusses the antecedent factors that affect a consumer's involvement level as well as the different types of involvement. The chapter then discusses the progression of theoretical frameworks underpinning the involvement construct culminating in a description of the Antecedents– Involvement–Consequences (A-I-C) framework. Finally, the chapter concludes by discussing the measures of CI considered for the purpose of this study.

4.2 DEFINING CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

The involvement construct has been subject to a large number of changes and development over the past seven decades (Hamzelu, Gohary, Nia & Hanzaee, 2017:286). Indeed, its origins seem to vary somewhat from researcher to researcher. McQuarrie and Munson (1987:36), for example, refer to the early research conducted by Harold and Kassarjian and by Robertson in the 1970s, which focused on the dichotomy associated with low- and high-involvement products while Bienstock and Stafford (2006:210) highlight the classic work undertaken by Zaichkowsky in the 1980s and 1990s which focused on developing a measurement scale to assess product involvement. That said, two schools of thought, both founded in the field of social psychology, have developed concerning the

origins of involvement. The first, embedded in social judgement theory (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008:84), traces the development of the construct back to research conducted by Allport and also by Sherif and Cantril in the 1940s which viewed involvement as the relationship between an individual's ego and an object (Aldlaigan & Buttle, 2001:232; Broderick, 2007:345; Gabbott & Hogg, 1999:159; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:41). The second, traces its origins back to research built on hemispheric lateralisation or split-brain theory and undertaken by Herbert Krugman during the 1960s (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:232; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:217; Zaichkowsky, 1986:4).

Similarly, the definition of the involvement construct is not a unitary one (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:42), but seems to vary somewhat depending on the particular researcher (Bienstock & Stafford, 2006:210). Indeed, the involvement literature reveals much variation in how the construct has been defined and conceptualised (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:229; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:220). This is apparent from, for example, the variation in the operational indicators of involvement such as price (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:42); the multiplicity of terminology being used to explain the term (Broderick, 2007:345); and the different applications of the term which encompass advertising, products and purchase decisions, to mention but a few (Zaichkowsky, 1985:341).

Despite the variations in the origins of this construct and in how it has been defined and .conceptualised, a general definition and underlying theme has emerged in the literature. As a general definition, involvement is defined by Gabbott and Hogg (1999:160) as "… a motivational variable reflecting the extent of personal relevance of the decision to the individual in terms of basic goals, values and self-concept". While, in terms of a general underlying theme, the focus is similarly on the degree of personal relevance that the purchase holds for the consumer (Aldlaigan & Buttle, 2001:233; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:229; Zaichkowsky, 1985:342; Zaichkowsky, 1986:4).

It is evident from the definition that involvement is a motivational variable. As such, it is identified with, amongst other things, the drives, urges and wishes of consumers which trigger a series of events which Bayton (1958:282) describes as behaviour. Similarly, Morel, Poiesz and Wilke (1997:464) describe motivation as the needs, interests or desires of consumers to become involved in a particular behaviour. It is also evident that personal

relevance is an integral facet of involvement. In this regard, a product is considered to be personally relevant to the extent that it is viewed as being essential in bringing about the achievement of consumers' personal goals and values (Celsi & Olson, 1988:211). As such, Involvement is considered to have a causal effect with a number of related consequences on the purchase and communication behaviours of consumers (Gabbott & Hogg, 1999:159; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:42). This effect extends to Consumer Decision-Making Styles (CDMS) as well with Bauer *et al.* (2006:348) and Gupta *et al.* (2010:29) determining from the findings of their respective research that involvement not only influences but governs CDMS.

However, simply understanding whether a consumer is involved or the level of that involvement is not sufficient given that the source of involvement is also important (Laurent & Kapferer, 195:43). According to Gabbott and Hogg (1999:160), any conceptualisation or definition of the involvement construct must take cognisance of its antecedents. These antecedents are discussed in the next section.

4.3   ANTECEDENT FACTORS INFLUENCING CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

A consumer's level of involvement does not, according to Laurent and Kapferer (1985:52), systematically lead to the difference in the often simplified behaviours. According to these authors, behaviours also depend on the antecedents or sources of involvement. Like the origins and definitions of the involvement construct that seemed to vary somewhat from researcher to researcher, the same is true for antecedent conditions of involvement (Broderick, 2007:344).

According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:93-94), Bloch and Richins (1983:74-75) and Zaichkowsky (1985:342; 1986:5; 1994:59) there are three major antecedents affecting a consumer's involvement level or degree of involvement, namely:

i.   *Personal factors* – these relate to the characteristics of the individual and encompass, for example, their self-image, interests, values, needs and unique experiences. These factors will determine the individual's involvement with a particular product. In purchase situations where the outcome affects the consumer personally, such as, for example,

- 62 -

when purchasing cosmetics, the degree of involvement is expected to be high and enduring whereas the converse is likely to be true.

ii. *Product factors* – these relate to the physical characteristics of a particular object or stimulus. In situations where the purchase and usage of a particular product is perceived to be high risk, for example, when selecting a physician to undertake surgery, the degree of involvement is expected to be high whereas the opposite is likely to be true in situations of low risk.

iii. *Situational factors* – these relate to the characteristics of the varying purchase and usage situations of a particular product. While these factors may initially increase the relevance or interest towards the product, such as, for example, fashionable clothing items, their effect may later diminish as fashion trends change.

In addition to the three sets of antecedents listed above, Gabbott and Hogg (1999:160) identified a fourth set from the research undertaken by Antil (1984:204):

iv. *Communication factors* – these relate to information processing and active and passive learning, and also encompass variables related to the contents of the message which, in high involvement situations, will have strong personal relevance.

By way of another example, Laurent and Kapferer (1985:43, 52), based on their own review of contemporary research, identified five antecedents of involvement. However, whereas the authors mentioned in the previous paragraphs were concerned with areas or sets of factors affecting involvement, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) focused on individual factors. The antecedents of involvement they identified from contemporary research and practices are:

i. *Perceived importance* – this facet relates to the personal meaning attached to a particular product.

ii. *Perceived risk* – this antecedent relates to the purchase of a particular product and comprises two subcomponents i.e.

    a. *Perceived importance of negative consequences in the event of the consumer making a poor decision.*

    b. *Perceived probability of the consumer making such a poor decision*.

iii. *Perceived sign value* – this facet is related to the symbolic value a consumer attributes to a particular product, its purchase or its consumption.

iv. *Perceived pleasure value* – this final antecedent relates to the hedonic value of a particular product in terms of its emotional appeal and its ability to provide the consumer with pleasure.

Antecedent factors are also anticipated to directly affect Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS). In this regard, a research study undertaken by Zhang *et al.* (2013) investigated the relationship between self-construal[3], which the authors considered to be the individual-level equivalent of Hofstede's (2001) *Individualism-Collectivism* national cultural dimension, and selected CDMS. In terms of their findings, it was evident that consumers with different self-construal likewise adopted different CDMS.

Critically, just as understanding the different sources of involvement is important, so too is understanding the different types of involvement, for rarely is the word "involvement" used alone (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:43). These different types or forms of involvement are discussed in the next section.

4.4   TYPES OF CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

The frequent use of a qualifier with involvement implies a distinction between different types or forms of involvement (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:42-43). In this regard, Houston and Rothschild (1978:184-185) distinguished between two separate and distinct types of involvement, namely situational involvement and enduring involvement which together combine to influence a third type of involvement, namely response involvement. Whereas the later type of involvement relates to the extensiveness of the behavioural processes related to the overall consumer decision-making process (Houston & Rothschild, 1978:185), both situational involvement and enduring involvement relate to the self-relevancy of a product with the difference between the two, at the conceptual level, being one of specificity (Broderick, 2007:347).

---

[3] Self-construal is defined by Markus & Kitayama (in Zhang *et al.*, 2013:444) as "… one's conception of oneself or one's self-image".

Situational involvement stems from the stimuli or cues that exist within a consumer's immediate environment or specific situation and which function as sources of personal relevance and are generally temporary (Celsi & Olsen, 1988:211-212; Im & Ha, 2011:347; Mathews-Lefebvre & Valette-Florence, 2014:239). As such, it is the circumstance that elicits from consumer's concern or interest with regard to their behaviours within that specific circumstance (Gbadamosi, 2013:236; Houston & Rothschild, 1978:184). Enduring involvement, however, stems from a consumer's prior experience with, or arousal potential of, a particular product which causes personal relevance (Flynn & Goldsmith, 1993:130; Higie & Feick, 1989:690; Houston & Rothschild, 1978:184). Unlike situational involvement, the level of enduring involvement is not transitory but is rather an evaluative judgement persisting over a period of time (Andrews, Durvasula & Akhter, 1990:30; Higie & Feick, 1989:690; Im & Ha, 2011:347; Mathews-Lefebvre & Valette-Florence, 2014:239).

Corresponding to Houston and Rothschild's (1978) dichotomy of situational and enduring involvement, Mittal and Lee (1989:365) and Zaichkowsky (1986:8-9), identified two forms of enduring involvement, namely product or product class involvement and purchase or brand-decision involvement. Stemming from the perception that the product class is able to address a consumer's personal values and goals, product involvement relates to the interest a consumer has in the particular product class. Purchase involvement, however, relates to a consumer's interest in a particular brand to the extent that it is considered personally relevant (Mittal & Lee, 1989:365; Zaichkowsky, 1986:9). Essentially, as stated by Mittal and Lee (1989:365), the difference between Houston and Rothschild's (1978) dichotomy of involvement and their own is that theirs allows for situational variation, both with regard to product involvement and purchase involvement.

Situational involvement and enduring involvement are motivated emotional states that reflect a consumer's feeling of personal relevance with the characteristics of a product or product category (Celsi & Olson, 1988:211; Flynn & Goldsmith, 1993:130). In this regard, these motivational states are defined by (Celsi & Olson, 1988:211) as "felt involvement". Park and Young (in Zaichkowsky, 1994:60), in turn, describe the degree of personal relevance based on emotional appeals as "affective involvement". These authors also describe a "cognitive" form of involvement based on what Zaichkowsky (1994:60) as well as Kim and Sung (2009:506-507) describe as activities related to information processing.

In referring to the causal model of consumer involvement developed by Mittal and Lee (1989), Broderick (2007:347-348) proposes a nomological network of consumer involvement which conceptualises both a cognitive involvement stage and an affective or felt involvement stage, which is the output of the previous stage. In this regard, Broderick (2007: 348) identifies two further types of involvement, namely normative involvement which stems from the importance of a product or product class to a consumer's values, emotions and ego and risk involvement which relates to the relative importance or probability of product risk. Normative involvement and risk involvement together form the cognitive stage affecting enduring involvement and situational involvement, the affective stage, respectively.

In terms of Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS), Bauer *et al.* (2006:351-352) determined that rather than being product-independent, CDMS are indeed governed by enduring or product involvement. Indeed, the results of their analysis as well as the findings of a latter study conducted by Gupta *et al.* (2010:32), concluded that product involvement influenced, either positively or negatively, a number of CDMS including brand loyal-habitual and price-value consciousness.

The next section describes the development of a theoretical framework which integrates the antecedents and types of involvement together with its consequences.

4.5   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

"A rich potpourri of ideas …" is how Mittal and Lee (1989:364) described the assortment of approaches to conceptualising Consumer Involvement (CI). These authors set out to develop a theoretical framework which built upon the earlier work undertaken by Houston and Rothschild (1978), Bloch and Richins (1983) and Laurent and Kapferer (1985). Each of these earlier frameworks is discussed in succession below.

4.5.1 Houston and Rothschild's (1978) framework

The theoretical framework developed by Houston and Rothschild (1978) with involvement as the central construct was considered to be the most comprehensive of its time (Bloch & Richins, 1983:70). The framework places a particular emphasis on cognitive responses to persuasive messages and contains three separate and distinct types of involvement: situational involvement, enduring involvement and response involvement (Bloch & Richins, 1983:70; Houston & Rothschild, 1978:184).

Situational involvement relates to the affect of a particular situation on the behaviour of a consumer influenced by product characteristics such as product cost or product complexity, and situational characteristics such as the presence of important others. Together, these characteristics determine the perceived risk or severity of less-than-optimal behaviour in a particular situation and thereby, the level of situational involvement (Bloch & Richins, 1983:70; Houston & Rothschild, 1978:184). The second type of involvement, enduring involvement, relates to the affect of a pre-existing relationship between a consumer and a particular situation on behaviour. This relationship is influenced by prior experience of a product, issue or situation, and the strength of the underlying social and personal values relevant to the situation (Bloch & Richins, 1983:70; Houston & Rothschild, 1978:184-185).

Together, situational involvement and enduring involvement affect response involvement which represents, as described by Houston and Rothschild (1978:185), "… the complexity or extensiveness of cognitive and behavioural processes characterising the overall consumer decision process". Response involvement is the consequence of the inner state of being involved (Bloch & Richins, 1983:70).

It is, therefore, possible to conclude from the discussion above that CI, in terms of Houston and Rothschild's (1978) theoretical framework, has a causal affect on consumer behaviour, the effect of which is determined by the particular stage in the decision-making process.

4.5.2   Bloch and Richins' (1983) framework

Bloch and Richins (1983) developed a theoretical framework relating perceived product importance to both its sources and effects (Mittal & Lee, 1989:369), as illustrated in Figure 4.1 below.

Figure 4.1   A model of product importance
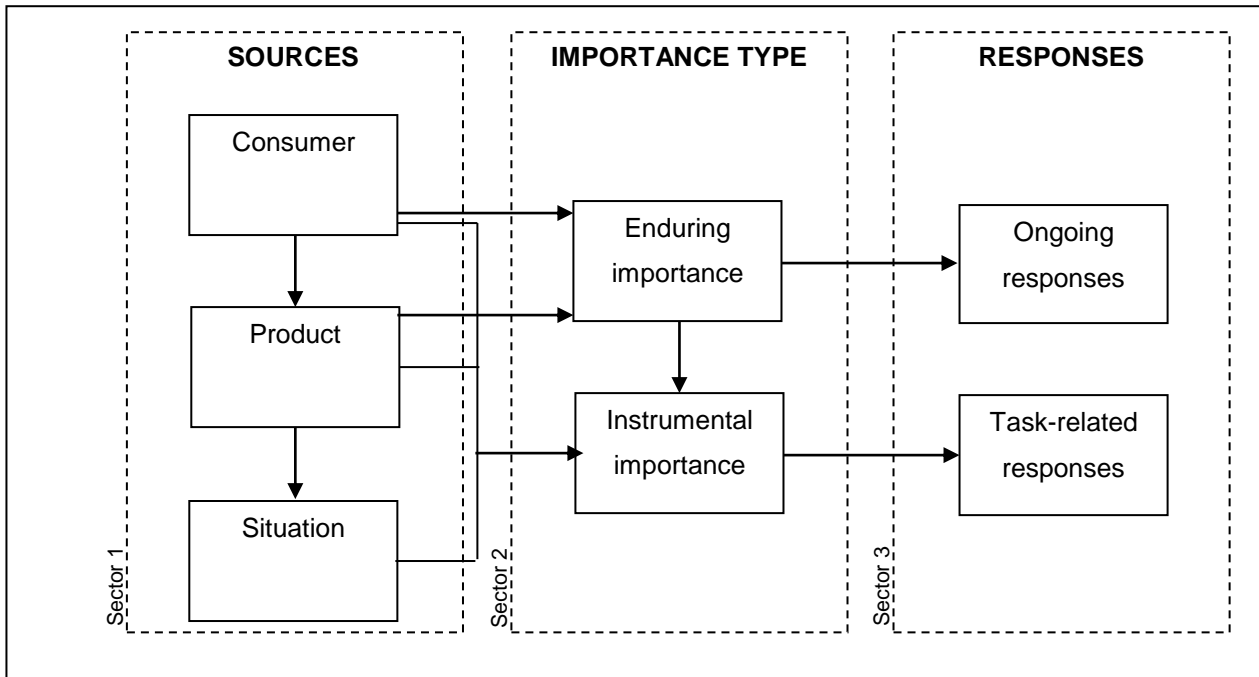
Divided into three sectors, the *Sources Sector* describes the causes of importance which are based, according to Bloch and Richins (1983:74), on the three dimensional perspective of, amongst others, Houston and Rothschild (1978). As such, the sources relate to consumer-, product- and situational characteristics. The *Importance Type Sector* situated in the centre of the model identifies two basic forms of product importance, as highlighted by Bloch and Richins (1983:72). The first form of product importance is enduring importance which relates to the ongoing, cross-sectional importance of a product based on the strength of its relationship to a consumer's values. Next is instrumental importance which relates to the temporary or situational importance of a product associated with the purchase and/or usage of a product.

On the right-hand side of the model, the *Responses Sector* describes the behavioural responses emanating from the importance types, which may be ongoing or task-related and affect both the attitudes and behaviours of consumers (Bloch & Richins, 1983:76).

Figure 4.2   Summary of the relationships among variables
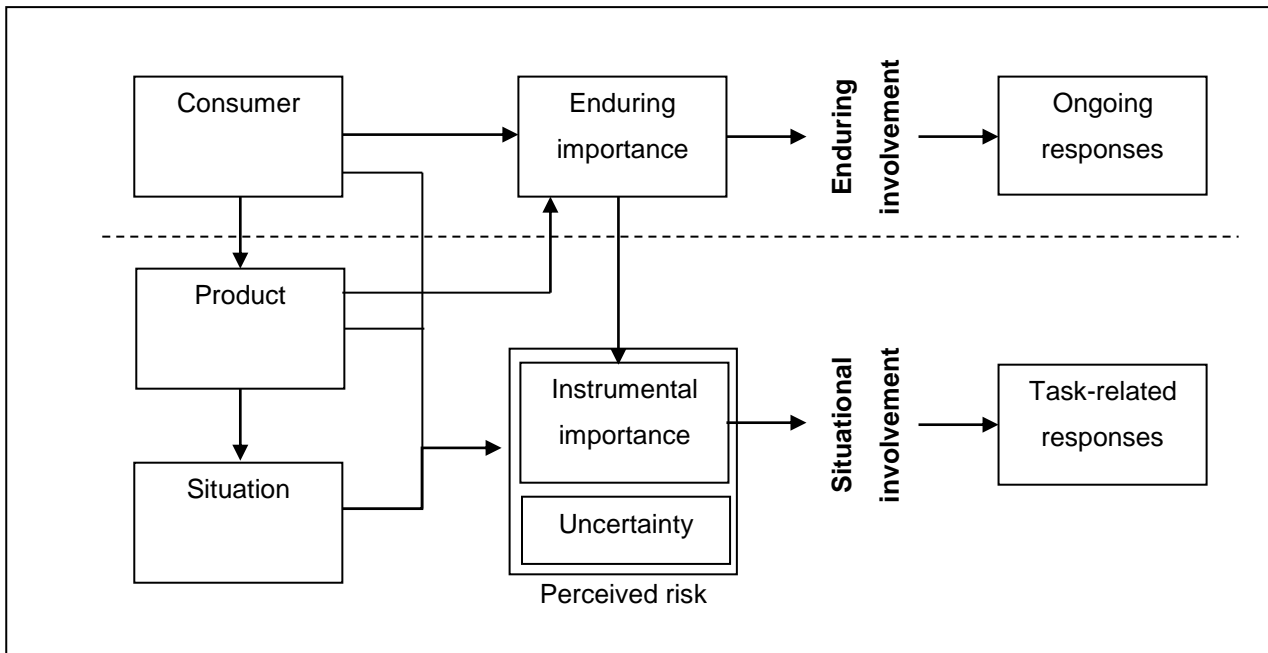
The relationships between the product importance variables are depicted in Figure 4.2. With enduring importance, perceptions are converted into lasting feelings of involvement related to product class which, in turn, affects attitudinal and behavioural responses. Instrumental importance and uncertainty, which relate to perceived risk, translate into temporary or situational feelings of involvement associated with either the product class or the purchase situation. These feelings of involvement, in turn, result in task-related responses in terms of attitude and behaviour analogous to Houston and Rothschild's (1978) situational involvement construct (Bloch & Richins, 1983:77).

It is, therefore, evident from Bloch and Richin's (1983) theoretical framework that CI, both enduring and situational, influences consumer behaviour which reflects the extent and complexity of decision-making.

4.5.3   Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) framework

"There is more than one kind of consumer involvement", asserted Laurent and Kapferer (1985:41) in their article that recommended the use of an involvement profile to define in greater detail the nature of the relationship that exists between a consumer and a particular product category. Whereas researchers were typically still thinking in terms of single indicators of involvement, Laurent and Kapferer (1985:43) postulated a four-faceted profile derived from the antecedent conditions of involvement as described earlier in Section 4.3, namely:

i.   Perceived product importance.
ii. Perceived product risk.
iii. Symbolic or sign value of the product.
iv. Hedonic value of the product.

Laurent and Kapferer (1985:52) highlighted that, contrary to simple predictions on consumer behaviour, involvement does not systematically result in expected behaviours. According to these authors, the effect of involvement cannot be predicted unless the antecedent conditions or facets of involvement are known.

4.5.4   Mittal and Lee's (1989) framework

The *Causal Model of Consumer Involvement* developed by Mittal and Lee (1989:373) is, as illustrated in Figure 4.3, a theoretical framework which distinguishes between forms of CI and its antecedents (sources) and consequences (effects). It is intended to be a unifying framework building on, and consolidating, the three earlier frameworks described above.

The *Sources* component, situated on the left-hand side of the model, encompasses the antecedents of involvement. Whereas Bloch and Richins (1983) considered sources as being related to the characteristics of products, situations and people, Mittal and Lee (1989:370) consider these characteristics to be one step removed in the causal effects chain. Instead, they consider the sources associated with consumer goals relating to the purchasing, owning, and using of products, namely utilitarian which is the physical

performance of the product; sign-value which is related to self-concept; and hedonic which is related to sensory pleasure, as being "… the most proximate antecedents".

Figure 4.3   The causal model of consumer involvement
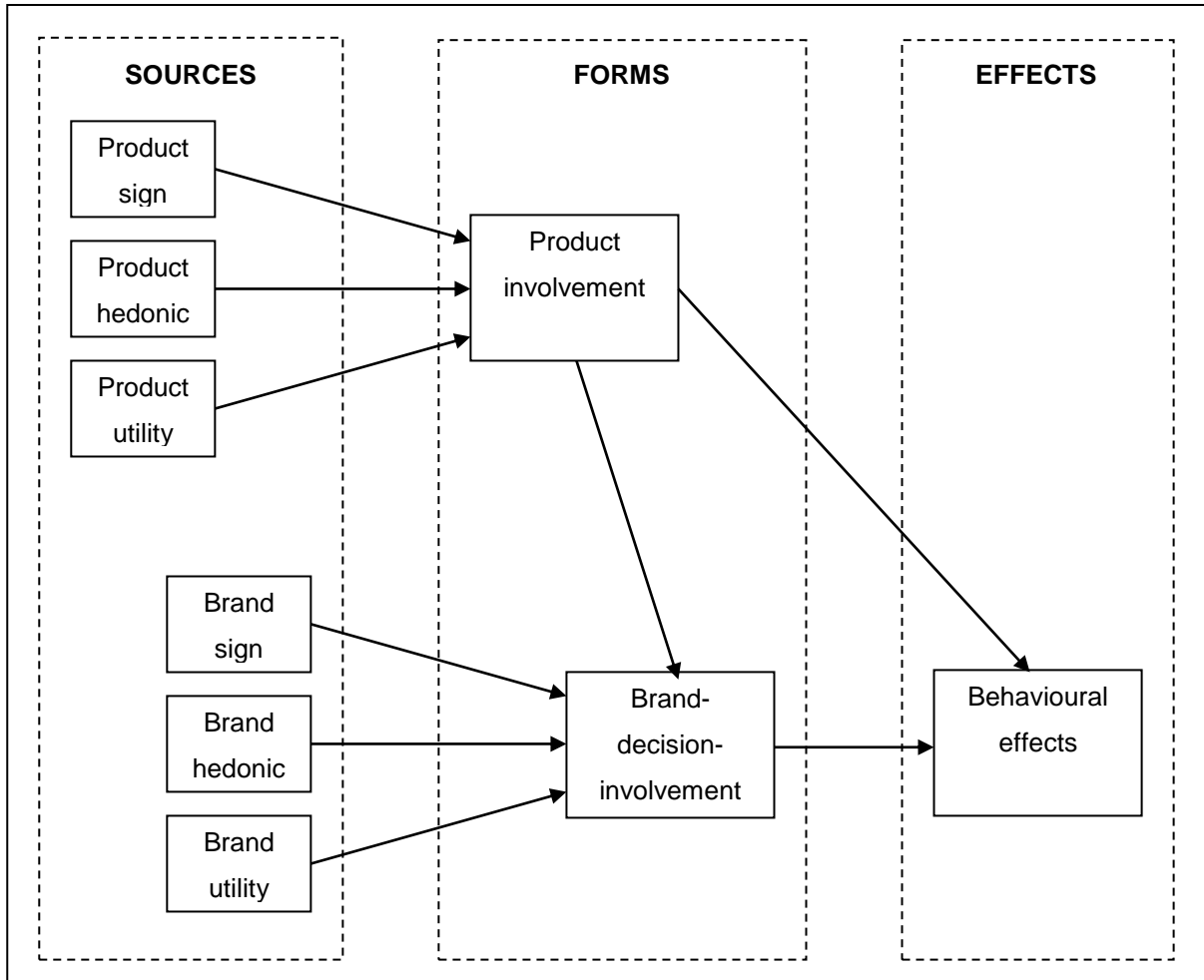
The central component of the model, *Forms*, contains two forms of involvement, namely product involvement and brand-decision involvement. While this distinction corresponds with the identification and separation of two distinct types of involvement by Houston and Rothschild (1978), it differs in that enduring and situational are not considered to be types of involvement, but rather qualifiers allowing situational variations in the use of either form of involvement (Mittal & Lee, 1989:365,369). The concept of brand-decision involvement also differs from the concept of instrumental importance determined by Bloch and Richins (1983) in that it is neither related to product importance nor a temporary perception.

Finally, on the right of the model is the *Effects* component. This describes the behaviours affected by involvement encompassing aspects such as the extensiveness of decision-making, brand commitment and shopping enjoyment. As with the earlier frameworks, it is also apparent from Mittal and Lee's (1989) model that CI has an influence on consumer behaviour.

4.5.5   <u>The Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model</u>

While each of the frameworks discussed in the previous section represented a restructuring and in some instances, a significant departure from earlier frameworks, the overall structure of these models is similar, with each describing a framework consisting of Antecedents (sources) – Involvement (forms) – Consequences (effects).

Drawing on this previous research, and in particular the model developed by Mittal and Lee (1989), Flynn and Goldsmith (1993:131) described the *Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model*, a framework that includes involvement as its central component between two sets of related variables, as illustrated in Figure 4.4. These variables are:

i.   *Antecedents* – considered to be motivating factors associated with consumer goals relating to the purchasing, owning, and using of products as identified by Mittal and Lee (1989). The satisfaction of these factors results in enduring involvement (Flynn & Goldsmith, 1993:130).

ii. *Consequences* – behavioural outcomes resulting from enduring involvement encompassing, for example, the extensiveness of decision-making, brand commitment and shopping enjoyment, as determined by Mittal and Lee (1989).

Figure 4.4   The A-I-C model of consumer involvement

Antecedents (Motivating factors)	Involvement	Consequences (Behavioural outcomes)
Product sign value Product hedonic value Product utility	Product involvement	Extensive decision-making Advertising interest Shopping enjoyment Social observation Brand commitment Product usage frequency Product opinion leadership Product innovativeness
Brand sign value Brand hedonic value Brand risk	Brand-decision involvement	

<u>Source:</u>   Adapted from Flynn and Goldsmith (1993:131)

In addition to the study conducted by Mittal and Lee (1989), only one other research study prior to the research undertaken by Flynn and Goldsmith (1993), had empirically tested the set of hypothesised relationships contained within the A-I-C model, namely the study conducted by Goldsmith, Emmert and Hofacker (1991). However, while both of these studies determined that the conceptual model failed to fit statistically, they did determine that there was sufficient empirical evidence to support many of the links between the constructs (Flynn & Goldsmith, 1993:131). Therefore, given the perceived importance of the topic of the perceived influence of consumer involvement on consumer behaviour, Flynn and Goldsmith (1993) also set out to replicate Mittal and Lee's (1989) study in order to determine the reasons for the failure of the two previous attempts to validate this model.

The findings of Flynn and Goldsmith's (1993) research determined that while the data did not fit the overall model due to an apparent lack of convergent and discriminant validity amongst the constructs and their individual indicators, the bivariate relationships encompassed in the model could be replicated. Based on these findings, Flynn and Goldsmith (1993:137 & 141) concluded that despite its apparent shortcomings "… the overall ideas contained in the A-I-C model may have value …" and indeed that: "The A-I-C model shows promise as an excellent theoretical tool for understanding several aspects of consumer behaviour". The authors recommended further study of the possible

antecedents of involvement; fresh insight into the affect of involvement on the professional clothing market; and the development of valid measurement scales.

Given that the involvement construct has now been discussed conceptually, it is now necessary to discuss the different measures that have been proposed to measure this construct. A few of these measures will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

4.6 MEASURES OF CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

Given that, as mentioned previously, the conceptualisation of Consumer Involvement (CI) varies from researcher to researcher, there are many different measures of CI. Some have operationalised involvement in terms of cognitive factors such as the perceived risk of a purchase; whereas others have operationalised involvement in respect of behavioural aspects, focusing on, for example, the search for and evaluation of information related to a product (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:229). While a number of instruments have been developed to measure involvement such as the Components of Involvement by Lastovicka and Gardner (1979); the revised Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII) composed by McQuarrie and Munson (1986); the Enduring Involvement Index developed by Bloch, Sherrell and Ridgeway (1986), the Purchase-Involvement scale proposed by Mittal and Lee (1989); and the New Involvement Profile (NIP) formulated by Jain and Srinivasan (1990), this section will discuss two of the more widely-used involvement measures, namely the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) and the Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) as well as a third involvement measure, the relatively newer International Consumer Involvement (ICI) scale, which was used for the purpose of this study.

4.6.1 <u>Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) – Zaichkowsky (1985)</u>

The PII is claimed by some authors such as Bienstock and Stafford (2006:209) to be "… the most widely used involvement scale …" and by Flynn & Goldsmith (1993:358) as "… one of the more widely used self-report measures …". It was developed by Zaichkowsky in

1985 in response to several problems researchers were facing at the time (Zaichkowsky, 1985:341-342), namely:

- The conflicting research results being obtained due to the diversity of involvement measures used.

- The inability of the existing measures to capture the entire involvement construct given that many of the instruments used were only single-item scales.

- The single-items scales being used typically suffered from low reliability while the reliability and validity of the few multi-items scales had not been determined.

Zaichkowsky's intention was to develop a multi-item scale which was "…standardised, general, valid …" and unaffected by the behaviour that results from involvement (Zaichkowsky, 1985:342). As such, it was intended to be context free (Bienstock & Stafford, 2006:210; Zaichkowsky, 1994:59) and to only measure the 'state' of involvement (McQuarrie & Munson, 1986:36; Zaichkowsky, 1994:59). It would, however, according to Aldlaigan and Buttle (2001:233) and Zaichkowsky (1985:342), be sensitive to the three assumed antecedent factors affecting the level of consumer involvement as discussed in Section 4.3, namely:

i. Personal.

ii. Product.

iii. Situational.

The PII focuses on individual-object involvement (Aldlaigan & Buttle, 2001:233) and is based on the general underlying theme of involvement, namely personal relevance (Zaichkowsky, 1985:342), as discussed in Section 4.2. The measure uses a semantic differential scale comprising of a series of 20 bipolar items, each measured by using a seven-point rating scale.

In terms of reliability, the measure achieved an average test-retest correlation of 0.90 across two subject populations while, in terms of validity, the measure demonstrated both content and construct validity (Zaichkowsky, 1985:349). However, while the reliability of the instrument has, according to Bauer *et al.* (2006:348) long been accepted, its validity

has been questioned. In this regard, a number of criticisms were subsequently raised concerning this measure, including:

- The absence of a multidimensional approach given that subsequent research has suggested a two-dimensional rather than a uni-dimensional structure, one being rational and the other one being emotional (Aldlaigan & Buttle, 2001:233; Bauer *et al.*, 2006:348; McQuarrie & Munson, 1986:37).

- The possibility of interpretational confounding whereby the PII contains items associated with an unrelated construct, in this instance attitude (McQuarrie & Munson, 1986:36).

- The appearance that some items used in the scale are redundant and, as such, the length of the scale can be reduced (McQuarrie & Munson, 1986:37; Zaichkowsky, 1994:59).

In order to address these and other criticisms, Zaichkowsky revised the PII scale. The number of scale items was reduced to just 10 through eliminating redundancies and by adjusting the items slightly, with all but one item excluded from the original scale (Zaichkowsky, 1994:67). Further, two dimensions were identified, encompassing both cognitive and affective items (Bienstock & Stafford, 2006:210).

In terms of internal reliability, the revised scale, as per the original scale, also achieved an average test-retest correlation of greater than 0.90 while, in terms of validity, still more testing of the convergent and discriminant validity of the PII is required (Bienstock & Stafford, 2006:210; Zaichkowsky, 1994:68).

4.6.2   <u>Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) – Laurent and Kapferer (1985)</u>

The Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP), along with the PII is, as mentioned previously, one of the more widely used consumer involvement measures. Developed by Laurent and Kapferer in 1985 the CIP focuses on individual-object involvement like the PII (Aldlaigan & Buttle, 2001:233). However, unlike Zaichkowsky (1985), these authors consider involvement to be a multi- rather than a uni-dimensional construct, suggesting that, based on their review of contemporary literature, consumers tend to differ according to both the level and type of involvement. As such, these authors suggest that rather than reducing

the measurement of involvement to a single dimension, or indicator, that an 'involvement profile' is used (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:41).

The CIP is based on the five antecedents of involvement identified by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) which were discussed briefly in Section 4.3, namely:
i.   Perceived importance.
ii. Perceived risk in terms of:
      a. perceived importance of negative consequences arising from making a poor decision.
      b. perceived probability of a poor decision.
iii. Perceived sign value.
iv. Perceived pleasure value.

In order to obtain a complete understanding of the nature of consumer involvement, a consumer's position on each of the antecedents is measured simultaneously and their involvement profile calculated using a multi-item instrument comprising 16 items and employing a five-point Likert scale to capture responses (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:43).

When comparing the CIP to the PII, only the facets concerning perceived importance and to a lesser extent, perceived pleasure value, are represented by the items comprising the PII (McQuarrie & Munson, 1986:36).

The quality of the multi-item scale was, according to Laurent and Kapferer (1985:44), satisfactory in that each scale achieved multi-product fit, while the Chronbach's alpha values measuring internal consistency varied between 0.72 and 0.90. In terms of trait and discriminant validity, the authors confirmed the former, but could not achieve the latter in that two factors, namely perceived importance and perceived risk (negative consequences of a mispurchase) loaded on the same factor. In this regard, analyses determined that these two factors should be merged to form a single scale which the authors named 'imporisk' (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:44-45). As such, only a four-factor rather than a five-factor structure for the CIP could be confirmed (Bauer *et al.*, 2006:348; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:45).

When compared to the PII, the CIP, although considered valid, has proven to be less reliable (Aldaigan & Buttle, 2001:237; Goldsmith & Emmert in Broderick, 2007:356) although it does yield more information and is also able to distinguish between the relative importance of some facets when compared to others (Aldaigan & Buttle, 2001:237).

4.6.3   International Consumer Involvement (ICI) scale – Broderick (2007)

The cultural invariance of instruments measuring consumer-involvement, including the two scales listed earlier in this section, namely Zaichkowsky's (1985) PII and Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) CIP, have not been demonstrated according to Broderick (2007:356). As such, this author set about developing a measure to enable the valid comparison of Consumer Involvement (CI) across national cultures (Broderick, 2007:356).

The first stage in Broderick's (2007:356) development process entailed the generation of a suitable item pool containing items extracted from existing CI instruments and items generated qualitatively by the author for each of the countries under investigation in the cross-national study. Numbering 110 in total, 96 of these items were then classified into four groups or types of involvement, namely enduring-, situational-, risk-, and normative-involvement by three independent judges. The items were then assessed for face validity and following this process, 38 items remained. These items were further reduced, following purification of the scale on pilot samples validated by split-half samples, to 12 measurement statements, grouped according to the four types of involvement. The statements were measured using a five-point Likert scale.

In terms of the internal validation of the instrument, the dimensionality and discriminant validity of the ICI was first assessed at the national-level using a series of confirmatory-factor models. In this regard, the chi-square fit confirmed the four-factor model. In terms of convergent validity, all of the factor loadings of the four-factor model were significant with t-values larger than 6.0 (Broderick, 2007:357,359). At the universal-level, the nature of the proposed four-factor model was also analysed and as with the national-level results, the four-factor model was confirmed as was the discriminant validity among the involvement constructs (Broderick, 2007:360).

The ICI scale was selected as the measurement scale for the purpose of this study because, in addition to the evidence of its cultural invariance as well as its apparent validity and reliability, it enabled a two-stage measurement of CI, differentiating between cognitive involvement and a subsequent involvement state in support of the conceptual model.

4.7 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview of the Consumer Involvement (CI) construct, discussing its origins, its antecedents and its different types. The chapter also discussed the development of a progression of theoretical frameworks that underpin CI and which culminated in the formulation of the A-I-C model, the conceptual framework employed for the purpose of this study. Finally, the chapter discussed the scales considered for the measuring of the CI construct.

The next chapter explores the variables influencing the decision-making process, both environmental factors and individual differences, based on the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model, with a particular focus on the third and final key construct of this study, Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO).

5 VARIABLES AFFECTING THE CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed Consumer Involvement (CI). Apparent from this discussion was that the involvement construct is influenced by a number of factors, including personal-, product- and situational factors. Consumer decision-making too is influenced by a number of variables, both external and internal, extending from family and social class through to individual attitudes and knowledge.

Using the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model of consumer behaviour described in Chapter 2 as its basis, this chapter highlights the environmental influences and individual differences affecting the consumer decision-making process. It then focuses exclusively on the third key construct related to this study, namely Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO).

5.2 FACTORS AFFECTING THE CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

The consumer decision-making process is affected by many different factors and determinants (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:86). Generally, these fall within two broad categories, namely external and internal influences, as represented in the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model.

5.2.1 Environmental influences affecting the consumer decision-making process

Environmental influences, according to Schiffman and Kanuk (2010:483), are sources of information and encompass not only the marketing activities of organisations, but also sociocultural influences which are non-marketing in nature. Similarly, Hawkins *et al.* (2007:26) describe environmental influences in the same manner although, as mentioned in the previous section, they also include demographics in this category. Unlike these authors, however, Blackwell *et al.* (2006:87) exclude marketing-mix activities from this

category as they do not consider these activities as having a direct influence on decision-making.

Similar to individual differences, external influences have been classified according to the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model for the purpose of this study. Each of the external influences is described briefly below:

i. *Culture* – national culture is defined simply by Hofstede (2001:9) as "… the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". This definition is expanded on by Schiffman and Kanuk (2010: 366) who further define culture as "… the sum total of learned beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct the consumer behaviour of members of a particular society". In this regard, culture impacts on individuals' decision-making by influencing, for example, their food and eating habits which in turn, influences their need recognition (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006: 102, 428).

ii. *Social class* – it is defined by Blackwell *et al.* (2006:468) as "… relatively permanent and homogeneous divisions in a society into which individuals or families sharing similar values, lifestyles, interest, wealth, status, education, economic positions, and behaviour can be categorised". The influence of this factor is particularly apparent in decision-making where desires often compete with consumers' needs (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:71).

iii. *Family* – it is defined as "… a group of two or more persons related by blood, marriage or adoption who reside together" (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:482; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:318). Within the context of consumer behaviour, family is important given that family units typically purchase and consume large quantities and varieties of products. But, perhaps more importantly, because family also heavily influences the purchase and consumption behaviour of individual family members (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:482). Indeed, according to Kotler (2000:165), family is the most influential of the consumer's primary reference groups.

iv. *Personal influences* – these are either individuals or groups of individuals, together referred to as reference groups, which exert a significant amount of influence on consumer behaviour. This is because social interaction and the desire to 'fit in' or please others, particularly within a group setting, affects the entire consumer decision-making process (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:522; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:95).

v. *Situation behaviours* – different purchase or consumption situations influence consumer decision-making depending on, for example, whether the product purchased is for work or leisure or where indeed the product is used or consumed (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:43, 87).

5.2.2 <u>Individual differences affecting the consumer decision-making process</u>

Individual differences, referred to by Schiffman and Kanuk (2010:484) as the psychological field, encompasses what researchers have identified as psychological influences or forces which affect the decision-making process (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:26; Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard, 2012:28). Some authors have also included physical characteristics as part of this category of influences (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:86) while others have included these under the category of external influences (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:26). In terms of this study, the classification of individual differences as represented in the CDP model has been adopted. Each of the individual differences is described briefly below.

i. *Demographics, psychographics, values and personality* – influencing each stage of the decision process, from need recognition through to post-consumption analysis, are the personal variables associated with each consumer which encompass gender; age and other demographic variables; their interests, opinions and other psychographics; as well as other personal variables such as their personal values and personality (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:236).

ii. *Consumer resources* – money is not the only resource that consumers spend. Consumers also spend time and thoughtfulness when purchasing products and services. The availability of each of these resources is, however, limited and as such, the allocation of these resources inevitably impacts on consumer motivation and behaviour (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:178). In this regard, resources impact on the search for information, for example, with the duration and extent of the search.

iii. *Motivation* (and involvement) – this is the driving force that compels consumers to take action in order to satisfy unfulfilled needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:106). According to Hawkins *et al.* (2007:364), it "… is the reason for behaviour". Its impact on decision-making is particularly relevant in terms of alternative evaluation. In this regard, as a consumer's motivation intensifies and their level of involvement increases, the size of the evoked set of brand alternatives increases (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:312).

iv. *Knowledge* – consumer knowledge is defined as "… the information stored in memory that's relevant to the purchase, consumption, and disposal of goods and services" (Blackwell *et al.* (2006:331). As such, the extent to which a consumer is knowledgeable or less knowledgeable influences a consumer's decision-making process. According to Blackwell *et al.* (2006:333-334), the affect of knowledge on consumer behaviour is extensive, influencing, for example, product choice and consumption.

v. *Attitudes* – attitudes are defined as "… a learned predisposition to behave in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way with respect to a given object" (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:396; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:246). Their affect on behaviour is mediated by intentions, with the more favourable a consumer's attitude towards a product, the stronger their intention to purchase it (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:375).

Cultural orientation, the result of personal learning, and personal beliefs, based on unique individual experiences, both affect consumer decision-making and consumer involvement. Together, they form the underlying components of the Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) construct discussed in the next section.

5.3   PERSONAL CULTURAL ORIENTATIONS

5.3.1   Defining Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO)

As with Consumer Involvement (CI), the definition of Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) also varies from researcher to researcher. According to Sharma (2010:788), there is no consensus on either how to define this construct or, on how PCO differ from the national-level cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980; 2001).

Sharma (2010:792), for example, defines PCO as consisting of "… shared cultural values and norms, as well as personal beliefs based on unique individual experiences …" while Yoo and Donthu (2005:10), for example, define personal cultural orientations simply as "… an individual's [cultural] values that can be found across countries or cultures". While both of these definitions highlight the central role of cultural or social values in determining cultural orientations, Yoo and Donthu (2005:10) use cultural values and cultural orientations interchangeably. These definitions also reflect the fundamentally different

viewpoints of the respective authors with regard to national- versus individual-level cultural values. Sharma (2010), for example, highlights the importance of personal values or beliefs in determining cultural orientations, an element completely ignored by Yoo and Donthu (2005). While conceding that individuals do display a similar amount of heterogeneity in terms of cultural orientations as countries do, Yoo and Donthu (2005) insist that cultural values at the individual-level should be identified in terms of Hofstede's (1980; 2001) national-level dimensions of culture (Yoo & Donthu, 2005:11).

The two components underlying the construct of PCO, namely values and culture, are described in more detail in the proceeding section.

5.3.2 The components of Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO)

Cultural orientation is the result of personal learning which occurs through the interaction between an individual and the other entities within the social environment such as families and communities. At its centre, is a system of societal values affected by norms and standards shared by the majority of the population (Yoo & Donthu, 2005:10).

5.3.2.1 *Values*

Values, according to Rokeach (1977:24), are the guides and determinants of almost all forms of social behaviour including, amongst other facets, the making of moral judgements, the influencing of others and the comparison of self with others. They represent the responses of individuals and societies to coping with, what Schwartz (1994:21) refers to as 'three universal requirements', namely the biological needs of individuals; the necessity for social interaction; and the need for not only the smooth functioning but also the survival of groups. As such, together with either norms (Arnould, Price & Zinkhan, 2004:73; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:429) or learned beliefs and customs (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:75; Schiffman *et al.*, 2012:342), values are considered a key component of culture.

Defining values

Values, according to Rokeach (1973:5), are defined as "… an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence". While, according to Schwartz (1994:21), in extending the work of Rokeach (1973), values are defined as "… desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity".

Implicit in both of these definitions is that values are goals or end-states. As such, even though their definition is perhaps an oversimplification, Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard's (2012:176) definition of values as "… the goals we live for …" is especially appropriate in simply summing up this section.

Instilling values

Values are, according to Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:81), instilled from culture. Indeed, according to these and other authors such as Blackwell *et al.* (2006:430), values are not inherited but learnt through socialisation. These are the processes whereby individuals "… develop their values, motivations, and habitual activity" (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:430). In terms of the transference of values, this particular process is indicated in Figure 5.1. According to this model, cultural or societal values are transmitted via the so-called 'cultural transfusive triad' which encompasses families as well as religious and educational institutions. These institutions, together with early lifetime experiences, an individual's peers and the media, then directly influence and affect which personal values an individual will acquire and internalise. It is these adopted values which then influence how an individual will, for example, live or shop. These values, in turn, shape the values of future societies (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:430-431).

Figure 5.1   The values transfusion model
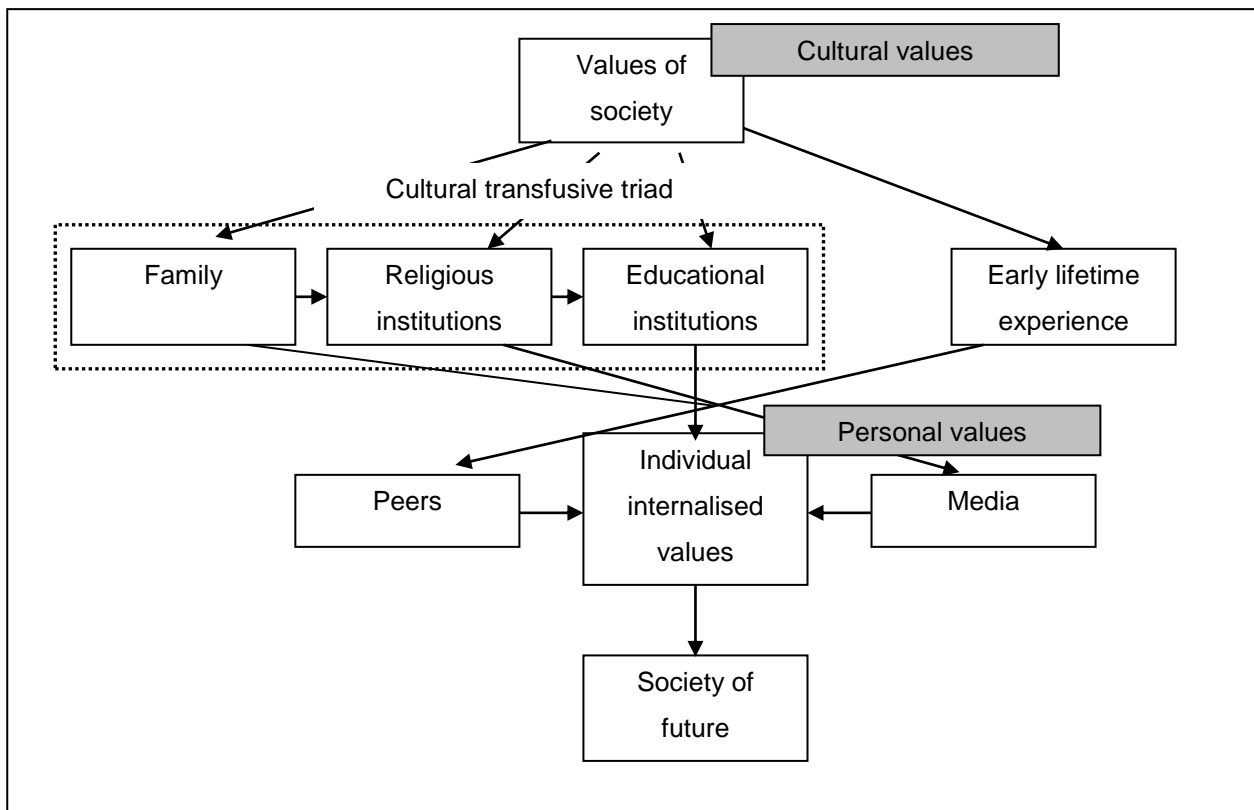
Source: Adapted from Blackwell *et al*. (2006:430).

Lacking from the above model, although addressed in part by the inclusion of early lifetime experiences, is the influence of unique learning experiences, as highlighted by Schwartz (1994:21), on the acquiring of values by individuals. The influence of learning on all aspects of the individual should not be disregarded given that, according to Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:155), every facet of an individual's behaviour is dependent on what they have learnt. Further, given that culture is learned (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:343) it follows that values, as a key element of culture (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:429) are as well.

Cultural versus personal values

Also implicit in the definitions of values provided previously is that there is a hierarchy of values, with both Rokeach (1973:5) and Schwartz (1994:21) distinguishing between the

- 86 -

individual and society. According to Blackwell *et al.*(2006:274) and Craig and Douglas (2012:61) two levels of values exist, namely:

- *Social (cultural) values* – these are the values that are widely shared across groups of individuals or across societies (Arnould *et al.*, 2004:82; Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:429) and are considered to be dominant (Schwartz, 1994:21) and which are transferred to individuals via the process of socialisation as indicated in Figure 4.1 above.

- *Personal values* – these values describe "normal" behaviour, reflecting the choices individuals make, influenced by the variety of social values to which they are exposed (Blackwell, *et al.*, 2006:274), as indicated in Figure 5.1.

5.3.2.2   *Culture*

Defining culture

Culture is considered by Hawkins *et al.* (2007:27) to be "… the most pervasive influence on consumer behaviour", an opinion which is supported by Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham (2007:277) who state that it "… constitutes the broadest influence on many dimensions of human behaviour".

One of the earliest (Soares *et al.*, 2007:277) and today one of the most widely accepted (Craig & Douglas, 2012:49) definitions of culture is that provided by Edward Tylor who in the 1880s defined culture as "… that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society (Tylor in Craig & Douglas, 2012:49). Subsequent definitions by researchers, according to Soares *et al.* (2007:277), share the view of culture being all-inclusive and affecting all aspects of human existence within societies.

The study of culture has led to the identification of six major views of culture, each based on different conceptualisations of the construct (Craig & Douglas, 2012:49). Divided into two broad categories, namely contextual and compositional, as indicated in Figure 5.2, these views differ in terms of their perspective and in terms of their definitions of culture.

Figure 5.2   Views of culture
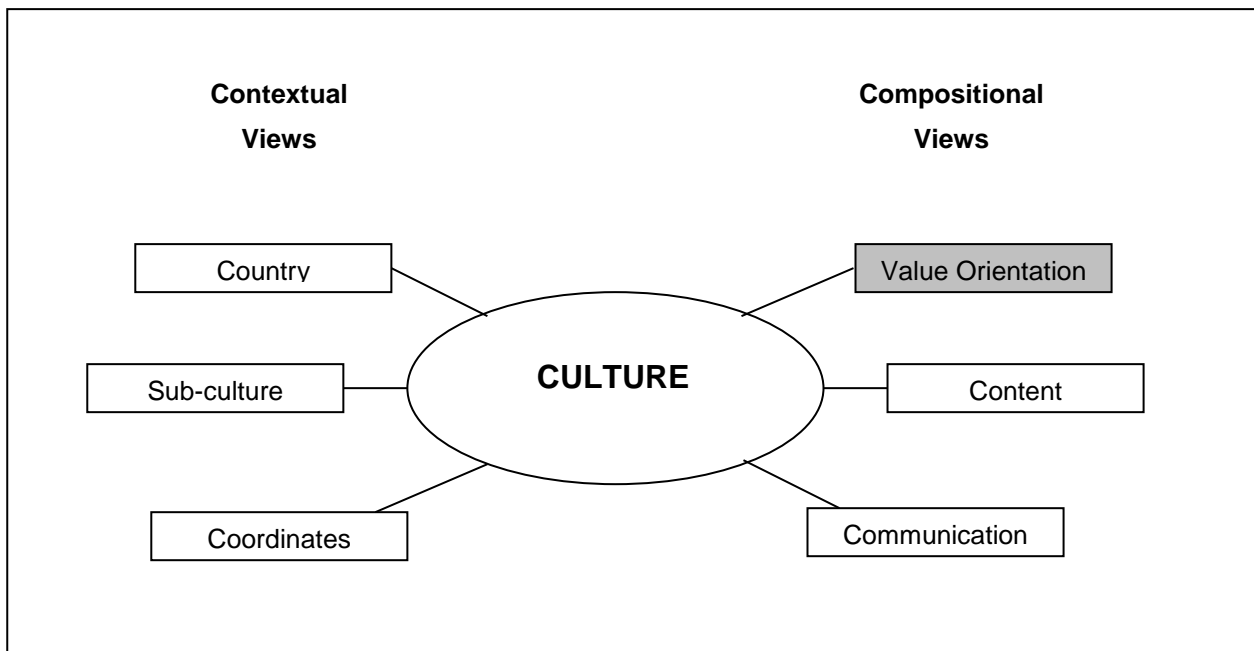
Source: Adapted from Craig and Douglas (2012:50).

The two broad categories are closely interrelated with the contextual views, namely country, sub-culture and coordinates, defining culture in terms of physical space encompassed by physical boundaries separating social entities, while the compositional views, namely value orientation, content and communication, are concerned with the cultural components identifiable within the physical space (Craig & Douglas, 2012:49). Although the view of culture as being synonymous with country is considered to be particularly significant in cross-cultural consumer behaviour studies, the primary focus of this study is the value orientation perspective. Rather than equating culture with political boundaries which may not necessarily be equivalent (De Mooij, 2011:38), this perspective conceptualises and defines culture according to societal values, considered central in understanding cultural variation (Aaker in Craig & Douglas, 2012:50).

Culture as value orientation

i.   This view of culture is concerned with cognition and cognitive processes as well as the universality of models and conceptual frameworks when applied across different societies (Craig & Douglas, 2012:50). In and amongst the vast quantity of research conducted in studying this view of culture, the most influential has been the work undertaken by Hofstede (Craig & Douglas, 2012:54). Hofstede (2001:9) defines culture

as "… the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". The mind, in this instance, is representative of not only the head but of the heart and hands as well. As such, this definition encompasses beliefs, attitudes, skills and a system of values (Hofstede; 2001:10). Kluckhohn's (in Hofstede; 2001:9) definition, upon which Hofstede's (2001:9) definition is based, is widely accepted and provides an anthropological viewpoint of what culture entails. In this regard, Kluckhohn defines culture as "… patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional ideas and especially their attached values". As such, according to Hofstede (2001:10), culture, as illustrated in Figure 5.3, consists of an invisible core of values surrounded by a number of layers referred to as "practices" which are visible to an observer but for which their cultural meanings are invisible and are therefore subject to interpretation or misinterpretation.

Figure 5.3   The different levels of culture
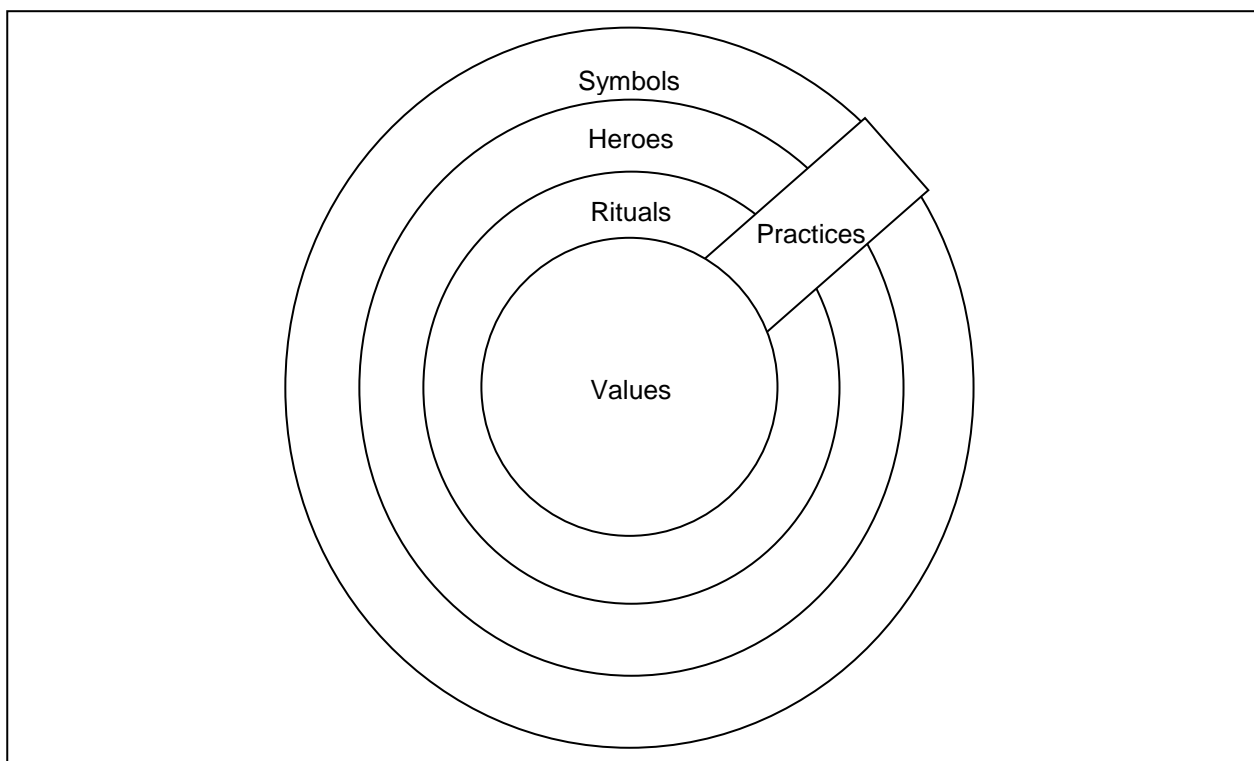
Source: Adapted from Hofstede (2001:11).

These practices include (Hofstede, 2001:10):

i. *Symbols* – this outer, 'superficial' layer contains words, gestures, pictures and objects such as, for example, fashion and language. These symbols contain complex meanings only recognised by those individuals that form part of a particular cultural group. This later is regarded as superficial because, for example, new symbols are easily developed while older ones often disappear.

ii. *Heroes* – this middle layer encompasses persons or characters, either real or imaginary, that serve as 'cultural heroes' and, as such, models for behaviour within a particular culture or cultural group. Examples of fictional heroes include Charlie Brown in the United States of America or Asterix in France.

iii. *Rituals* – this inner layer contains all of those collective activities that are accepted as being socially essential as they ensure that individual members of society are kept bound by society's rules or behaviour or norms. Examples of rituals include the manner in which individuals greet and pat one another.

Based on the above conceptualisation, and his understanding of culture, Hofstede (1980; 2001) developed a framework of national culture comprising four, later expanded to five, dimensions intended to reflect the "collective patterning of the mind" and which contained the core values underlying differences in, amongst other things, decision-making (Craig & Douglas, 2012:54-55).

Cultural dimensions

There are different means of categorising cultures. According to De Mooij (2011:40), cultures can be categorised according to either value categories or according to dimensions of national culture. Although similar to cultural dimensions, value categories are not considered to be true dimensions as they are generally not statistically independent (De Mooij, 2011:41). Cultural dimensions, on the other hand, are empirically verifiable and relatively independent and are rooted in what Hofstede (2001:29) refers to as the 'basic problems' such as relating to authority, an understanding of self, and dealing with conflict (Inkeles & Levinson in Hofstede, 2001:31) that all societies are expected to cope with and which, according to De Mooij (2011:41), impact on the functioning of groups and individuals within these societies.

Since the identification of the basic problems of societies listed above, many different dimensional models have been developed, both one- and multi-dimensional, including, for example, the "five value orientations" proposed by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (in De Mooij, 2011:41), the "general theory of action" described by Parsons and Shils (in Hofstede, 2001:30) and the "four elementary forms of sociability" identified by Fiske (in De Mooij, 2011:41). Of all these models, however, only a few provide national results that can, according to De Mooij (2011:42), be used in the analysis of what the author describes as "… consumption differences …" and "… other aspects of consumer behaviour across cultures". These models include the "five dimensions of national culture model" developed by Hofstede (1980; 2001), the "Schwartz value scale" developed by Schwartz (1994) and the GLOBE model developed by Robert House (2004). Each of these is discussed briefly below:

- *Five dimensions of national culture model* – developed by Hofstede (1980; 2001), it is still the most widely accepted classification of national culture today (Craig & Douglas, 2012:61; De Mooij, 2011:43) and the overwhelmingly dominant culture metric (Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011:194). Employing a survey instrument that contained questions about work-related values, it is based on the analysis of 116 000 questionnaires collected as part of a survey process undertaken twice, in around 1968 and 1972, amongst employees of subsidiary companies of the International Business Machines (IBM) corporation in 72 countries (Hofstede, 2001:xix,41; Sharma, 2010:788). Using *post hoc* factor analysis of the average national scores obtained for each work-related value, Hofstede identified four main dimensions according to which country cultures differ, namely *individualism-collectivism*, *power distance*, *masculinity-femininity*, and *uncertainty avoidance* (Fischer & Poortinga, 2012:157; Hofstede, 2001:xix,41; Sharma, 2010:788; Venaik & Brewer, 2013:471). Later, around 1985, the results of Bond's Chinese Value Survey led to the identification and inclusion of a fifth dimension, independent of the other four, on which national cultures differ. Initially called *Confucian dynamism*, the name of this dimension was later changed to *long-term versus short-term orientation* (Sharma, 2010:788; Hofstede, 2001:351).

- *Schwartz Value Scale (SVS)* – developed by Schwartz (1994) as an alternative approach or schema for deriving cultural dimensions of work-related values (Craig & Douglas, 2012:61; De Mooij, 2011:51) It is grounded in the work of Rokeach who in

the 1970s developed the Rokeach Value Scale comprising 36 values which were considered to be "… reasonably comprehensive and universally applicable …", and describing the desirable end states and the means of achieving these (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:274; Rokeach in Schwartz, 1994:20). Challenging the simplicity of Rokeach's classification of terminal and instrumental values (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:275), Schwartz set about classifying value contents, grouping values into value types according to the type of motivational goal they express in response to the three universal requirements described previously in this chapter. As such, Schwartz identified 10 value types or domains as indicated in Figure 5.4 (Craig & Douglas, 2012:61; Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:84; Schwartz, 1994:21).

Figure 5.4   Structural relation of the motivational value types and higher-order value types
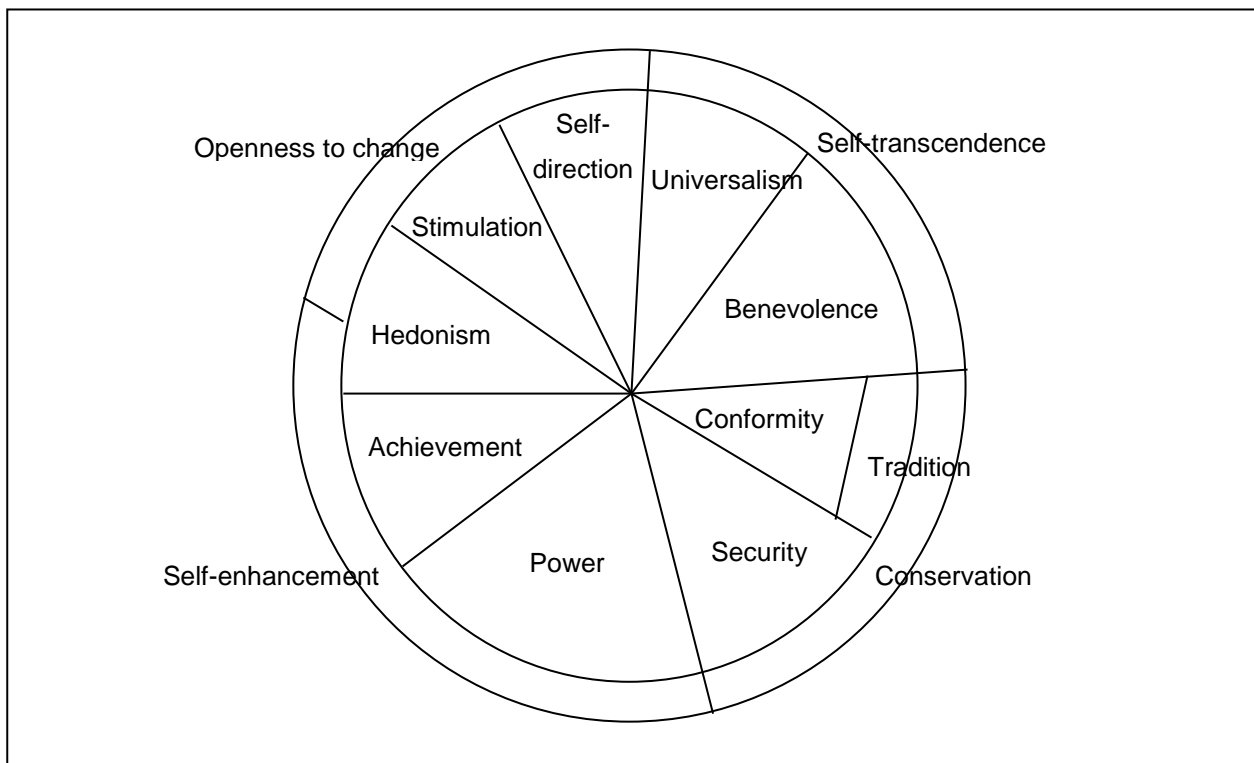
Source: Adapted from Blackwell *et al.* (2006:276), Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:85) and Schwartz (1994:24).

These value types were then organised according to two higher-order value types or bipolar dimensions with each combining two or more of the value types (De Mooij, 2011:51). Schwartz then undertook a cross-cultural survey consisting of 56 values drawing from these value types. Analysis reduced the number of values with nearly

equivalent meanings across the 54 countries in which the survey took place to just 45. These were then reduced into seven value types or motivational domains, namely embeddedness, autonomy, mastery, harmony, hierarchy and egalitarianism. By reducing these value types further, three cultural dimensions can be identified at the societal level, namely *autonomy versus embeddedness (conservatism)*, *hierarchy versus egalitarianism*, and *mastery versus harmony* (Craig & Douglas, 2012:61; De Mooij, 2011:51-52).

- *GLOBE model* – developed by House (2004), it is a large-scale dimensional model (De Mooij, 2011:42) and one of the most extensive of its type (Craig & Douglas, 2012:62). Intended to provide insights into leadership and societal culture (De Mooij, 2011:42), it is based on an analysis of the data obtained from 17 300 managers occupying middle management roles in some 951 different organisations (Craig & Douglas, 2012:62). The model comprises nine underlying cultural dimensions identified from the study, namely *power distance*, *uncertainty avoidance*, *humane orientation*, *collectivism I & II*, *gender egalitarianism*, *future orientation*, and *performance orientation* (De Mooij, 2011:42; Craig & Douglas, 2012:62).

In evaluating these models the following comparisons can be made:

i. Developed from aggregated responses to questions drawn from a series of large, national samples (De Mooij, 2011:42; Parker in De Mooij, 2011:53).

ii. All the models based on the etic approach which involves comparing and describing cultures based on external criteria (De Mooij, 2011:34).

iii. Questions were based on different value orientations – Hofstede's (2001) value orientations were based on underlying differences with regard to managerial practices, organisational structure and decision-making while Schwartz (1994) grouped values according to underlying motivational goals. In terms of the GLOBE study, the value orientations were based on leadership styles and influence (Craig & Douglas, 2012:55, 61-62)

iv. Global dimensions contained within the models show strong underlying similarities. Schwartz's (1994) *autonomy versus embeddedness* and *hierarchy versus egalitarianism* dimensions, according to Craig and Douglas (2012:61-62), closely resemble Hofstede's (1980; 2001) *individualism-collectivism* and *power distance* dimensions, respectively while *mastery versus harmony* corresponds with the

- 93 -

masculinity-femininity dimension. In terms of the GLOBE model, the *uncertainty avoidance* dimension is strongly correlated to the embeddedness dimension identified by Schwartz (1994) while the *power distance* dimension shows a strong correlation with Hofstede's (2001) own *power distance* dimension (Craig & Douglas, 2012:62).

While the focus of this section was on values and value dimensions at the national-level, it is evident from the literature that the characteristics of national-level constructs cannot simply be projected onto individuals however convenient that may be. This is because these constructs may not fully represent the diversity in the cultural orientations of these individuals. Indeed, the assumption that cultural dimensions would also be applicable to individuals, results in what has been labelled as "ecological fallacy" (Bond, 2002:75; De Mooij, 2011:36; Sharma, 2010:788; Venaik & Brewer, 2013:469). As such, the next section focuses on the measurement of individual-level culture.

5.3.3   Measures of Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO)

While Hofstede's (1980, 2001) model is regarded as the dominant metric of culture (Yoo *et al.*, 2011:194), its use, and also that of the GLOBE model, at the individual level is strongly opposed by numerous authors who all advocate the use of scales which have been developed for the purpose of measuring PCO (Sharma, 2010:788; Venaik & Brewer, 2013:470; Yoo *et al.*, 2011:194). In this regard, the following two scales will be considered, namely the individual cultural values scale (CVSCALE), which appears to both be widely accepted and reliable (Sharma, 2010:788), and the Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) scale which is described as being particularly useful in a marketing context and whose validity has been well established (Ungerer & Strasheim, 2011:45).

5.3.3.1   *The individual cultural values scale (CVSCALE) – Yoo and Donthu (1998)*

This scale was developed by Yoo and Donthu in 1998 in order to capture the 'richness' of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) typology of national-level culture at the individual level (Yoo *et al.*, 2011:196).

The reasons for adopting Hofstede's (1980, 2001) typology are, according to Donthu and Yoo (1998:179) and Yoo *et al.* (2011:194), manifold and include:

- Its coverage and extension of major conceptualisations of culture.
- Its dimensions having been developed and confirmed empirically.
- Its overwhelming popularity and adoption as the most important theory of culture types (Søndergaard in Donthu & Yoo, 1998:179; Søndergaard in Yoo *et al.*, 2011:194).

At the individual level though, it is Yoo and Donthu's (1998) belief that the dimensionality of individual cultural values is the same as in Hofstede's (1980, 2001) typology (Yoo & Donthu, 2002:94). As such, Yoo and Donthu (1998:182-183) view this typology as being equivalent to an individual respondent's values and value orientations and, therefore, its application at the individual level as being both reasonable and acceptable. Yoo and Donthu's (1998) belief is based on the methodology originally employed by Hofstede (1980, 2001) in developing his typology of national culture, which focused on the individual and individual-level concepts such personal values and personality (Donthu & Yoo, 1998:183). However, aware that simply applying Hofstede's (1980, 2001) metric at an individual level would result in numerous methodological problems, the CVSCALE only measures cultural dimensions at the individual level without comparing them to national culture (Yoo *et al.*, 2011:195). This is made possible through the use of a technique developed by Leung and Bond in the late 1980s known as individual level multi-cultural factor analysis (Donthu & Yoo, 1998:183; Yoo *et al.*, 2011: 198).

In developing the scale, the authors began by generating a large pool of appropriate items, chosen and modified from numerous sources, including (Yoo *et al.*, 2011:197):

- The HERMES value questions.
- The Values Survey Module 1994.
- The Chinese Culture Connection's original items, as included in their work published in 1987, for the long-term orientation dimension.

Thereafter, each of the items, some 230 in total, were reviewed by the authors and other researchers familiar with Hofstede's (1980, 2001) typology in terms of their fit to comparable cultural dimensions, with 125 items eventually being selected (Yoo *et al.*,

2011:198). These were then, as part of the preliminary scale development process, further refined with just 39 reliable items being retained for the main scale development process – nine for power distance; six for uncertainty avoidance; six for masculinity, eight for collectivism, and 11 for long-term orientation (Yoo *et al.*, 2011:198). Finally, using new, independent samples, the remaining items were tested, purified and finalised. The result of this process was the CVSCALE, a 26-item scale comprising five cultural orientation factors (Yoo *et al.*, 2011:198-199).

In terms of reliability, the CVSCALE proved to be highly reliable, with Chronbach's alpha values for each of the cultural dimensions varying between 0.78 and 0.91 across both of the samples (Yoo *et al.*, 2011:1999). Soares *et al.* (2007:283), in describing their evaluation of the CVSCALE, also determined that the reliability of the measure was acceptable to good. In terms of the measurement invariance of the scale, there was sufficient invariance of the factor loadings and, as such, it was determined that meaningful cross-cultural comparisons using the scale could be made (Yoo *et al.*, 2011:202). Similar findings in terms of reliability and validity were made by Yoo and Donthu (2002:96) in an earlier study.

However, despite its popularity and apparent reliability there are, according to Sharma (2010:788-789; 2011:352), a number of limitations associated with this scale, namely:

i. Instead of measuring collectivism and individualism as two distinct cultural dimensions, as recommended by Oyserman, Coon and Kemmelmeier (in Sharma, 2010:789), the scale only measures collectivism with individualism being treated as its opposite.

ii. Rather than reflecting items pertaining to personal values and cultural orientations, as recommended by Oyserman and Shavitt, Lalwani, Zhang and Torelli (in Sharma, 2010:789), most of the items contained in the scale reflect social norms.

iii. No evidence of either construct validity or cross-cultural equivalence of the scale has been provided.

5.3.3.2   *Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) scale – Sharma (2010)*

The Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) scale was developed by Sharma in 2010 in response to doubts about the validity of using Hofstede's (1980, 2001) national-level culture dimensions to measure individual cultural values (Sharma, 2010:787) given, for example, the increasing evidence of the diversity of cultural values to be found amongst individuals within societies (Sharma, Wu & Su, 2016:225). As discussed previously, the characteristics of national-level constructs cannot simply be projected onto individuals and that doing so results in what has been labelled as "ecological fallacy". As such, Sharma set about extending Hofstede's (1980, 2001) framework by reconceptualising the five nation-level cultural dimensions as 10 individual level PCO (Sharma, 2010:789, 800) as listed in Table 5.1.

The reconceptualisation of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) dimensions of national culture into individual-level PCO, is discussed briefly below.

i. *Individualism/Collectivism* – this dimension of national culture, according to Hofstede (2001:209), is concerned with the manner in which an individual relates to the collectivity that is dominant in a particular society. In individualistic cultures, an individual's identity is based on their own personal values, whereas in collectivistic cultures, it is based on societal values (De Mooij, 2011:47). Although viewed by Hofstede (1980, 2001) as opposites, Sharma (2010:789) is of the opinion that individuals contain both of these cultural elements. Sharma (2010:789) views these elements as being statistically independent and as such redefines the dimension at the individual level as two negatively correlated dimensions, namely Independence and Interdependence.

Table 5.1 **Sharma's (2010) reconceptualisation of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) five dimensions of national culture**

Hofstede's Dimensions of National Culture	Sharma's Personal Cultural Orientations
1) Individualism/Collectivism	1) Independence
	2) Interdependence
2) Power Distance	3) Power
	4) Social inequality
3) Uncertainty Avoidance	5) Risk aversion
	6) Ambiguity intolerance
4) Masculinity/Femininity	7) Masculinity
	8) Gender equality
5) Long- vs Short-term Orientation	9) Tradition
	10) Prudence

Source: Adapted from Sharma (2010:789-792).

ii. *Power Distance* – this dimension is concerned with human inequality within society encompassing, amongst other things, prestige, wealth and power (Hofstede, 2001:79). In cultures characterised by high power distance the giving and acceptance of authority, for example, is embraced whereas in countries characterised by low power distance authority is viewed as being negative with a greater emphasis on equal rights and opportunity (De Mooij, 2011:47). In referring to prior research which distinguishes cultures based on Horizontal-Vertical dimensions in terms of the value and emphasis they place on power and equality, both integral to power distance, Sharma (2010:790) redefines the dimension as two positively correlated dimensions, namely Power and Social Inequality.

iii. *Uncertainty Avoidance* – this dimension relates to the extent to which individuals feel threatened by, and try to avoid, situations which are characterised by uncertainty and ambiguity. Cultures characterised by strong uncertainty avoidance typically require rules and formal structures whereas those characterised by weak uncertainty avoidance require less rules and are less structured (De Mooij, 2011:49). Sharma (2010:791), based on the work of other researchers such as, for example, Keh and Sun (2008) and de Mooij and Hofstede (2002), redefines this dimension as two positively

correlated dimensions at the individual level, namely Risk Aversion and Ambiguity Intolerance (Sharma, 2010:790-791).

iv. *Masculinity/Femininity* – this dimension is concerned with the duality of the sexes in terms of the effect that biological differences have on the emotional and social roles of the two genders (Hofstede, 2001:279). Societies which are masculine are characterised by, for example, an emphasis on performance and achievement whereas feminine societies are characterised by, for example, an attitude of caring for others and a desire to improve the quality of life (De Mooij, 2011:48). Sharma (2010:791) is of the opinion that masculinity and femininity are not the opposite ends of a continuum and that Hofstede (1980, 2001) has confused this dimension with gender equality. As such, Sharma (2010:791) reconceptualises Hofstede's (1980, 2001) original dimension as two independent dimensions at the individual level, namely Masculinity and Gender Equality.

v. *Long- vs Short-term Orientation* – this dimension is related to the long- or short-term focus of an individual's efforts (Hofstede, 2001:29). Cultures which have adopted a long-term orientation are characterised by, for example, thrift whereas at the other end of the continuum, cultures are characterised by spending now rather than saving (De Mooij, 2011:49). Based on the work undertaken by Bearden, Money and Nevins (2006) who identified two sub-dimensions of a long-term orientation, namely tradition and planning, Sharma redefined Hofstede's (1980, 2001) dimension as two positively correlated dimensions with the first being Tradition and the second being Prudence (Sharma, 2010:792).

Sharma (2010:792) began the process of developing this instrument by first identifying an initial pool of items, drawn from an extensive review of cross-cultural psychology and consumer behaviour literature and from a number of in-depth interviews, which encompassed different aspects of personal cultural orientations in terms of shared cultural values and norms and personal beliefs. Through a process of assessing the face and content validity of the items the number of items was reduced from the original 96 to 58. Following a further process of scale refinement and purification, the new ten-dimensional scale comprising 40 items, measured using a 7-point Likert scale, was developed (Sharma, 2010:792-793).

The new PCO scale demonstrated, according to Sharma (2010:796), both convergent and discriminant validity. Further, the scale demonstrated cross-cultural measurement equivalence and, as such, was suitable for cross-cultural comparison (Sharma, 2010:796-798). The validity, reliability and cross-cultural measurement equivalence of the PCO was highlighted by Yoo *et al.* (2011:196-197).

A criticism of Sharma's (2010) reconceptualising Hofstede's (1980, 2001) five dimensions of national culture model as 10 dimensions or personal cultural orientations was raised by Yoo *et al.* (2011:196-197) as these authors are of the opinion that by doing so, Sharma (2010) had made it difficult and confusing to actually measure Hofstede's original national-level dimensions.

The PCO scale was selected for the purpose of this study. In addition to its stated validity, reliability and cross-cultural measurement equivalence, the scale was chosen as it is consistent with the reconceptualisation of two of Hofstede's (1980; 2001) national cultural dimensions as four personal cultural orientations, as reflected in the theoretical framework conceptualised for the purpose of this study.

5.4   SUMMARY

This chapter intended to describe the different variables affecting the consumer decision-making process which generally fall within two broad categories, namely environmental influences and individual differences. Once these variables had been briefly discussed, the discussion within the chapter focussed on the Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) construct. In this regard, the chapter provided a detailed definition, described its different components, and finally the different scales used to measure this construct at the individual level.

The next chapter discusses the study's research problem, conceptual framework, research objectives, both primary and secondary, and the research hypotheses.

6 RESEARCH PROBLEM, CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous four chapters described the theory and literature relevant to this study. Chapter 2 discussed consumer behaviour and, in particular, a number of traditional and contemporary consumer behaviour models. Apparent from this discussion was that the focus is increasingly on the decision process and on the individual and environmental variables affecting this process. Chapter 3, based on the Consumer Decision Process (CDP) model of consumer behaviour, discussed the consumer decision-making process and its associated stages. This was followed by a discussion on the first of the key constructs related to this study, namely Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS). Chapter 4, discussed the second of the key constructs, Consumer Involvement (CI). Beginning with a definition, the chapter then discussed the antecedent factors affecting a consumer's involvement level as well as the different types of involvement. Next, the chapter discussed the theoretical frameworks underpinning the involvement construct, introducing the Antecedents–Involvement–Consequences (A-I-C) model, before concluding by discussing the measures of CI. The last of the literature chapters, Chapter 5, described the variables affecting the decision-making process before focussing on Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO), the third and final key construct.

Described as a sequence of clearly defined steps or stages (Burns & Bush, 2010:24; Cooper & Schindler, 1998:56; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:31), the research process followed in undertaking this study is outlined in Figure 6.1. In addition to highlighting the successive steps in the process, the figure also highlights which chapters in this document address each particular step. Chapter 6 addresses the first three steps beginning by defining the research problem. Next, it focuses on the conceptual framework which serves as the basic scheme directing the study's empirical research. The chapter then lists the primary and secondary research objectives followed by a discussion of the individual research hypotheses. Lastly, it provides a summary of the secondary research objectives and their related hypotheses.

Figure 6.1   The research process

The research process flowchart organized by chapter:

Chapter 6

Step 1
Define the research problem
(Chapter 6, Section 6.2)

Step 2
Formulate the conceptual framework
(Chapter 6, Section 6.3)

Step 3
Determine the research objectives and research hypotheses
(Chapter 6, Section 6.4)

Chapter 7

Step 4
Determine the research design
(Chapter 7, Section 7.2)

Step 5
Determine the research methodology: Design the data collection method
and instrument (Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1)

Step 6
Determine the research methodology: Determine the sampling plan
(Chapter 7, Section 7.3.2)

Step 7
Determine the research methodology: Design the data analysis approach
(Chapter 7, Section 7.3.3)

Chapter 8

Step 8
Analyse and interpret the data
(Chapter 8)

Chapter 9

Step 9
Prepare the research findings
(Chapter 9)

Step 10
Discuss the conclusions and limitations of the research findings
(Chapter9)

Source: Adapted from Burns and Bush (2010:24), Cooper and Schindler (1998:56), and Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:31)

6.2   DEFINE THE RESEARCH PROBLEM (STEP 1)

The research problem is the very cornerstone on which a research study is built. It provides an emphatic statement of what the ultimate goal of the research effort is (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:48). Chapters 3, 4 and 5 highlighted several aspects related to consumer behaviour, with particular focus on Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS), Consumer Involvement (CI) and Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO), as these constructs are of key importance for this research. In terms of this study, the research problem is the lack of understanding of the relationship between PCO and CDMS through CI. This lack of understanding stems from largely unknown relationships between individual-level culture and CDMS, between individual-level culture and CI and between CI and CDMS.

In order to address the research problem, it was imperative to apply a theoretical framework that combined all these different aspects of consumer behaviour into one. For this purpose, the Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model, as described in Chapter 4, was adopted.

6.3   FORMULATE THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK (STEP 2)

In response to Flynn and Goldsmith's (1993) recommendations, this study intends to provide an increased understanding of the influence of involvement on consumer behaviour by firstly, applying the three constructs used in the A-I-C model, and secondly, by considering alternative measurement scales for the respective constructs which have proven to be both valid and reliable in previous empirical research. The two stages followed in applying the model to the conceptual framework for this study, are described below:

6.3.1   <u>Stage 1: Identifying the A-I-C constructs for the conceptual framework</u>

The first stage in applying the A-I-C model to the conceptual framework for the study was to identify the relevant Antecedents, Involvement and Consequences constructs. Several researchers identified characteristics or factors that serve as motivating factors (or antecedents) to involvement, and the fact that involvement influences behaviour (or has

consequences) (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Zaichkowsky, 1986). The key constructs identified for inclusion in the conceptual framework are represented in Figure 6.2 below.

Table 6.2   Conceptual framework – key constructs
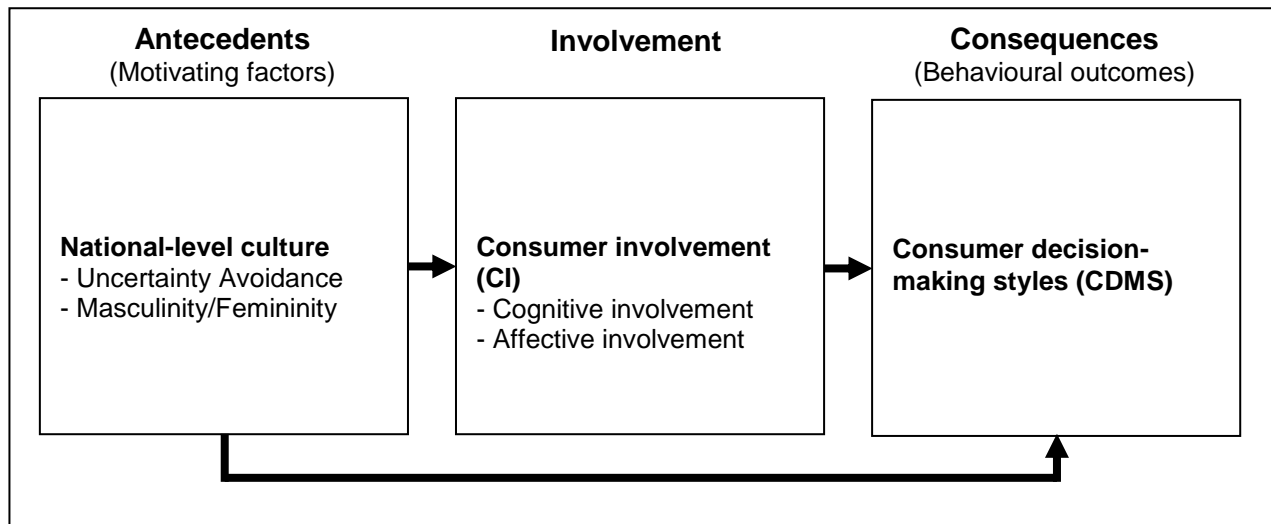
With regard to the Antecedents in the A-I-C conceptual framework, this study identified culture (discussed in Chapter 5: Section 5.3.2.2) as the main construct. Despite the expectation that cultural structures and consumer involvement are significantly related (Pieter, Baumgartner & Doug in Broderick *et al.*, 2007:748), the relationship between culture and involvement is mostly unexplored (Coulter, Price and Feick in Sharma, 2011:349). Indeed, Coulter, Price and Feick (2003:152,155) had posited that the origins of involvement were grounded in macroenvironmental factors such as cultural and gender ideologies, and in social networks. These factors and social networks would then, within the context of the consumer's personal history and circumstances, influence the consumer's ideological positions which would, in turn, influence involvement. More recent research undertaken by Broderick (2007) has also demonstrated the influence of culture at a national level on consumer involvement (Sharma, 2011:349). In fact, according to Broderick (2007:353), two of the five dimensions of national culture identified by Hofstede (2001) can be related to consumer involvement, namely Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity. Yet, despite the apparent benefit of understanding the impact of cultural differences on consumer involvement, there is little research in this regard and this

relationship remains mostly unresearched. For this purpose, national-level culture was included as the Antecedent in the A-I-C conceptual framework.

Next, the second construct in the A-I-C model, namely Involvement (as discussed in Chapter 4) was identified for inclusion in the conceptual framework. Several studies distinguished between cognitive and affective involvement (Broderick, 2007; Durvasula, Andrews, Lysonski & Netemeywer, 1993; Zaichkowsky, 1987). Cognitive involvement encompasses informational processing activities related to purchase decision-making, while affective involvement is concerned with the emotional aspects related to purchasing an object (Zaichkowsky in Kim & Sung, 2008:506-507).

To complete the A-I-C model, the final construct related to Consequences, namely CDMS (as discussed in Chapter 3: Section 3.3) was included in the conceptual framework. Extant literature confirms that involvement had become increasingly important as a construct which explained consumer behaviour (Broderick & Mueller, 1999:97; Mittal & Lee, 1989:363; O'Cass, 2000:546) and which was also integral to consumer decision-making (Broderick, 2007:344), influencing consumer decision-making styles (Bauer *et al.*, 2006:351-352; Gupta *et al.* (2010:32).

The application of the A-I-C model is relevant because, due to the globalisation of consumer markets and the resulting diversification of consumer segments, the effect of culture on consumer behaviour has increased significantly (Sharma, 2010:788). This growing trend was also identified by Yoo and Donthu (2005:9) who stated that culture had been widely incorporated into marketing literature and business practices, and had further been identified as an antecedent to consumer behaviours and attitudes. Broderick (2007) also recognised the effects of culture on consumer behaviour. In referring to the research undertaken by, amongst others, Zaichkowsky and Sood in the 1980's and Steenkamp, Hofstede and Wedel a decade later, Broderick (2007:352) concluded that these effects were considerable.

The direct relationship between culture and consumer decision-making was also considered (as indicated in Figure 6.2). In extending the research undertaken by Leo *et al.* (2005), Leng and Botelho (2010) used four of Hofstede's (1984) national cultural

dimensions and the CSI framework developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986) to explore the relationship between national level culture and consumer decision-making styles. According to the results of this study, there is evidence for the application of Hofstede's (1984) cultural dimensions to CDMS. As such, the culture to which a consumer belongs influences CDMS (Leng & Botelho, 2010:272).

Later research set out to examine the relationship between cultural traits and tourism decision-making (Correia, Kozak & Ferradeira, 2011:433). In acknowledging the findings of Leo *et al.* (2005), these authors also concluded that (national-level) cultural traits influence decision-making styles (Correia *et al.*, 2011:443). Finally, research undertaken by Correia, Kozak & Ferradeira (2011) and Podrug (2011:37) also came to the conclusion that cultural values influence decisions and decision-making styles through an analysis of Hofstede's dimensions of national culture and Ali's (1993) decision-making style typology, respectively. From this, it is evident that the direct link between culture and consumer decision-making was appropriate to consider in this study.

Once the main constructs were identified, the specific variables in terms of how they can be operationalised within the A-I-C model were considered.

6.3.2 Stage 2: Identifying the variables for the A-I-C constructs in the conceptual framework

During this next stage in the application of the A-I-C model, the focus was to operationalise the different constructs to align with the purpose of the research. The identified variables are outlined in Figure 6.3.

With regard to culture as the identified Antecedent in the A-I-C conceptual framework, the effect of national culture on consumer decision-making styles are particularly apparent in previous studies (Cheryl, Bennett & Hartel in Anić, Ciunova-Suleska & Rajh, 2010:104; de Mooij, 2000; de Mooij & Hofstede, 2002; Leo *et al.*, 2005:35). For the purpose of this study, two dimensions of national culture have been identified as being related to consumer involvement, namely Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity. However, there is a need to measure culture at the individual level, and not just at the

national level. In this regard, only a single study undertaken by Zhang *et al.* (2013) could be found which addressed culture at the individual level, and then only focusing on Hofstede's individualism-collectivism cultural dimension. For the purpose of this study,

Table 6.3   Conceptual framework – measured variables

Antecedents (Motivating factors)	Involvement		Consequences (Behavioural outcomes)
Personal cultural orientations (PCO) **-** Uncertainty Avoidance ▪ Risk Aversion (RA) ▪ Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) - Masculinity/Femininity ▪ Masculinity (MAS) ▪ Gender Equality (GE)	**Cognitive involvement** Risk Involvement (RI) Normative Involvement (NI)	**Affective involvement** Situational Involvement (SI) Enduring Involvement (EI)	**Consumer decision-making styles** - Brand Loyalty (BL) - Brand Consciousness (BC)

Source: Adapted from Flynn and Goldsmith (1993:131)

both the dimensions of national culture that have been identified as being related to Consumer Involvement (CI), namely Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity, were included as Antecedents in the A-I-C framework. In order to operationalise these Antecedents at the individual level, each cultural dimension was reconceptualised as four individual Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) as suggested by Sharma (2010:790-791). The individual variables were Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) (related to Uncertainty avoidance) as well as Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE) (related to Masculinity/Femininity). RA is the extent to which individuals are hesitant to take risk. AI is the extent to which individuals are able to bear situations that are ambiguous and uncertain (Sharma, 2010:791; Yoo & Donthu, 2005:16-17). MAS is the extent to which values within a society represent express masculine characteristics while GE is the extent to which the two genders are considered to be equal in terms of, for example, their social roles (Sharma, 2010:791).

As mentioned in Stage 1 of the application of the A-I-C model to the conceptual framework of this study, the CI construct entailed both cognitive and affective involvement. In this

regard, Broderick (2007) developed a nomological framework of involvement which distinguished between two types of cognitive involvement namely Risk Involvement (RI) (related to product risk) and Normative Involvement (NI) (related to the importance of a product). In terms of affective involvement, Broderick (2007) differentiated between Situational Involvement (SI) (related to the situation in which the product is purchased/used) and Enduring Involvement (EI) (concerned with a product and the extent to which it relates to a consumer's values). Further, in terms of Broderick's (2007) framework, RI is related to SI in that the importance or probability of product risk would affect the level of involvement. While, in terms of NI, the importance of the product class in relation to, for example, a consumer's values, would directly affect the level of EI (Broderick, 2007:348).

Finally, the variables for the Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) as the Consequences of the purchase behaviours of consumers had to be selected. For this purpose, the work undertaken by Sproles and Kendall (1986) in which they identified two mental orientations of consumer decision-making characterising a consumer's approach towards choosing brands, namely Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC), was used as guide. In this case, BL relates to a brand-loyal consumer orientation together with habitual decision-making, as described in Chapter 3: Section 3.3.1, while BC relates to price-quality consumer orientation and a penchant for purchasing expensive, well-known brands, as highlighted in Chapter 3: Section 3.3.1. The decision to only focus on these two characteristics of CDMS was explained in Chapter 3: Section 3.3. As such, branded clothing[4] was the product category selected for the purpose of this study,

---

[4] Branded clothing was selected as the product category for this study because firstly, the original items included in the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) were concerned with fashion and secondly, the two decision-making style orientations selected were both concerned with brands.

6.4 DETERMINE THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES (STEP 3)

6.4.1 <u>The primary and secondary research objectives</u>

The overarching research objective, as presented in Chapter1: Section 1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES, is to determine the relationship between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) through Consumer Involvement (CI). In order to achieve this overarching objective it is necessary to firstly, determine the relationship between PCO (exogenous latent variable) and CDMS (endogenous latent variable) and secondly, to determine the relationship between PCO (exogenous latent variable), CI (both exogenous and endogenous latent variable) and CDMS (exogenous latent variable). These relationships are presented in Figure 6.4. Given the complexity of the research problem being investigated it is necessary, as suggested by Leedy and Ormrod (2010:52), to divide the problem into a number of smaller sub-problems. Therefore, each of the secondary research objectives has been grouped together with the relevant primary research objectives, as has been done below.

6.4.1.1 *Primary research objective 1 (PO1): determine the relationship between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Decision-Making Styles (CDMS)*

The related secondary research objectives are:
- Secondary research objective (SO1.1): determine the relationship between Risk Aversion and Brand Loyalty
- Secondary research objective (SO1.2): determine the relationship between Risk Aversion and Brand Consciousness
- Secondary research objective (SO1.3): determine the relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance and Brand Loyalty
- Secondary research objective (SO1.4): determine the relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance and Brand Consciousness
- Secondary research objective (SO1.5): determine the relationship between Masculinity and Brand Loyalty

- Secondary research objective (SO1.6): determine the relationship between Masculinity and Brand Consciousness
- Secondary research objective (SO1.7): determine the relationship between Gender Equality and Brand Loyalty
- Secondary research objective (SO1.8): determine the relationship between Gender Equality and Brand Consciousness

6.4.1.2 *Primary research objective 2 (PO2): determine the relationship between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO), Consumer Involvement (CI) and Consumer Decision-Making Styles (CDMS)*

The related secondary research objectives are:

- Secondary research objective (SO2.1): determine the relationship between Risk Aversion and Risk Involvement
- Secondary research objective (SO2.2): determine the relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance and Risk Involvement
- Secondary research objective (SO2.3): determine the relationship between Risk Involvement and Situational Involvement
- Secondary research objective (SO2.4): determine the relationship between Situational Involvement and Brand Loyalty
- Secondary research objective (SO2.5): determine the relationship between Situational Involvement and Brand Consciousness
- Secondary research objective (SO2.6): determine the relationship between Masculinity and Normative Involvement
- Secondary research objective (SO2.7): determine the relationship between Gender Equality and Normative Involvement
- Secondary research objective (SO2.8): determine the relationship between Normative Involvement and Enduring Involvement
- Secondary research objective (SO2.9): determine the relationship between Enduring Involvement and Brand Loyalty
- Secondary research objective (SO4.10): determine the relationship between Enduring Involvement and Brand Consciousness

Figure 6.4   Path diagram (including hypotheses)
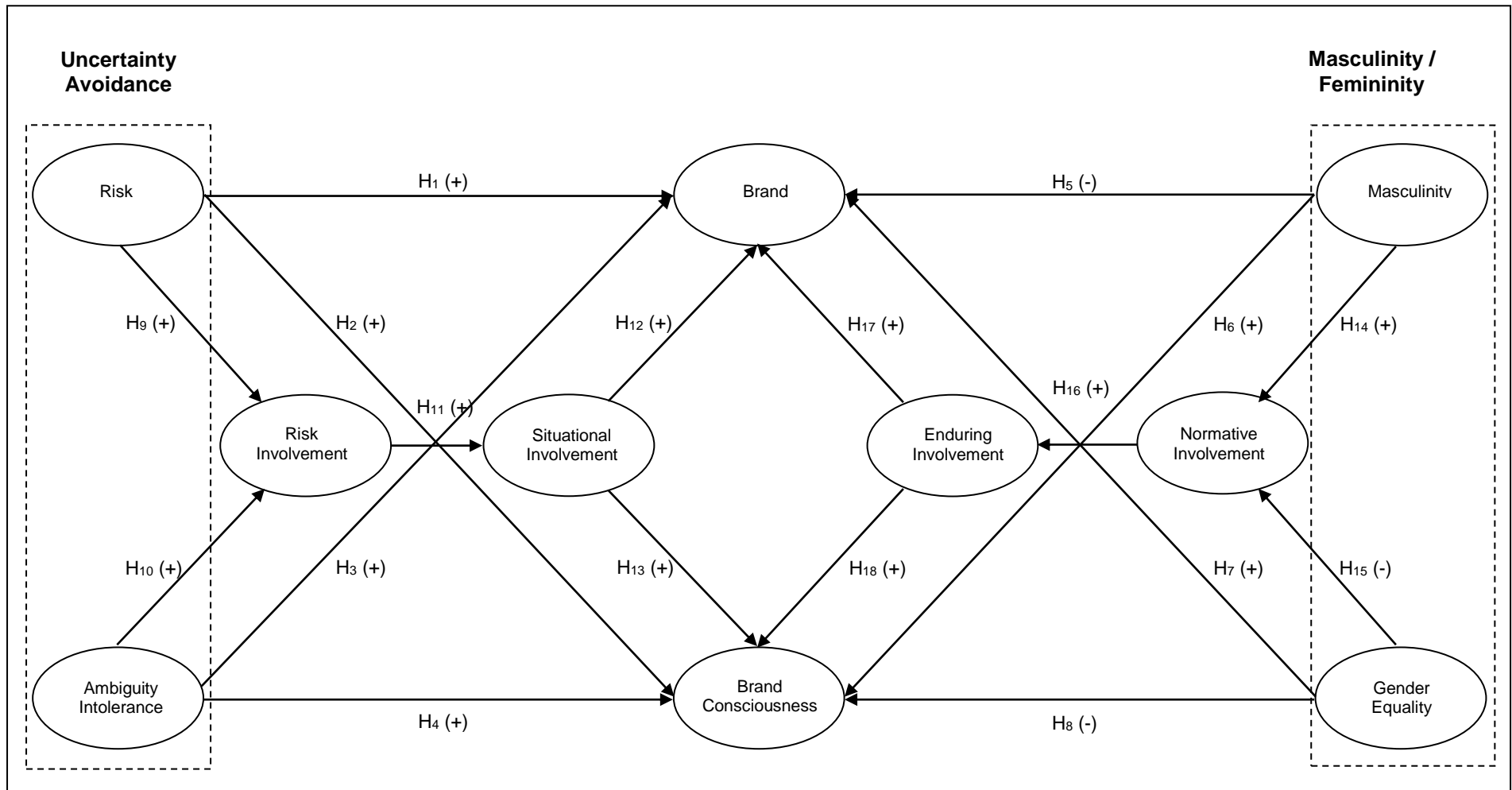
6.4.2 <u>The research hypotheses</u>

Research hypotheses relate to propositions about concepts formulated for empirical testing that may be judged either true or false (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:43). As such, they are considered to be logical suppositions which provide preliminary explanations for the concepts and relations being researched (Leedy & Ormond (2010:4). In terms of this study and the proposed Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) based conceptual framework, the determination of the research hypotheses is described below.

6.4.2.1 *Applying the A-C component in the A-I-C framework*

The first eight hypotheses relate to the A-C component of the A-I-C framework. In this regard, the first Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO), as an Antecedent, is Uncertainty Avoidance. For the purpose of this study, Uncertainty Avoidance is measured at the individual level by means of two sub-constructs, namely Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) (Sharma, 2010:791; Yoo & Donthu, 2005:16-17). RA, as defined in Section 6.3.2, relates to the reluctance of individuals to either assume risk or make risky decisions (Sharma, 2010:791). AI, as defined in Section 6.3.2, relates to the extent to which individuals are able to tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty (Sharma, 2010:791). The second PCO, is Masculinity/Femininity. For the purpose of this study, Masculinity-femininity is also measured at the individual level by means of two sub-constructs, namely Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE) (Sharma, 2010:791; Yoo & Donthu, 2005:16-17). MAS, as defined in Section 6.3.2, relates to the dominance of 'masculine' values expressed as assertiveness, self-confidence, aggression and ambition (Sharma, 2010:791) while, GE, as defined in Section 6.3.2, relates to the extent to which men and women are perceived as being equal. In other words, as stated by Sharma (2010:791), it relates to the equality of gender roles.

In terms of the direct relationships between PCO and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) (the A-C in the A-I-C framework), a number of relationships can exist. Firstly, there is the direct relationship between Risk Aversion (RA), as an Antecedent, and CDMS, as a Consequence.

Brand Loyalty (BL), in addition to being related to a consumer's desire to simplify their lives (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:91), is also considered to be a risk-reduction strategy, consistent with its characteristics as a CDMS (Leo *et al.*, 2005:43; Sproles & Kendall, 1986:[8]). As such, at a national level, it is consistent with Hofstede's (1980, 2001) Uncertainty Avoidance cultural dimension (Leo *et al.*, 2005:43). This view is also supported by Leng & Botelho (2010:267) who also established a link between BL, risk (related to Hofstede's Power Distance dimension) and Uncertainty Avoidance. Based on the findings from the studies conducted by both Leng and Bothelo (2010) and Leo *et al.* (2005), a relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and BL was confirmed.

Conceivably, the relationship between RA (as a subconstruct of Uncertainty Avoidance) and BL will also exist at the individual level. Indeed, it is expected that a consumer's propensity for risk will influence their CDMS, as determined by Sproles and Kendall (1986).

With regard to the second CDMS, namely Brand Consciousness (BC), a relationship between RA and BC is also expected. BC reflects a consumer's orientation that equates price to quality and, as such, the purchase of expensive, well-known brands. While brands convey a sense of status and prestige, they also provide a sense of familiarity, thereby reducing a consumer's risk when purchasing products and services (Leo *et al.*, 2005:39). It is plausible that the relationship between RA (as a subconstruct of Uncertainty Avoidance) and BC will not only exist at the national level but also at the individual level as well.

From the evident relationship between RA, as an Antecedent, and CDMS, as a Consequence, it is hypothesised that:

H$_1$: There is a positive relationship between Risk Aversion (RA) and Brand Loyalty (BL)
H$_2$: There is a positive relationship between Risk Aversion (RA) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

Secondly, in terms of the direct relationships between PCO and CDMS, there is an anticipated relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance (AI), as an Antecedent, and CDMS, as a Consequence.

BL, as discussed previously in this section, is related to Hofstede's (1980, 2001) national cultural dimension of Uncertainty Avoidance (Leng & Botelho, 2010:267; Leo *et al.*, 2005:43). As is BC which, like BL, is considered to be a risk reduction strategy, as it is not only related to a consumer's orientation towards buying brands that symbolise prestige and quality but also to brands that symbolise low price (Leo *et al.*, 2005:39). Indeed, a link between BL, BC, risk and Uncertainty Avoidance was established with the findings of the research undertaken by Leo *et al.* (2005), concluding that differences in a culture's level of Uncertainty Avoidance will affect the level of BL and BC. It is, therefore, conceivable to believe that the relationship between AI (as a subconstruct of Uncertainty Avoidance) and both BL and BC will also exist at the individual level. Indeed, it is expected that a consumer's propensity for tolerance will also affect their CDMS.

From the evident relationship between AI, as an Antecedent, and CDMS, as a Consequence, it is postulated that:

H_3: There is a positive relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

H_4: There is a positive relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

Thirdly, in terms of the direct relationships between PCO and CDMS, there is an anticipated relationship between Masculinity (MAS), as an Antecedent, and CDMS, as a Consequence.

BL is associated with a feeling of commitment as well as with the frequency and consistency exhibited by a consumer in purchasing a particular brand (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:92). Consumers whose decision-making style can be characterised as BL have typically adopted a particular brand which they are likely to purchase on a habitual basis (Sproles & Kendall; 1986:[8]). While research undertaken by Mittal and Lee (1989) has

determined the existence of a statistically significant relationship between Enduring Involvement (EI) and consumer behaviour, in particular brand commitment, it is unlikely that consumers who can be defined as Masculine (MAS) (Sharma, 2010:791) will demonstrate ongoing commitment to a particular brand. Whereas these individuals are likely to purchase products that reflect their status and success (de Mooij, 2004:34; Hofstede, 2001:311), they are unlikely to do so in a manner which is either habitual or brand-loyal (Steenkamp, Hofstede & Wedel in Broderick, 2007:354). However, while the construct brand commitment differs from BL, as highlighted previously, it is conceivable that a statistically significant relationship exists between MAS and BL.

Similarly, a statistically significant relationship is expected to exist between MAS and BC. This is because a BC consumer orientation relates to the preference of buying expensive, well-known brands, indicative of the Masculinity/Femininity dimension of national culture which values status as a means of demonstrating success (de Mooij, 2004:34; Hofstede, 2001:311). At the individual level MAS too is characterised by the masculine values associated with, amongst other things, ambition (Sharma, 2010:791). As such, consumers who demonstrate a high degree of MAS will attempt to demonstrate their material success through the consumption of expensive luxury products and services (Steenkamp, ter Hofstede & Wedel in Sharma, 2010:791).

From the evident relationship between MAS, as an Antecedent, and CDMS, as a Consequence, it is therefore plausible to submit that:

H$_5$:   There is a negative relationship between Masculinity (MAS) and Brand Loyalty (BL)
H$_6$:   There is a positive relationship between Masculinity (MAS) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

Finally, in terms of the direct relationships between PCO and CDMS, there is an anticipated relationship between Gender Equality (GE), as an Antecedent, and CDMS, as a Consequence.

BL is, as highlighted previously, associated with commitment. Indeed, consumers who exhibit a BL decision-making style are likely to purchase a particular brand on a habitual

basis (Sproles & Kendall; 1986:[8]). At a national level, cultures described as having a feminine orientation have been characterised as having a preference for relationships and the purchasing of products and services for use rather than status (de Mooij, 2004:35; Hofstede, 2001:311). At the individual level, where an increase in the degree of GE is associated with an increase in values associated with benevolence and universalism, related to the upliftment of the welfare of people (Schwartz & Rubel-Lifschitz, 2009:171), it is conceivable that a positive relationship exists with BL.

BC describes a consumer characteristic that equates price to quality which favours the purchasing of expensive, well-known brands. In terms of the cultural dimension of GE, as defined by (Sharma, 2010:791), the importance of power and achievement decreases with greater gender equality (Schwartz & Rubel-Lifschitz, 2009:171). Therefore, consumers scoring high on this dimension are unlikely to value personal achievement or material success and, as such, unlikely to purchase products that reflect the dominance of self-ego and status cues, which are characteristic of masculine societies (Sharma, 2010:791).

Finally, from the evident relationship between GE, as an Antecedent, and CDMS, as a Consequence, it is hypothesised that:

H7: There is a positive relationship between Gender Equality (GE) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

H8: There is a negative relationship between Gender Equality (GE) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

6.4.2.2 *Applying the A-I component in the A-I-C framework*

The next four hypotheses relate to the A-I component of the A-I-C framework. In terms of the direct relationships between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Involvement (CI) a number of relationships can exist. Firstly, there is the direct relationship between the Antecedents of Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) (as subconstructs of Uncertainty Avoidance at the individual-level) and CI.

- 116 -

Uncertainty Avoidance is related to CI. According to a study undertaken by Broderick (2007), this dimension of national culture, as defined by Hofstede (1980, 2001), was found to impact positively on the relationship between two facets of CI, namely Risk Involvement (RI) and Situational Involvement (SI). Uncertainty Avoidance is also related to a willingness to take risks, although the levels of certainty associated with these risks do vary (Hofstede, 2001:160).

Whereas Uncertainty Avoidance measures the extent to which society feels threatened by, and tries to avoid, situations characterised by uncertainty and ambiguity, RA and AI measure the same construct but at the individual level (Sharma, 2010:791; Yoo & Donthu, 2005:16-17). In terms of a research study undertaken by Yoo and Donthu (2005), the findings indicated a positive relationship between RA and AI (although they did not test these constructs separately) and what the authors defined as a 'risky or ambiguous situation' resulting from the influx of foreign manufactured products.

Another 'risky or ambiguous situation' relates to the perceived risk associated with the purchase of a product (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985:43) and comprises two sub-components related to the importance and probability of making a poor decision. This perceived risk is defined by Broderick (2007:347) as Risk Involvement (RI).

From the evident relationship between RA and AI, as Antecedents, and CI, it can be posited that:

H_9: There is a positive relationship between Risk Aversion (RA) and Risk Involvement (RI)

H_{10}: There is a positive relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) and Risk Involvement (RI)

Secondly, there is the direct relationship between the Antecedents of Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE) (as subconstructs of Masculinity/Femininity at the individual-level) and Consumer Involvement (CI).

The national cultural dimension of Masculinity/Femininity (Hofstede, 1980, 2001) was found to impact positively on the relationship between two other facets of CI, namely Normative Involvement (NI) and Enduring Involvement (EI) (Broderick, 2007:353). Indeed, in terms of a research study undertaken by Sharma (2011), the results showed a positive relationship between MAS and imported luxury products, which were considered to be symbolic of performance and achievement. Related to the symbolic value of products and their ability to provide pleasure and affect, is what Broderick (2007:347) defines as NI originating from the five facets of involvement identified by Laurent and Kapferer (1985). This form of involvement is associated with the level of arousal causing personal relevance (Broderick, Greenley & Meuller, 2007:538).

However, whereas NI relates to the symbolic value of products and their ability to provide pleasure and affect, GE relates to values associated with, for example, benevolence and universalism. Although hedonism and stimulation are also associated with GE and, in fact, increase in importance along with greater GE, values related to power, achievement and security generally decrease (Schwartz & Rubel-Lifschitz, 2009:171).

From the evident relationship between MAS and GE, as Antecedents, and CI, it is hypothesised that:

H_{14}: There is a positive relationship between Masculinity (MAS) and Normative Involvement (NI)

H_{15}: There is a negative relationship between Gender Equality (GE) and Normative Involvement (NI)

6.4.2.3   *Considering Consumer Involvement in the A-I-C framework*

In terms of applying the A-I-C model to Consumer Involvement (CI), the construct incorporates both cognitive source effects and affective motivational dimensions. Indeed, in referring to the research undertaken by Mittal and Lee (1989), Broderick (2007:347-348) concluded that Risk Involvement (RI) and Normative Involvement (NI) describe a cognitive involvement stage and that Situational Involvement (SI) and Enduring Involvement (EI), the output of the cognitive stage, describe a felt involvement stage.

In this regard, RI is related to SI in that the importance or probability of product risk would affect the purchase or use of a product in a specific situation. While, in terms of NI, the importance of the product class in relation to, for example, a consumer's values, would directly affect the level of EI (Broderick, 2007:348). EI, also referred to as product involvement, stems from the perception that a particular product or product class is related to a consumer's values.

The relationship between these two involvement dimensions was empirically tested and reported to have a positive relationship (Broderick, 2007). It is, therefore, proposed that:

H_{11}: There is a positive relationship between Risk Involvement (RI) and Situational Involvement (SI)

H_{16}: There is a positive relationship between Normative Involvement (NI) and Enduring Involvement (EI)

6.4.2.4   *Applying the I-C component in the A-I-C framework*

The final four hypotheses relate to the I-C component of the A-I-C framework. For the purpose of this study, two affective Consumer Involvement (CI) constructs were considered, namely Situational Involvement (SI) and Enduring Involvement (EI), together with two Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS), namely Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC).

Firstly, attention was paid to the direct relationships between SI and both BL and BC, as Consequences.

BL, as described previously, is related to a consumer's desire to simplify their lives by continually purchasing and using the same brands over time (Blackwell *et al*., 2006:91). When describing a consumer decision-making style, it is described similarly by Sproles and Kendall (1986:[8]) as being a habitual, brand-loyal consumer orientation generally associated with favourite brands and stores. Brand choice is affected by the purchase situation. It affects the level of motivation a consumer feels to make the right brand choice (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008:91) and also affects the level of interest taken in making a

brand selection (Broderick, 2007:184; Mittal & Lee, 1989:365). Empirical research investigating the effect of situational involvement on brand commitment and brand experimentation has determined the existence of positive relationships which are both statistically and meaningfully significant (Broderick, 2007). However, while these constructs differ from that of brand loyalty in terms of the degree of satisfaction related to brand choice (Rodgers, Negash & Suk in Broderick, 2007:349) it is conceivable that there will also be a positive relationship between SI and BL.

BC reflects a consumer's orientation towards buying brands symbolise prestige and quality (Bauer *et al.*, 2006:345; Sproles & Kendall, 1986:[5]). In situations characterised by limited motivation and, therefore, limited involvement, consumer decision-making is restricted. Indeed, according to Bauer *et al.* (2006:345), the search for information and the judgement applied by the consumer is mostly limited to subjectively important pieces of information including brand and price information. Under conditions of limited decision-making, BC is considered to be a relevant CDMS. As with BL, it is conceivable that there will also be a positive relationship between SI and BC.

From the evident relationship between SI and both BL and BC, as Consequences, it is hypothesised that:

H_{12}: There is a positive relationship between Situational Involvement (SI) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

H_{13}: There is a positive relationship between Situational Involvement (SI) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

Next, the direct relationships between Enduring Involvement (EI) and both Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) as Consequences were the focus.

The results of individual studies have indicated that consumer decision-making styles are affected by Enduring (product) Involvement (Bauer *et al.*, 2006:348,352; Gupta *et al.*, 2010:32). Further, Bauer *et al.* (2006:351) determined that there was a positive relationship between EI and BL. Similarly, Gupta *et al.* (2010:32), in extending the

research conducted by Bauer *et al.* (2006), also found a positive relationship between EI and BL.

EI too reflects a consumer's orientation that is associated, not only with prior purchase and usage or consumption experience (Houston & Rothschild, 1978:184) but also to centrally-held values to which the product is relevant (Bloch & Richins, 1983:70, Houston & Rothschild, 1978:184, Zaichkowsky, 1986:8). Enduring feelings of involvement in a product are translated into attitudinal and behavioural responses that are ongoing or long-lasting (Bloch & Richins, 1983:77). Given the influence of involvement, including EI, on Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS), it is, therefore, conceivable that there will be a positive relationship between EI and BC.

From the evident relationship between EI and both BL and BC, as Consequences, it is hypothesised that:

H_{17}: There is a positive relationship between Enduring Involvement (EI) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

H_{18}: There is a positive relationship between Enduring Involvement (EI) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

6.4.3   <u>The secondary research objectives and their related hypotheses</u>

The secondary research objectives together with their respective hypotheses are summarised in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1   The secondary research objectives and their related hypotheses

Secondary Research Objectives	Related Hypotheses
SO1.1: Determine the relationship between *Risk Aversion* and *Brand Loyalty*	H_1
SO1.2: Determine the relationship between *Risk Aversion* and *Brand Consciousness*	H_2
SO1.3: Determine the relationship between *Ambiguity Intolerance* and *Brand Loyalty*	H_3
SO1.4: Determine the relationship between *Ambiguity Intolerance* and *Brand Consciousness*	H_4
SO1.5: Determine the relationship between *Masculinity* and *Brand Loyalty*	H_5
SO1.6: Determine the relationship between *Masculinity* and *Brand Consciousness*	H_6
SO1.7: Determine the relationship between *Gender Equality* and *Brand Loyalty*	H_7
SO1.8: Determine the relationship between *Gender Equality* and *Brand Consciousness*	H_8
SO2.1: Determine the relationship between *Risk Aversion* and *Risk Involvement*	H_9
SO2.2: Determine the relationship between *Ambiguity Intolerance* and *Risk Involvement*	H_{10}
SO2.3: Determine the relationship between *Risk Involvement* and *Situational Involvement*	H_{11}
SO2.4: Determine the relationship between *Situational Involvement* and *Brand Loyalty*	H_{12}
SO2.5: Determine the relationship between *Situational Involvement* and *Brand Consciousness*	H_{13}
SO2.6: Determine the relationship between *Masculinity* and *Normative Involvement*	H_{14}

SO2.7: Determine the relationship between *Gender Equality* and *Normative Involvement*	H_{15}
SO2.8: Determine the relationship between *Normative Involvement* and *Enduring Involvement*	H_{16}
SO2.9: Determine the relationship between *Enduring Involvement* and *Brand Loyalty*	H_{17}
SO2.10: Determine the relationship between *Enduring Involvement* and *Brand Consciousness*	H_{18}

6.5 SUMMARY

This chapter began by first defining the research problem based on the application of the A-I-C model of Consumer Involvement (CI). Next, it presented the conceptual framework before listing the primary and secondary research objectives associated with the study. It then discussed the individual research hypotheses before, finally, providing a summary of the secondary research objectives and their related hypotheses.

The next chapter, Chapter 7, describes the research design, the data collection method and the survey instrument, as well as the sample plan. It also outlines the approach to data analysis which was employed in undertaking the empirical portion of this study, addressing Steps 4, 5, 6 and 7 of the research process.

7 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focussed on Steps 1 to 3 of the research process. This chapter addresses the next four steps of the process, as outlined in Chapter 6, which broadly encompass the research design and methodology adopted for the purpose of this study. Firstly, however, the chapter focuses on the research paradigm and approach which guided the research study. Thereafter, the chapter focuses on the research design or master plan, describing the type of design, strategy, method, and time horizon employed in collecting and analysing the required research data. Next, the chapter pays particular attention to the research methodology, describing in detail the data collection method, the measurement instrument, as well as the sampling strategy that was utilised. This is followed by an explanation of the data analysis approach applied to the study. Finally, the chapter highlights the research ethics that guided the research process.

7.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM AND APPROACH

7.2.1 Research paradigm

The research paradigm, defined by Saunders *et al.* (2009:118) as a "… way of examining social phenomena from which particular understandings of these phenomena can be gained and explanations attempted", forms the broad context for a research study (Ponterotto, 2005:128). Indeed, according to Filstead (in Ponterotto, 2005:128) "… it provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organised study …". As such, research design and methodology are often considered to be of lesser importance when compared to the research paradigm that will guide the study (Guba & Lincoln in Saunders *et al.*, 2009:106). In this regard, many different typologies of research paradigms have been developed with two, in particular, being highlighted in extant literature as being particularly helpful. These two are Guba and Lincoln's (1994) typology which distinguished between four research paradigms, namely positivism, postpositivism, constructivism-interpretivism and critical-ideological (Ponterotto, 2005: 128-130) and Burrell and Morgan's

(1982) typology which also distinguished between four research paradigms, namely functionalist, interpretive, radical humanist, and radical structuralist (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:119-121).

In terms of this study, the postpositivism research paradigm, as described by Guba and Lincoln's (1994), was adopted. Whereas positivism is considered a form of philosophical realism (Ponterotto, 2005:128) whereby the researcher assumes the philosophical stance of a natural scientist (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:113), postpositivism acknowledges an objective reality that is imperfect (Lincoln & Guba in Ponterotto, 2005:129). This paradigm is characterised by assumptions or beliefs related to the philosophical anchors, as described by Pontrotto (2005:130), of ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology. Each of assumptions will be discussed below:

i. *Ontology* – relates to nature and form of reality. Adopting a postpositivist research paradigm assumes that while there is one true reality, it can only be understood and measured imperfectly (Ponterotto, 2005:130; Ponterotto & Grieger, 2007:410; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:110).

ii. *Epistemology* – relates to the relationship between the researcher and the research participant. In this regard, the assumption is that while the researcher may influence the study to some extent, maintaining objectivity and researcher-participant independence is important (Ponterotto, 2005:131; Ponterotto & Grieger, 2007:410).

iii. *Axiology* – relates to the role that the personal values of a researcher play in the research process. Adopting a postpositivist research paradigm assumes that the researcher's own values must be removed from this process so as not to bias the research study (Ponterotto, 2005:131; Ponterotto & Grieger, 2007:410; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:116).

iv. *Methodology* – relates to the research methods and procedures to be used in the study. The assumption is that scientific methods and procedures will be used for the purpose of explaining the nature of relationships among variables leading to universal truths. In this regard, the research methods will be predominantly quantitative and will include field research (Ponterotto, 2005:132; Ponterotto & Grieger, 2007:410).

7.2.2   Research approach

In conducting the research study it is also necessary to determine the type of reasoning or research approach to be employed. In this regard, Mouton (2001:114, 117-118) identifies two basic types of reasoning, namely deductive reasoning – drawing conclusions from previous propositions – and inductive generalisation – applying inferences from observations of a sample to the target population. Mouton (2001:118) also identifies a third type of reasoning – retroductive reasoning – although this considered just another form of inductive generalisation. Similarly, Saunders *et al.* (2009:124) identifies two research approaches, namely deduction and induction. In this regard, the deductive approach is characterised by the deduction of hypotheses based on theory, the collection of quantitative data and researcher independence, to mention but a few, while the induction approach is characterised by the formulation of theory based on observation, collection of qualitative data and the inclusion of the researcher as part of the research process (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:124-126).

In terms of this study, the deductive research approach has been followed.

7.3   RESEARCH DESIGN (STEP 4)

7.3.1   Type of research design

A research design is the framework, flowing from the research paradigm and approach discussed previously, which is used to guide the methods and procedures to be used in collecting and analysing the required data (Burns & Bush, 2010:117; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:58). It is a blueprint which describes each procedure associated with the research process, from the formulating of hypotheses to the analysis of data (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:130).

While there are many different research design frameworks, there are three basic types or categories of research designs, each of which will be explained briefly below:

i.   *Exploratory research* – characterised by the sourcing and analysis of data in a way that is informal and unstructured, with the objective being to uncover fresh ideas or obtain

further insights about a particular research problem (Burns & Bush, 2010:31,118; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:58; Robson in Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009:139).

ii. *Descriptive research* – this research design is concerned with a broad range of objectives and is intended to answer questions related to the *who*, *what*, *when*, *where* and *how* of a research problem (Burns & Bush, 2010:31; Cooper & Schindler, 1998:141; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:84) It is characterised by a pre-planned and structured design together with the prior formulation of specific hypotheses (Malhotra, 2012:75).

iii. *Causal research* – also termed explanatory research (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:11; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:140), this research design is focussed on answering the question related to the why of cause-and-affect relationships. This is typically achieved by means of conducting experiments (Burns & Bush, 2010:31,130; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:59).

The type of research design adopted for the purpose of this study is that of descriptive research given its suitability in describing the relationships or the associations between marketing variables (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:59; Malhotra, 2012:76; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:67) which is consistent with the primary- and secondary research objectives of the study. Further, this type of research design is consistent with the research paradigm and approach underpinning the study as described in the previous section.

Employing a descriptive research design must be done circumspectly, however, as this type of research is not appropriate in determining causality or the cause-and-effect between marketing variables (Malhotra, 2012:76; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:67).

7.3.2 Research strategy

Whereas Burns and Bush (2010), Cooper and Schindler (1998) and Iacobucci and Churchill (2010) considered exploratory-, descriptive- and causal research as the three basic types or categories of research designs, Saunders *et al.* (2009:139) consider these as merely being the classification of research purpose. These authors instead define the plan whereby researchers will go about addressing the research objectives as the research strategy (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:600). In this regard, the authors have identified

seven distinct, though not mutually exclusive, research strategies which can be employed for exploratory-, descriptive- or causal research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:141). Each of these strategies will be described briefly below.

i. *Experiment* – a research strategy borrowed from the natural sciences which, in its simplest form, is concerned with determining the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable, while also making allowances for the effect of extraneous variables (Burns & Bush, 2010:130; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:104; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:142). This strategy is used mainly in exploratory or causal (explanatory) research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:142).

ii. *Survey* – used predominantly in exploratory- and descriptive research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:144, 601). It is part of the communication approach described by Cooper and Schindler (1998:287) which concerns the questioning of a particular population and the recording of their responses for later analysis. It encompasses the structured collection of both quantitative and/or qualitative data using a variety of techniques, including questionnaires, observations and interviews (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:144, 601).

iii. *Case study* – unlike the experiment strategy described briefly above, the research is not undertaken in a controlled environment but in an uncontrolled, real-life context (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:145-146). The emphasis is on the contextual analysis of the particular phenomenon under investigation (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:133). This research strategy is typically employed for the purpose of exploratory and causal research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:146).

iv. *Action research* – this research strategy differs from the other research strategies in that it focuses explicitly on action (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:147). As such, it is described as being focused on the management of change with the results of which being used to inform other contexts (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:587).

v. *Grounded theory* – this strategy entails the development of theory from data generated by the researcher following either a series of observations or interviews (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:593). The process commences with the collection of data leading to the generation of predictions which are then tested using data collected from subsequent observations or interviews. This data may or may not validate the predictions (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:149).

vi. *Ethnography* – adapted from anthropology, this strategy is concerned with describing the social world through first-hand field studies employing a combination of research

techniques from immersion, observations, and informal and ongoing in-depth interviews (Burns & Bush, 2010:229; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:75; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:149). It offers the advantage that it enables researchers to gain insights into a particular context from the viewpoint of the research subjects (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:149-151).

vii. *Archival research* – this research strategy is concerned primarily with the analysis of administrative records and documents. Whereas secondary data analysis is concerned with the analysis of data collected for various purposes, data collected in terms of this research strategy is considered to be part of the current reality and the focus of the particular research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:150).

The research strategy chosen to be employed in this study is that of survey research which can be grouped under the broad heading of descriptive quantitative research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:182). It is a commonly employed strategy for gathering primary data, which can be used with either more or less sophistication to research many different areas of human behaviour (Leedy & Ormond, 2010:187; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:152; Saunders *et al.,* 2009:144).

Survey research was chosen because of the many advantages it offered, as highlighted by Malhotra (2012:186). These included ease of administration by means of an online panel, enhanced reliability through the use of a questionnaire containing fixed-responses, and simplicity in the coding, analysis and interpretation of the research data.

7.3.3   <u>Research methods</u>

While Burns and Bush (2010:108) consider a research method as being a description of the proposed research design and methodology of a study, Saunders *et al.* (2009:151) contrastingly, define research methods as being strategic choices related to the combination of quantitative and qualitative research techniques and procedures. For while quantitative and qualitative research approaches are comparable, the processes they employ are usually combined and undertaken in dissimilar ways, thereby necessitating different research methods (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:94-95). In this regard, researchers are able to choose amongst a single data collection and corresponding analysis technique or

multiple data collection techniques and analysis procedures, referred to respectively by Saunders *et al.* (2009:151) as the 'mono-method', encompassing the use of a single data collection technique together with an appropriate statistical data analysis method, and the 'multiple methods'. The latter can be further broken down into two approaches, namely the 'multi-method' approach and the 'mixed-methods' approach. The multi-method approach involves collecting and analysing data using either quantitative or qualitative techniques while the mixed-methods approach involves the mixed use of both quantitative and qualitative techniques and can be further broken down into 'mixed-method' and 'mixed-model' research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:152).

The research choice utilised in this study is the mono-method, encompassing the use of a self-administered questionnaire in conjunction with partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), as it will enable the answering of the study's research objectives.

7.3.4   <u>Time horizons</u>

Research planning, in addition to decisions concerning the research strategy and research method, also requires consideration of the appropriate time horizon. In this regard, there are two distinct time horizons (Burns & Bush, 2010:124; Cooper & Schindler, 1998: 132; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:155):
i. *Cross-sectional* – associated with research studies that are undertaken once, measuring a sample unit of a population at a particular point in time.
ii. *Longitudinal* – encompasses research studies conducted repeatedly on the same sample unit of a population over an extended period of time*.*

A cross-sectional time horizon has been adopted for the purpose of his study, with results providing a 'snapshot' of the sample unit of the population (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:155). Adopting this time horizon offered the advantages of the study being easier to conduct than a longitudinal study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:186) while also being less expensive and not as time-consuming (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:132).

7.4   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

7.4.1   Data collection (Step 5)

7.4.1.1   *Survey method*

The technique employed for collecting primary data, consistent with the postpositivism research paradigm and deductive research approach employed for the purpose of the achieving the primary- and secondary objectives of the study, is that of the self-administered questionnaire. Whereas some researchers define the term 'questionnaire' according to a particular usage, others define 'questionnaire' in general terms, encompassing all of those data collection techniques in which respondents answer a predetermined set of questions in a particular order (de Vaus in Saunders *et al.*, 2009:360). Questionnaires, therefore, include methods of administration where an interviewer is present, such as when conducting personal interviews and where an interviewer is not present, such as mail surveys (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:360). The method of distribution chosen for the self-administered questionnaire is online, using the Internet.

The main advantages of using an online survey, as outlined by Malhotra (2012:196, 353) and McDaniel and Gates (2013:195), are firstly, its speed. Online surveys can be deployed rapidly with the results often provided in real-time, as the surveys are completed and the results tabulated. Secondly, its low cost. This survey method is relatively inexpensive, resulting in substantial cost savings, particularly for large samples, when compared to traditional survey techniques. Thirdly, its convenience. The ability to complete the survey anytime/anywhere makes it an ideal method for targeting hard-to-reach groups. Fourthly, the ability to personalise the survey. Online surveys can be easily personalised – not only the respondent's name but also the questions themselves based on respondent's answers – thereby increasing the speed of the response process. Finally, its high response rate. This method is far more stimulating and engaging than traditional methods, allowing for the use of graphics, greater interactivity and links to incentive websites. The result is generally, a far higher response rate.

There are, however, also disadvantages of using the online survey method. These include a lack of control of the data collection environment, the sample frame being unavailable online, insufficient online bandwidth and an inability to be able to call-back in order to clarify responses to open-ended questions. The most serious disadvantage of online surveys is, however, its lack of representativeness. This is due to possible respondent selection bias with only consumers having access to the Internet being included in the sample and also due to heavy Internet users, spending large amounts of time online, having a disproportionate probability of being included in the sample (Malhotra, 2012:196, 353; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:197-198).

Despite the disadvantages, however, the validity and reliability of this survey method can be vastly improved through the careful design of the questionnaire, focusing on, for example, the type and wording of individual questions and by thorough pretesting (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:362).

7.4.1.2   *Design of the questionnaire*

The design of the questions, the structure of the questionnaire and the extensiveness of the pre-testing undertaken prior to conducting the survey affect both the internal validity and reliability of the data collected as well as the desired response rate (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:371). There are, however, no scientific principles to guide researchers in designing the optimal questionnaire. The questionnaire design process is one which is more of an art rather than a science (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:204; Malhotra, 2012:300).

While the artistry of the researcher is largely responsible for the eventual design of the questionnaire, there are a series of what are referred to by different authors as stages (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:304-305), guidelines (Malhotra, 2012:300-301) or phases (Burns & Bush, 2010:304-305), which a researcher can follow to avoid making potentially costly mistakes. In addition to specifying the information required, deciding on the administration method, deciding on the physical characteristics of the questionnaire and pre-testing the questionnaire, the questionnaire design process followed for the purpose of

this study also encompassed the following steps related to content, response strategy and wording:

- *Determine the question content* – it is essential that, in order to ensure the internal validity and reliability of the survey data, the wording of individual items is not only understandable but also unambiguous and unbiased (Burns & Bush, 2010:306). As such, in terms of this study, the approach of adopting and adapting existing items rather than designing new items was followed (Bourque & Clark in Saunders *et al.*, 2009:374). Other than the classification questions contained in Sections 4 and 5 of the questionnaire, the individual items in Sections 1, 2 and 3 of the questionnaire have all been adopted and, in some instances, adapted from existing measurements scales which in previous research have proven to have both sufficient internal validity and reliability.

- *Select the nature of the response required* – in terms of this study, a response strategy of employing Likert-style rating scales, each containing multiple scale items, was adopted for Sections 1, 2 and 3 of the questionnaire. These scales would enable the measurement of each of the three constructs which are the focus of this study. In this regard, a seven-point rating scale was adopted throughout primarily to ensure, as advised by Dillman (in Saunders *et al.*, 2009:379), that the order of the response categories remained consistent and, as such, did not cause potential confusion amongst the respondents responding to the survey. Further, a seven-point rating scale would enable the capturing of smaller variations in the level of agreement for each statement. A combined strategy of open- and close-ended questions was adopted for Sections 4 and 5 of the questionnaire (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:338; Malhotra, 2012:307,309). In this regard, these sections contained an open-ended question related to year of birth, a dichotomous-response question related to gender, and multiple-choice questions related to the frequency of clothing purchases and types of clothing stores from which these clothing purchases were mostly made.

- *Determine the question wording* – non-response and response errors can occur when items are poorly worded, either frustrating or confusing respondents (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:216; Malhotra, 2012:311). In order to avoid this potential problem, care was taken to ensure that the general guidelines provided were adhered to by ensuring, for example, the wording of the items was simple and unambiguous, the items were not

- 133 -

leading and the items avoided generalisations (Burns & Bush, 2010:309-315; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:216-220; Malhotra, 2012:311-314).

Other than the classification questions, an approach of adopting and adapting existing items was followed in designing the individual questions, as mentioned above. Indeed, all of the items associated with the three A-I-C constructs that are the focus of this study were drawn from existing reflective measurement scales as discussed below.

- *Personal Cultural Orientation*s (PCO) – the items included in Section 1 of the questionnaire measure the individual-level PCO of Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) as well as Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE). These orientations are an extension of Hofstede's (1980; 2001) national-level cultural dimensions of Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity, respectively and which are, according to Broderick (2007:353), related to Consumer Involvement (CI). Each of the dimensions was measured by four items drawn from Sharma's (2010) Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) measurement scale using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree'. Questions 1.1-1.4 were related to AI; Questions 1.5-1.8 to RA; Questions 1.9-1.12 MAS; and finally, Questions 1.13-1.16 were related to GE.

- *Consumer Decision-making Styles* (CDMS) – the items included in the second section of the questionnaire were drawn from Sproles and Kendall's (1986) Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) measurement scale. The items measure two mental characteristics of decision-making related to brand, namely Brand Consciousness (BC) and Brand Loyalty (BL) using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree'. Questions 2.1-2.6 measured the respondent's BC consumer orientation while Questions 2.7-2.10 measured the respondent's BL consumer orientation.

- *Consumer Involvement* (CI) – this third section comprised Questions 3.1-3.18 drawn from Broderick's (2007) International Consumer Involvement (ICI) scale, Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) Consumer Involvement Profiles (CIP) scale and Mittal's (1995) modified Purchase Decision Involvement (PDI) scale. The items measure four dimensions of CI, two of which were grouped together as cognitive-source effects, namely Normative Involvement (NI) and Risk Involvement (RI) and two as affective states of involvement, namely Situational Involvement (SI) and Enduring Involvement

(EI). Each of the dimensions was measured using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree'. Questions 3.1-3.4 were related to NI; Questions 3.5-3.10 RI; Questions 3.11-3.14 SI; and Questions 3.15-3.18 to EI.

In terms of the classification questions, these were developed specifically for this research study.

- *Clothing purchases* – this section comprises Questions 4.1-4.2. These were clarification questions intended to group respondents according to their behaviour when purchasing branded clothing for themselves. Question 4.1 was a multiple-choice (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:338-340) or category (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:376) question which was intended to collect data related to the frequency of the respondent's clothing purchases. Question 4.2 was also a multiple-choice question that intended to determine which type of stores the respondent mostly purchases their branded clothing from. As suggested by Cooper and Schindler (1998:340), an "Other: Please specify" category was added to both questions as a safeguard to ensure respondents were still able to provide satisfactory answers while limiting the alternative options available to an acceptable number.

- *Personal details* – this final section of the questionnaire comprised Questions 5.1-5.3. Answers to these questions were used as a means of classifying the respondents according to demographic variables related to gender, age, and population group. Question 5.1 was a simple, dichotomous question (Malhotra, 2012:310) used to determine the respondent's gender. Question 5.2 was a quantity question (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:382) which was used to calculate the respondent's age. Question 5.3 was a multiple-choice question which was intended to identify the individual population groups the respondents belongs to. An "Other: Please specify" category was also added to this question.

7.4.1.3 *Structure of the questionnaire*

The physical characteristics of a questionnaire, such as its layout and length, can impact negatively on the results of the study (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:221; Malhotra, 2012:317). Indeed, the accuracy of the responses, for example, is dependent on respondents' reactions and their level of cooperation. This is especially important given the

administration method adopted for the purpose of this study as explained in Section 7.4.1.1 (Malhotra, 2012:317).

Particular attention was paid to the format of the questionnaire with its length restricted and the questions numbered, as recommended by Iacobucci & Churchill (2010:221-223), while it was further divided into separate sections according to topic, as suggested by Malhotra (2012:317). In this regard it was divided into five sections with the first three sections containing target questions grouped together to measure the three A-I-C constructs which are the focus of this study and the last two sections containing classification questions.

- Section 1: Personal Cultural Orientations
- Section 2: Consumer Decision-making Styles
- Section 3: Consumer Involvement
- Section 4: Classification Questions related to Branded Clothing Purchases
- Section 5: Classification Questions related to Demographic Variables

7.4.1.4 *Pretesting of the questionnaire*

The pretesting of a questionnaire is essential (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:224). Indeed, it is generally accepted that a questionnaire should not be used to collect data in the field unless it has been thoroughly pretested (Malhotra, 2012:318; Saunders *et al*., 2009:394). The purpose of the pretesting is to refine the questionnaire by discovering and rectifying any potential problems, whether these are related to, among other things, the instructions, question content, question continuity and flow, and length (Burns & Bush, 2010:328; Cooper & Schindler, 1998:350-351; Malhotra, 2012:318).

Although pretesting should ideally be conducted using respondents from the target population (Burns & Bush, 2010:328; Malhotra, 2012:318), for the sake of convenience, the pretests were undertaken using respondent surrogates, individuals whom Cooper and Schindler (1998:352) describe as having characteristics similar to the sampling frame. In this regard, the respondents included in the pretesting where all adults, between 25 and 64 years in age, who spoke English as either a first or second language and who were responsible for purchasing their own clothing. Further, respondents encompassed all of

the different population groups, as identified by Stats SA, while the majority of respondents were female (61.7%).

The pretests involved a collaborative approach with the respondents being advised of their involvement in the pretesting of the questionnaire. As such, in addition to completing the self-administered, pretest questionnaire, respondents were also requested to provide structured feedback by means of a feedback form. The feedback from the pretest was subsequently collated and analysed and the survey instrument adapted accordingly.

Adopting the strategy described by Burns and Bush (2010:328), only common problems identified across the respective respondent samples were addressed. In this regard, the pretesting resulted in the following significant changes to the questionnaire:

- The order in which the measurement scales were incorporated into the questionnaire was changed to address a concern raised by respondents participating in the pretest. According to these respondents they did not understand the relevance of the questions contained under Section 3: Personal Cultural Orientations of the pretest questionnaire within the context of buying branded clothing. Responding to the suggestion made by two of the respondents, the scale items pertaining to Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) were moved to the beginning of the questionnaire and included as Section 1.

- Whereas the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) and International Consumer Involvement (ICI) scales were measured using five-point Likert-style rating scale items, the Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) scale was measured using seven-point Likert-rating scale items. It was decided to adopt the latter response strategy for all three measures because, as advised by Dillman (in Saunders *et al.*, 2009:379), retaining the same order of response categories throughout the questionnaire would avoid confusing respondents and also because it would enable the capturing of greater variances in opinion.

7.4.2   Sampling (Step 6)

Sampling is based on the premise that it is possible to draw conclusions about a population or an entire collection of elements by selecting just some of these population elements (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:215; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:282). It offers

several advantages when compared to conducting a census which involves an accounting of every element of the population (Burns & Bush, 2010:339; Cooper & Schindler, 1998:215; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:282). These advantages include significant cost savings, improved quality or accuracy of the study and quicker results (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:215-216; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:212). Although there are instances where conducting a census rather than sampling is preferred, neither of these instances which relate to either a small population size or high variability among the population elements (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:216) are of concern in this study and, as such, sampling was selected for the purpose of collecting information from the population.

The drawing of a sample from a population can be achieved by following a distinct series of steps which, for example, Iacobucci and Churchill (2010: 283) refer to as a sampling procedure and which Burns and Bush (2010:363), alternatively refer to as a sample plan. The sampling process followed in this study encompasses the first five steps of the procedure identified by Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:283). Each of these steps and how they have been applied to this study will be discussed briefly below:

i. *Define the target population of the study* – the target population is determined by the research objectives of a study (Burns & Bush, 2010:338). It encompasses the entire collection of elements such as, for example, consumers, organisations and inanimate objects (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:282) that together contain the information about which researchers want to make inferences (Malhotra, 2009:371). It is, according to Cooper and Schindler (1998:215), simply "… the unit of study". In defining the target population it is necessary to clearly specify the unit of study, as well as the demographic or other characteristics which distinguish the target population from other populations. It is also necessary to specify which sample units are excluded (Burns & Bush, 2010:364; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:283). In terms of achieving the research objectives stated in Chapter 1: Section 1.6, the target population for this study is defined firstly, as adults 21 years and older. In this regard, consumers from 21 years of age and older are considered to have a disposable income as opposed to the teen market (14-20 years) who often still live with their parents. Consumers in their twenties also seem to be more involved in shopping, including family shopping, and are also more likely to have made clothing purchases for some time (Shchudro, 2011:10). Secondly, as adults who speak English as either a first or second language. This

language requirement was included as a practical consideration in order to avoid either nonresponse or response errors as only 9.6% of South Africa's population speak English as a first language (*Census 2011: Census in brief.* Statistics South Africa, 2012:23). The requirement was extended to include English as a second language in order to ensure a wider participation as it is estimated that 45% of South African's have a speaking knowledge of English (Schuring in *English in South Africa.* Gough, D.H. Not dated:1). Furthermore, this requirement ensured that those who answered the questionnaire, had a good basic understanding of English and thus an understanding of the constructs under investigation., Thirdly, as adults who reside in South Africa, and finally, as adults who are responsible for purchasing their own clothing.

ii. *Identify the sampling frame of the study* – the sampling frame is simply the list of sampling units from which the researcher draws a sample (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:221; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:284). Examples of sampling frames include organisational files, third-party databases and telephone directories (Burns & Bush, 2010:364; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:284). In terms of this research study, the sampling frame was generated dynamically by Dalia Research GmbH, a research house based in Germany. Leveraging third-party applications and websites, the company targeted respondents in real-time by means of direct communications via these online platforms.

iii. *Select a sampling technique for the study* – sampling techniques can be divided into two broad types of sampling techniques or designs, namely probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In terms of probability sampling, each sample-frame element has a known, non-zero probability of being selected for inclusion in a sample whereas in terms of non-probability sampling, there is no known probability of each element being selected and, as such, the sample is not representative of the population (Burns & Bush, 2010:342; Cooper & Schindler, 1998:218; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:285; Saunders *et al.*, 2009:213). The sampling frame, for the purpose of this study, was selected on a non-probability basis, not only for reasons of cost and convenience (Burns & Bush, 2010:354; Cooper & Schindler, 1998:244; Saunders *et al.*,2009:235) but because non-probability sampling is sufficient for the purpose of achieving the stated research objectives. A further reason is that online-panel samples cannot be considered probability samples although, typically, high response rates do ensure that the sample closely approximates the target population (Miller in Burns & Bush,

2010:363). The particular non-probability sampling technique used in this study is quota sampling. It is intended to improve the representativeness of the sample and ensure that it contains the same distribution of those characteristics which describe the target population (Burns & Bush, 2010:359; Cooper & Schindler, 1998:245; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:287). Researchers such as, for example, Broderick (2007) and Ungerer and Strasheim (2011) used quota sampling in investigating individual level culture. Although this sampling technique did not produce samples completely representative of the target populations, Broderick (2007:355) did consider the samples to be relatively homogeneous in terms of gender and age. Ungerer and Strasheim (2011:44) too were of the opinion that samples drawn using this technique would ensure that the effects of consumer characteristics which, in terms of their research was race, could be evenly distributed within each sample. A type of stratified sample, drawing a quota sample entails, according to Saunders *et al.* (2009:235), the dividing of the target population into separate groups followed by the calculation of a quota for each of the groups according to specific population characteristics using appropriate data. In terms of this study, the primary characteristic of interest was gender and as such a quota sample was applied to the two gender groups. A proportional response from each of the separate groups for this characteristic or, as Cooper and Schindler (1998:246) refers to it, control dimension, was required.

iv) *Calculate the sample size for the study* – in order to ensure the representativeness of the sample, there are some commonly held beliefs that are not true. These include that a sample must be large or that it must be proportional to the size of the sample frame from which the sampling units are drawn (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:222). Instead, the most important factors in calculating the size of the sample are firstly, the size of the population variance where a greater dispersion in the sampling frame requires a larger sample. Secondly, the amount of precision required which is measured by the interval range and the degree of confidence (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:223). Therefore, in order to statistically determine the minimum sample size, the following information is required (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:408):

- an approximation of the standard deviation for the population;
- a determination of a justifiable level of sampling error; and

- an agreement on the desired level of confidence required to ensure that the results of the sample are located within an acceptable range of true population values.

The statistical approach requires that the confidence levels are specified in advance using either the standard error of the arithmetic mean ($\overline{x}$) or of the proportion p (Malhotra, 2012:370). In terms of this study, the standard error of the mean was used to calculate the sample size based on the formulas below.

Standard error of the mean formula:

$$\sigma_x = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Source: Malhotra (2012:372-373) and Tustin, Lighelm, Martins and Van Wyk (2005:367-368)

Solving for n:

$$n = \frac{\sigma^2 z^2}{D^2}$$

Source: Malhotra (2012:372-373) and Tustin *et al.* (2005:367-368)

In applying the two formulas shown above, the following steps were followed in calculating n, as set out by Malhotra (2012:373-372):
- Step 1 – specify the maximum difference allowed (D) between the population mean (X) and the sample mean (μ). In terms of this study, D specified as 5%.
- Step 2 – specify the level of confidence required for the study. This was specified as 95%.
- Step 3 – calculate the z-value, representing the area under the sampling distribution between any two data points, associated with the level of confidence. The z value = 1.96.
- Step 4 – calculate the standard deviation of the population (σ). This variable was calculated based on the researcher's judgement and was derived from the

knowledge of the measurement scales used, as suggested by Malhotra (2012:372). In this regard, seven-point Likert scales were used in measuring the constructs with each scale having a range of six i.e. seven through one. In estimating the standard deviation the range of data can be divided by six. Therefore, $\sigma = 1$.

- Step 5 – calculate the sample size using the formula for the standard error of the mean:

$$n = \frac{1^2 \, 1.96^2}{0.05^2}$$

$= 1\ 536.64$

$\approx 1\ 537$

Thus, the suggested sample size for this study is 1 537.

Cost considerations also influence the size and type of the sample as well as the method to be employed in collecting that data (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:224). Often, the size of a sample is a compromise between the amount of resources in terms of the time and money a researcher has to invest in collecting, checking and analysing the data versus the degree of accuracy required in the findings (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:218).

iv. *Choose the sample units for the study* – the sample frame units were drawn from the online consumer panel described previously in *Step ii. Identify the sampling frame of the study*. As described briefly in this step, the online consumer panel was generated dynamically with the research house targeting a highly diverse set of widely and heavily used applications and websites, inviting users to join the panel. In terms of identifying and selecting the units from this panel, the following criteria were applied:

a) respondents must have been 21 years of age or older[5].

b) respondents must have been responsible for purchasing their own clothing.

Further, in addition to the criteria listed above, a 50/50 gender quota was applied in selecting the identified units. This quota was applied in order to address potential gender bias in the results as previous studies have highlighted differences in their

findings based on gender. For example, Yoo *et al.* (2011) determined that the gender effect in terms of Hofstede's (1980;1991) Masculinity/Femininity dimension was significant while Zaichkowsky (1987) found a significant variation in Consumer Involvement (CI) scores between males and females. In terms of Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS), Bakewell and Mitchell (2004) determined that males differed from females in terms of their decision-making.

7.4.3 Data analysis approach (Step 7)

This section addresses Step 7 of the research process, as outlined in Chapter 6, which relates to the approach adopted in analysing the data collected for the purpose of this study. It firstly describes the process that was followed in preparing the data for analysis. Secondly, it provides the results of the testing undertaken to assess the normality of the variable distributions contained in the data. Thirdly, it focuses on the analysis of the descriptive data using various statistical techniques, including frequency tables. Finally, it describes the analysis of the results using SEM for the purpose of this research study.

7.4.3.1 *Preparation of data*

The process of carefully preparing the raw data for analysis is essential in determining the overall quality of the research results (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:452). It entails transforming the data from its raw form into a format that is suitable for analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:411; Malhotra, 2012:411). In addition to the editing of the raw data, the data preparation process also encompasses the coding and capturing of the data (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:411; Tustin *et al.*, 2005:452). Each of the steps is described below.

i. *Editing of the data* – the editing of the raw data involves the inspection of questionnaires in order to identify and, if possible, correct any errors or omissions thereby increasing the accuracy of the data and the precision of the questionnaires (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:412; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:350; Malhotra, 2012:411). In terms of this study, this step was undertaken by Dalia Research GmbH responsible for collecting the data via an online panel, but also checked by the researcher.

ii. *Coding of the data* – this step entails allocating a code, which could be either a number or a symbol, to the responses to questions contained within the questionnaire and then

grouping these into particular categories (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:413; Malhotra, 2012:413). In terms of this study, the coding was undertaken once the raw data had been provided in Microsoft Excel 2007 Workbook format by the research house. As suggested by Malhotra (2012:413), the codes used made provision for the particular answers to the particular questions.

iii. *Capturing of the data* – finally, the capturing of the data was achieved without the need for keypunching or any other means of transferring the coded data obtained from the completed questionnaires into a computer. Indeed, the use of an Internet-based self-administered questionnaire meant that the transcribing of data was unnecessary with the raw data being provided by Dalia Research GmbH in a Microsoft Excel 2007 Workbook format.

7.4.3.2   *Assessment of data distribution*

In preparing the data for analysis, it is also necessary to assess the distribution of the raw data as extremely non-normal data will negatively affect the results of multivariate analysis (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2017:56,61-62). Therefore, prior to analysing the psychometric properties of the measurement instrument, the multivariate normality of the data was first assessed by using the MULTNORM macro of the statistical software program, SAS 9.4. The MULTNORM macro provides univariate and multivariate normality test results. The test statistic used in the MULTNORM macro to assess univariate normality is the Shapiro-Wilk test. To assess multivariate normality, the MULTNORM macro calculates Mardia's Skewness and Kurtosis test statistics. In both instances, testing of univariate and multivariate normality, the test statistics are used to test the null hypothesis that the data collected are from a univariate- or multivariate-normal population. The results of the assessment of the data for multivariate normality are provided in Table 7.1 below:

Table 7.1   Results of the Mardia's Skewness and Kurtosis testing

Test Statistic	Value	Probability
Mardia Skewness	27665	<.0001
Mardia Kurtosis	72.51	<.0001

Skewness is a measure of the extent to which a variable's distribution deviates from symmetry. When a variable's distribution extends towards either the left or right tail, it is considered to be skewed. Kurtosis is a measure of how peaked or flat a distribution is. When most of the responses are clustered in the centre the distribution is considered to be too peaked (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:430; Hair *et al.*, 2017:61). Generally, if the figures obtained for both skewness and kurtosis are greater than +1 or lower than – 1, the data distribution is considered to be non-normal.

The figure obtained for the Mardia Skewness test was 27665 ($ρ<.0001$) and for the Mardia Kurtosis test 72.51 ($ρ<.0001$). Based on these two test results, the null hypothesis is rejected that the data was from a multivariate-normal population.

7.4.3.3   *Analysis of descriptive data*

The description of data is an important, self-standing activity in any data analysis providing, according to, insights into the distribution and variation of the responses obtained (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:523). As such, descriptive statistics focus on frequency distributions, cross-tabulations as well as measures of central location, spread and shape (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:427-430; Tustin *et al.*, 2005:523). Each of the techniques used in describing the results of this study is described briefly below.

i.   *Frequency distribution* – this entailed the construction of frequency-distribution tables which showed in both absolute and relative terms, according to percentages, the frequency of values related to a particular variable. In terms of this research study, frequency tables were constructed for each of the target and classification questions (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:523).

ii. *Cross-tabulation* – this technique enables the comparison of two classification variables (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:441) and it was used in providing a richer analysis of the demographic data as well as of the data related to the purchasing habits of respondents. Concerning this study, for example, cross-tabulation was applied in comparing the frequency of purchasing branded clothing between the two gender groupings.

iii. *Measure of central location* – there are three measures of central tendency including the mean or arithmetic average (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:427; Tustin *et al.*,

2005:538). The mean was the measure used for the purpose of this research study and it was calculated for each of the target and classification questions.

iv. *Measure of spread* – there are a number of different measures of variability with the standard deviation considered the most widely used and highly regarded (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:429; Tustin *et al.*, 2005:550). This measure was calculated for each of the target and classification questions.

v. *Measure of shape* – this measure relates to the extent of the skewness or peakedness of a data distribution, as described in the previous section. These values were calculated for each of the target questions.

7.4.3.4   *Analysis of the results*

Multivariate data analysis encompasses the application of statistical techniques that are able to simultaneously analyse the relationships among three or more variables (Hair *et al.*, 2017:2; Sheth in Cooper & Schindler, 1998; 559; Tustin *et al.*, 2005:646). These techniques typically include, depending on whether dependent and independent variables are present and/or interrelated, regression-based approaches such as multiple regression, discriminant analysis and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) but also other techniques such as exploratory- and confirmatory factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2017:2-3; Cooper & Schindler, 1998; 559; Tustin *et al.*, 2005:647). They can either be used to confirm a priori theories or to identify relationships among variables. In this regard, Hair *et al.* (2017:2) have identified cluster analysis, exploratory factor analysis and multidimensional scaling as being primarily exploratory in nature.

There is, however, an increasing interest in more recent, 'second-generation' techniques which are able to overcome the apparent weaknesses in the earlier techniques, particularly the inclusion of unobservable or latent variables measured indirectly by indicator variables (Hair *et al.*, 2017:4). These techniques are commonly known as Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

Also referred to as covariance structure analysis, latent variable analysis or by the name of the respective statistical software packages used (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson,

© University of Pretoria

2010:635), SEM is a statistical methodology (Byrne, 2010:3) or family of statistical models (Hair *et al.*, 2010:634) of which there are two basic types (Hair *et al.,* 2017:4):

i. *Covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM)* – this SEM method examines the extent to which a proposed theoretical model is able to estimate the covariance matrix for a sample data set. It is primarily used to either confirm or reject theories.

ii. *Partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM)* – this SEM method is concerned with explaining the variance in the dependent variables which are contained within the theoretical model. It is primarily used to develop theories.

Whereas there are statistical differences between the two methodologies, PLS-SEM estimates can be strongly representative of CB-SEM results particularly when assumptions associated with CB-SEM have been violated (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011:143). As such, PLS-SEM should be considered, along with CB-SEM, when choosing a suitable SEM technique. In this regard, Hair *et al.* (2011:144), identified 'rules of thumb' to aid in this decision process based on five types of decision considerations, namely:

- Research goals
- Measurement model specification
- Structural model
- Data characteristics
- Model evaluation.

In terms of this research study, PLS-SEM was chosen as the most appropriate statistical method based primarily on the following considerations as summarised below.

i. *Research goals* – the nature of the research question formulated for the purpose of this study is not confirmatory, instead the focus is on an extension of existing structural theory. In this instance, PLS-SEM is recommended as being the preferred method (Hair *et al.*, 2011:143-144).

ii. *Structural model* – the structural model displayed in Chapter 6, Section 6.4 is one which is complex, comprising 10 constructs and 44 indicators. As such, PLS-SEM is an appropriate method of analysis (Hair *et al.,* 2011:143).

iii. *Data characteristics* – one of the assumptions related to CB-SEM, as mentioned previously, is that of the normality of data distributions. When data is non-normal, the use of PLS-SEM is recommended (Hair *et al.*, 2011:144). In terms of this research

study, the results of the Mardia Skewness test and Mardia Kurtosis test, as highlighted in Table 7.1, indicate that the data is not from a multivariate-normal population and is, therefore, nonnormal.

Another assumption related to CB-SEM is that of minimum sample size. When the minimum sample size has not been met, the use of PLS-SEM is again recommended (Hair *et al.,* 2011:144). In calculating the minimum sample size required, the "A-priori Sample Size Calculator for Structural Equation Models" developed by Soper (2016), with its origins in the work undertaken by Westland (2010) and Cohen (1988), was used. In this regard, factors such as the ratio of indicator variables to latent variables, minimum effect size, statistical power and statistical significance were considered in the calculation. As such, the minimum sample size based on the following parameter values inputted into the calculator, namely anticipated effect size of 0.1, desired statistical power level of 0.8, number of latent variables 10, number of observed variables 44 and a probability level of 0.5, is 2 022. Based on the available budget, however, the size of the sample achieved for this study was only 814.

Given the decision to use PLS-SEM, the hypotheses for the purpose of this study were all tested by means of the variance-based SEM program *SmartPLS 3* v.3.2.4.

In applying the PLS-SEM technique, the assessment of the results requires the completion of two evaluation stages, namely the evaluation of the measurement or outer model and the evaluation of the structural or inner model (Hair *et al*., 2017:107; Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith & Reams, 2014:4).

Assessment of the reflective measurement model

In determining the model metrics to be used in the evaluation, it is necessary to first determine whether a reflective or a formative measurement approach is to be followed as each approach is based on different concepts (Hair *et al*., 2017:105-106; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014:4). In terms of the reflective measure approach, the indicators mirror the effects of the underlying construct. The causality is, therefore, from the construct to its indicators (Hair *et al*., 2017:46). The formative approach is somewhat different with the causal

- 148 -

indicators together forming the construct and ultimately determining its meaning (Hair *et al.*, 2017:47).

For the purpose of this research study, a reflective approach has been adopted. As such, the most important model evaluation metrics, as identified by Hair *et al.* (2017:105) and Sarstedt *et al.* (2014:4) are outlined below.

i) *Assessment of convergent validity* – convergent validity is the degree to which the indicators of a particular construct correlate positively with other indicators of the same construct. It is expected that indicators of the same construct will be characterised by high proportion of shared variance (Hair *et al.*, 2017:112-113). In assessing convergent validity it is necessary to consider firstly, the outer loadings of the indicators and secondly, the average variance extracted (AVE), as explained briefly below (Hair *et al.*, 2017:113-115).

- Outer loadings of indicators – This relates to the reliability of the indicators whereby high outer loadings on a specific reflective construct are an indication of a high degree of commonality among the associated indicators.

- AVE – This relates to the communality of a specific reflective construct and is calculated by dividing the sum of the squared indicator loadings by the number of indicators as shown below.

  AVE formula:

  $$AVE = \left[\frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{M} l_i^2\right)}{M}\right]$$

  l_i = standardised outer loading
  i = indicator variable
  M = indicators

  Source: Hair *et al.* (2017:115)

Convergent validity is dependent on the absolute standardised outer loadings exceeding 0.70 as this explains at least 50% of each indicator's variance although

weaker outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 are acceptable and should be retained if removal of the particular item does not lead to an increase in AVE (Hair *et al.* (2017:113; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014:4). AVE values of 0.50 and higher are an indication that, on average, more than half of the indicator variance is explained by the particular reflective construct (Hair *et al.*, 2017:115; Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins & Kuppelwieser, 2014:111).

ii. *Composite reliability* – internal consistency relates to the consistency or homogeneity of the scores across items measuring the same construct (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:173; Hair *et al.*, 2017:320). Traditionally, Chronbach's alpha has been the metric most frequently used, providing an estimate of internal consistency reliability by measuring the intercorrelations amongst the observed indicator variables (Hair *et al.*, 2017:111). Composite reliability is, however, today considered a technically more appropriate measure of internal consistency (Hair *et al.*, 2017:111) and particularly suitable for PLS-SEM (Hair *et al.*, 2011:145). This is due to two limitations typically associated with Chronbach's alpha and that composite reliability is able to overcome (Hair *et al.*, 2017:111):

- The assumption that all of the observed indicator variables are equally reliable
- The tendency to underestimate the internal consistency reliability due to the measure's sensitivity to the number of scale items.

Composite reliability formula:

$$p_C = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{M} l_i\right)^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{M} l_i\right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{M} var\,(e_i)}$$

l_i = standardised outer loading

i = indicator variable

M = indicators

e_i = measurement error

var (e_i) = variance of the measurement error

Source: Hair *et al.* (2017:112)

Composite reliability is interpreted in the same way as Chronbach's alpha in that values approaching one (1) indicate high levels of reliability whereas values approaching zero (0) indicate low levels of reliability. Reliability values between 0.70 and 0.90 are considered to be satisfactory for studies that have moved beyond the exploratory stage while values below 0.60 lack reliability (Hair *et al.*, 2017:112; Nunnally & Bernstein in Hair *et al.*, 2011:145).

iii) *Assessment of discriminant validity* – this is an assessment of the extent to which a construct is unique and empirically distinct from the other constructs in the measurement model. This relates to not only how the construct correlates with the other constructs, but how the indicators are representative of only one particular construct (Hair *et al.*, 2017:115; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014:4). Two approaches have traditionally been used in assessing discriminant validity (Hair *et al.*, 2017:115; Sarstedt *et al.,* 2014:4-5):

- The Fornell-Larcker criterion – the most rigorous of the two approaches, this approach involves calculating the square root of the AVE values and then comparing these values with the latent variable correlations
- The examination of the cross loadings of the indicators – this approach entails comparing an indicator's outer loading on an associated construct with its cross-loadings on other constructs.

Both of the approaches listed above in assessing discriminant validity were employed in this research study. In addition to the assessment of the model evaluation metrics described above, common-method variance was also assessed because, as highlighted by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003:879), most researchers consider variance attributable to the measurement method as one of the main sources of measurement error in behavioural research.

iv) *Assessment of common-method variance* – a potential source of common-method biases is the sharing of common methods amongst measures obtained from a common source (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003:879). Given that both independent and dependent measures obtained from a common source were used in this research study, common-method variance could bias the findings. In order to assess method bias, one of the most widely used techniques was employed, namely Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003:889). This technique requires the conducting of an exploratory

factor analysis and the examining of the unrotated factor solution. If only a single factor is apparent from the factor analysis or if only a single factor is responsible for most of the covariance among all of the different measures, then a substantial amount of covariance is present (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003:889). From the exploratory factor analysis undertaken on the raw data collected for this study, more than one factor emerged. Furthermore, the factor that accounted for the majority of the variance, accounted for only 26.85% of the variance among the measures. Therefore, common-method variance does not appear to be a problem in this study.

Assessment of the structural model

The assessment of the structural model is concerned with its ability to predict the endogenous constructs contained within the model (Sarstedt *et al.,* 2014:5). In undertaking the assessment, the following criteria, from those identified by Hair *et al.* (2017:192) and Sarstedt *et al.* (2014:5), were used.

i) *Assessment of collinearity* – this criterion entails an examination of the model for any potential collinearity. This examination is necessary to ensure that the regression results are not biased by critical levels of collinearity among the predictor constructs given that the estimation of path coefficients in PLS-SEM is based on a series of regression analyses (Hair *et al.*, 2017:191-192; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014:5). In order to assess collinearity the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) will be used as a measure. Critical levels of collinearity are usually indicated when a VIF value of 5 or higher is calculated as this implies that less than 20% of an indicator's variance is not explained by the remaining indicators (Hair *et al.*, 2017:143-144).

ii) *Assessment of structural model path coefficients* – the PLS-SEM algorithm calculates the estimated path relationships between each of the constructs represented within the structural model. These are referred to as the path coefficients and they represent the relationships that are hypothesised to exist between each of the constructs. The standardised values associated with path coefficients vary between -1 and +1. Values close to zero (0) are usually not considered to be statistically different from zero (0) whereas values approaching -1 or +1 are considered to be statistically significant, representing strong negative or positive relationships, respectively. However, the ultimate determination of whether a path coefficient is significant or not, is dependent

on its standard error, which enables the computing of the empirical t-values and p-values for all the path coefficients in the structural model (Hair *et al*., 2017:195). The t-values are test statistics that follow a t-distribution with degrees of freedom (df) that are equal to the number of observations minus the number of indicators minus 1. In instances where the number of observations exceeds 30, the t-distribution approximates a normal distribution and it is the normal quantiles that are used to calculate the critical t values (Hair *et al.,* 2017:153). In instances where the empirical t-values exceed the critical t-values, the path coefficients are considered to be statistically significant at a particular significance level. In terms of this study, a significance level of 5% (two-tailed), common to marketing-related research, was adopted and, as such, the critical t-value used for the two-tailed tests was 1.96 (Hair *et al*., 2017:195-196). The p-values are probability values which are used to test significance levels. They are related to the probability of incorrectly rejecting a null hypothesis which is true (Hair *et al*., 2017:153 & 196). In doing so, a researcher incorrectly supposes that the path coefficient is significant even though it is not. In terms of the significance level of 5% adopted for this study, the p-value must be less than 0.050 in order to conclude that a particular relationship is indeed significant (Hair *et al*., 2017:196).

iii) *Assessment of the coefficient of determination* – this third criterion involves evaluating the coefficient of determination, known as the R^2 value, of each endogenous construct (Sarstedt *et al*., 2014:6). The coefficient is a measure of in-sample predictive power, explaining the amount of variance found in each of the endogenous constructs, the result of all of the exogenous constructs linked to them (Hair *et al*., 2017:198; Sarstedt *et al*., 2014:6). The R^2 value ranges between zero (0) and 1, with higher values associated with increased predictive accuracy. In this regard, coefficient values of 0.75, 0.50 and 0.25, within the context of marketing-related research, are considered to be substantial, moderate or weak, respectively (Hair *et al*., 2017:199; Sarstedt *et al*., 2014:6).

7.4.4 <u>Research ethics</u>

Research, according to Cooper and Schindler (1998:108), demands that all participants behave ethically. It relates to the appropriateness of a researcher's behaviour to those

individuals who are either the subject of a research project or who are affected by it (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:600). Ethical treatment, however, extends beyond respondents to also include clients, research sponsors and other researchers (Coopers & Schindler, 1998:108). According to the University of Pretoria's Code of Ethics for Research (1999:2-3), it also extends to the broader academic community and to society as a whole.

Key ethical issues identified by Coopers and Schindler (1998:108-113); Saunders *et al.* (2009:185-186); and the University of Pretoria (1999:23-29) which are applicable to this study are the following:

- *Privacy and confidentiality* – respect for the privacy of respondents was upheld throughout the research study. As such, respondents were assured anonymity when completing the questionnaires, not being identified in person, while the survey answers they provided were treated as being strictly confidential.

- *Informed consent* – prior to participating in the survey, respondents were provided with an opportunity to choose to participate; background to the study; information related to the purpose of the study; a 'good-faith' estimate of the time required to complete the survey; and a request to complete all of the questions, there being no correct or incorrect answers.

- *Processing and storage of data* – due care was taken with all the data remaining strictly confidential during the process of analysis and storage afterwards.

- *Selection of participants* – fairness was exercised in the selection of participants, with those meeting the criteria for the study, as listed previously, encouraged to participate on a voluntary basis.

7.5 SUMMARY

This chapter focused firstly, on the research design or master plan, describing the type of research design which was employed in collecting and analysing the required data. Secondly, the chapter focused on the research methodology, describing in detail the data collection method, the sampling plan and the data analysis approach. Finally, the chapter discussed the research ethics that formed the foundation of this study.

The next chapter, Chapter 8, provides the analysis of the research data and interpretation of the research results, addressing Step 8 of the research process.

8 ANALYSIS OF DATA AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

While Steps 1 to 3 and 4 to 7 of the research process were addressed in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively, this chapter addresses Step 8 which is concerned with the analysis and interpretation of the research data. The chapter firstly, provides an analysis of the descriptive data, focusing on frequency distributions as well as measures of central location, spread and shape. Secondly, it provides an analysis of the measurement model, assessing composite reliability as well as convergent and discriminant validity. Thirdly, the chapter provides an analysis of the structural model, assessing collinearity, path coefficients and the coefficients of determination. The chapter concludes by providing a summary of the hypotheses testing.

8.2 ANALYSIS OF THE DESCRIPTIVE DATA

This section provides an analysis of the descriptive data collected for the purpose of this research study. It has been divided into three sub-sections – the first describing the demographic characteristics of the survey sample, encompassing the respondents' gender, age and race. The second describes the respondents' purchasing habits as they relate to the frequency with which respondents purchase branded clothing and the type of store they mostly purchase from. The third describes the constructs and measurement items incorporated into the structural model.

8.2.1 <u>Respondent profile</u>

The total number of respondents (N) who participated in the study was 814. The frequency distribution of these respondents in terms of Gender was 49.6% (404) male and 50.4% (410) female.

In terms of Age, the largest percentage of respondents 24.3% (198) were in the age group 31-35 while the smallest percentage of respondents 7.5% (61) were in the

age group 46-50, as presented in Table 8.1 below. It was required that all respondents participating in the study were 21 years of age or older.

Table 8.1   Frequency distribution – age of respondents

	Frequency	%
21-25 years	135	16.6
26-30 years	156	19.2
31-35 years	198	24.3
36-40 years	103	12.7
41-45 years	79	9.7
46-50 years	61	7.5
51-69 years	82	10.1
Total	**814**	**100**

In comparing Age and Gender, it is evident from Table 8.2 that the largest percentage of male respondents 24.3% (98) and female respondents 24.4% (100) were in the 31-35 age group. Similarly, the distribution of Gender across the respective age groups was comparable although there were a larger percentage of females in the 21-25 and 26-30 age groups and a larger percentage of males in the 51-69 age group.

Table 8.2   Cross-tabulation – age versus gender of respondents

	Male		Female	
	n	%	n	%
21-25 years	61	15.1	74	18.0
26-30 years	72	17.8	84	20.5
31-35 years	98	24.3	100	24.4
36-40 years	53	13.1	50	12.2
41-45 years	39	9.7	40	9.8
46-50 years	29	7.2	32	7.8
51-69 years	52	12.9	30	7.3
Total	**404**	**100**	**410**	**100**

Respondents participating in the study were based in the Republic of South Africa. In terms of Race, in referring to the classification of population groups as prescribed by Stats SA, the majority of the respondents were White 58.1% (473) while the second largest number of respondents were African 20% (163), as indicated in Table 8.3. Coloured respondents made up another 11.3% (92) of the respondents, while Indian/Asian

- 157 -

respondents made up a further 9.5% (77). A small percentage, namely 1.1% (9), indicated 'Other' when responding to the question related to Race.

Table 8.3   Frequency distribution – race of respondents

	Frequency	%
Black African	163	20.0
Coloured	92	11.3
Indian/Asian	77	9.5
White	473	58.1
Other	9	1.1
Total	**814**	**100**

8.2.2   **Purchasing habits**

Respondents were questioned as to how often they purchased branded clothing for themselves. The results from this question are indicated in Table 8.4 below. Only 1.8% (15) of respondents indicated that they purchased branded clothing on a weekly basis while 4.2% (34) of respondents indicated that they did so twice a month. There was an equal distribution for the purchasing of branded clothing on the basis of monthly and every 2nd month 15.7% (128). The largest percentage of respondents, namely 19.5% (159) indicated that they purchased their branded clothing quarterly. In terms of twice a year, 13.8% (112) of respondents selected this option while 16.3% (133) indicated yearly. Finally, 12.9% (105) selected the 'Other' option.

Table 8.4   Frequency distribution – purchasing of branded clothing

	Frequency	%
Weekly	15	1.8
Twice a month	34	4.2
Monthly	128	15.7
Every 2nd month	128	15.7
Quarterly	159	19.5
Twice a year	112	13.8
Yearly	133	16.3
Other	105	12.9
Total	**814**	**100**

In Table 8.5 the frequency of purchasing branded clothing compared between male and female is presented. As can be seen from the results, the frequency profile is very similar across gender. There are, however, some relatively small differences. For example,

3.2% (13) of male respondents indicated that they purchased branded clothing weekly compared to only 0.5% (2) for female respondents. The number of male and female respondents who indicated that they purchased branded clothing twice a year was identical being 56, respectively.

Table 8.5   Cross tabulation – purchasing of branded clothing versus gender

	Male		Female	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**
Weekly	13	3.2	2	0.5
Twice a month	15	3.7	19	4.6
Monthly	72	17.8	56	13.7
Every 2nd month	66	16.3	62	15.1
Quarterly	87	21.5	72	17.6
Twice a year	56	13.9	56	13.7
Yearly	57	14.1	76	18.5
Other	38	9.4	67	16.3
Total	**404**	**100**	**410**	**100**

It is evident from the results contained in Table 8.6 below that the overwhelming majority of respondents 49.3% (401) mostly purchased their branded clothing from a department store.

Table 8.6   Frequency distribution – type of store

	Frequency	**%**
Boutique store	62	7.6
Department store	401	49.3
Discount store	152	18.7
Hypermarket	24	2.9
Online store	47	5.8
Speciality store	104	12.8
Other	24	2.9
Total	**814**	**100**

A department store is defined as a store which sells a large number of product categories all organised into separate departments. The next most popular store was the discount store 18.7% (152) which is a store that offers a large number of product categories containing standard product items at comparatively low or discounted prices, while speciality stores ranked third 12.8% (104) in popularity. These stores typically only sell single or a limited number of product categories containing a large variety of product items.

A small number of respondents 2.9% (24) selected 'Other' in answering this question. Other types of stores mentioned included factory and charity shops.

In comparing which type of store male and female respondents mostly purchased their branded clothing from, it is apparent from Table 8.7 that department stores were the most popular choice among both gender groups, 50% (202) and 48.5% (199). The most obvious differences in choice related to discount stores and speciality stores. In this regard, a larger percentage of female respondents 23.2% (95) preferred to shop at discount stores compared to male respondents 14.1% (57). Conversely, a larger percentage of male respondents shopped for branded clothing at speciality stores 15.3% (62) compared to female respondents 10.2% (42).

Table 8.7   Cross-tabulation – type of store versus gender

	Male		Female	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**
Boutique store	34	8.4	28	6.8
Department store	202	50.0	199	48.5
Discount store	57	14.1	95	23.2
Hypermarket	13	3.2	11	2.7
Online store	24	5.9	23	5.6
Speciality store	62	15.3	42	10.2
Other	12	3.0	12	2.9
Total	**404**	**100**	**410**	**100**

8.2.3   Descriptive statistics for the constructs

This third sub-section describes the constructs and measurement items incorporated into the structural model. In this regard, the distribution of the data is not only analysed in terms of its frequency but also in terms of its arithmetic mean, as a measure of central location; standard deviation, as a measure of spread; and skewness and peakedness, as measures of shape.

8.2.3.1   *Risk Aversion*

The distribution of the data related to Risk Aversion (RA) is evident from the results provided in Table 8.8. In terms of the mean $(\overline{x})$ values calculated for each of the four

questions related to this construct; these ranged from 3.557 to 4.208. These values suggest that, on average, respondents either slightly disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements.

Table 8.8   Data distribution – Risk Aversion

	RA1	RA2	RA3	RA4
N	814	814	814	814
Mean	3.557	4.208	3.603	3.781
Std. Deviation	1.8765	1.8013	1.7678	1.7185
Skewness	0.22	-0.243	0.217	0.086
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-1.268	-1.177	-1.175	-1.288
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

In terms of the standard deviation (s), the values varied from 1.7185 to 1.8765 suggesting a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (sk) values varied from -0.243 to 0.217 which suggest that the data distribution is not skewed as these values do not exceed the threshold values of +1 and -1. The peakedness (ku) values, however, have exceeded these threshold values, ranging from -1.177 to -1.288 suggesting that the data distribution is platykurtic.

The frequency distribution of the responses to each of the four questions related to this construct are summarised in Table 8.9 below.

Table 8.9   Frequency distribution – Items RA1, RA2, RA3 and RA4

	RA1 n (%)	RA2 n (%)	RA3 n (%)	RA4 n (%)
1	120 (14.7)	64 (7.9)	89 (10.9)	59 (7.2)
2	207 (25.4)	123 (15.1)	199 (24.4)	189 (23.2)
3	98 (12.0)	121 (14.9)	140 (17.2)	161 (19.8)
4	87 (10.7)	100 (12.3)	96 (11.8)	71 (8.7)
5	137 (16.8)	140 (17.2)	131 (16.1)	153 (18.8)
6	121 (14.9)	210 (25.8)	126 (15.5)	158 (19.4)
7	44 (5.4)	56 (6.9)	33 (4.1)	23 (2.8)
Total	814 (100)	814 (100)	814 (100)	814 (100)

In terms of item RA1 "I tend to avoid talking to strangers" 14.7% (120) of respondents strongly disagreed, 25.4% (207) disagreed while 12.0% (98) slightly disagreed. The

frequency distribution for item RA2 "I prefer a routine way of life to an unpredictable one full of change" was somewhat different in that 49.9% (406) of respondents agreed with this statement to a varying degree with 6.9% (56) strongly agreeing, 25.8% (210) slightly agreeing and 17.2% (140) agreeing.

With regard to item RA3 "I would not describe myself as a risk-taker", 24.4% (199) of respondents disagreed with this statement. In terms of item RA4 "I do not like taking too many chances" 23.2% (189) of respondents also indicated that they disagreed with this statement while 2.8% (23) of respondents indicated that they strongly agreed.

8.2.3.2   *Ambiguity Intolerance*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) are provided in Table 8.10 below. The mean ($\overline{x}$) values calculated for each of the four questions varied from 3.618 to 4.773. These values suggest that, on average, respondents either slightly disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements.

In terms of the standard deviation (*s*), the values varied from 1.7185 to 1.8998, again suggesting a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (*sk*) values ranged from -0.705 to 0.219 which again suggest that the data distribution is not skewed as these values do not exceed the threshold values of +1 and -1. The peakedness (*ku*) values varied from -0.647 to -1.288 suggesting that the data was normally distributed except for A1 where a platykurtic distribution is evident.

Table 8.10   Data distribution – Ambiguity Intolerance

	AI1	AI2	AI3	AI4
N	814	814	814	814
Mean	3.618	4.773	4.557	4.482
Std. Deviation	1.8998	1.7185	1.7497	1.7533
Skewness	0.219	-0.705	-0.557	-0.448
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-1.288	-0.647	-0.827	-0.965
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

Table 8.11 below provides a summary of the frequency distribution of the responses to each of the four items related to AI construct.

Table 8.11   Frequency distribution – Items AI1, AI2, AI3 and AI4

	AI1 n (%)	AI2 n (%)	AI3 n (%)	AI4 n (%)
1	117 (14.4)	41 (5.0)	48 (5.9)	42 (5.2)
2	184 (22.6)	80 (9.8)	108 (13.3)	128 (15.7)
3	134 (16.5)	81 (10.0)	74 (9.1)	68 (8.4)
4	86 (10.6)	97 (11.9)	76 (9.3)	101 (12.4)
5	89 (10.9)	121 (14.9)	208 (25.6)	185 (22.7)
6	159 (19.5)	310 (38.1)	221 (27.1)	213 (26.2)
7	45 (5.5)	84 (10.3)	79 (9.7)	77 (9.5)
Total	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**

In terms of item AI1 "I prefer specific instructions to broad guidelines" a large percentage of respondents 22.6% (184) indicated that they disagreed with this statement while, with regard to item AI2 "I prefer specific instructions to broad guidelines", a larger percentage of respondents 38.1% (310) indicated that they agreed with this statement.

Concerning item AI3 "I tend to get anxious when I do not know an outcome", 27.1% (221) indicated of respondents indicated that they agreed with this statement while 5.9% (48) of respondents indicated that they strongly disagreed.

With regard to item AI4 "I feel stressed when I cannot predict consequences", the percentage of respondents who indicated that they slightly agreed with this statement was 22.7% (185) while a further 26.2% (213) indicated that they agreed and 9.5% (77) that they strongly agreed.

8.2.3.3   *Masculinity*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Masculinity (MAS) are provided in Table 8.12. The mean $(\overline{x})$ values calculated for each of the four questions suggested a rather large variance, ranging from 3.337 to 5.537. These values suggest that, on average, respondents either slightly disagreed, neither agreed nor disagreed or slightly agreed with the statements.

In terms of the standard deviation (*s*), the values ranged from 1.3576 to 1.601, suggesting once again a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (*sk*) values varied from -1.432 to 0.293. This suggests that the data distribution is not skewed for MAS1, MAS3 and MAS4 but it is negatively or left skewed for MAS2. The peakedness (*ku*) values varied from -0.859 to 1.843 suggesting that the data was normally distributed for MAS1, MAS3 and MAS4 but that the data distribution for MAS2 is mesokurtic in shape with the value of *ku* exceeding 1.

Table 8.12   Data distribution – Masculinity

	MAS1	MAS2	MAS3	MAS4
N	814	814	814	814
Mean	5.146	5.537	3.337	4.157
Std. Deviation	1.5382	1.3576	1.601	1.5863
Skewness	-0.911	-1.432	0.293	-0.228
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	0.185	1.843	-0.753	-0.859
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

The frequency distribution of the responses to each of the four items related to this construct are summarised in Table 8.13 below.

Table 8.13   Frequency distribution – Items MAS1, MAS2, MAS3 and MAS4

	MAS1 n (%)	MAS2 n (%)	MAS3 n (%)	MAS4 n (%)
1	24 (2.9)	15 (1.8)	108 (13.3)	39 (4.8)
2	44 (5.4)	28 (3.4)	203 (24.9)	129 (15.8)
3	49 (6.0)	35 (4.3)	98 (12.0)	79 (9.7)
4	122 (15.0)	62 (7.6)	232 (28.5)	221 (27.1)
5	146 (17.9)	124 (15.2)	79 (9.7)	143 (17.6)
6	291 (35.7)	387 (47.5)	73 (9.0)	170 (20.9)
7	138 (17.0)	163 (20)	21 (2.6)	33 (4.1)
Total	814 (100)	814 (100)	814 (100)	814 (100)

In terms of item MAS1 "Women are generally more caring than men" 35.7% (291) of respondents indicated that they agreed with this statement while 2.9% (24) indicated that they strongly disagreed. Similarly, a large percentage of respondents 47.5% (387) indicated that they agreed with item MAS2 "Men are generally physically stronger than women" while a far smaller percentage 1.8% (15) indicated that they strongly disagreed.

- 164 -

With regard to item MAS3 "Men are generally more ambitious than women", 13.3% (108) indicated that they strongly disagreed with this statement, 24.9% (203) that they disagreed and 12.0% (98) that they slightly disagreed.

Concerning item MAS4 "Women are generally more modest than men" 27.1% (221) of respondents indicated that they neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement.

8.2.3.4 *Gender Equality*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Gender Equality (GE) are provided in Table 8.14. The mean ($\overline{x}$) values calculated for each of the four questions varied from 5.611 to 6.107. These values indicate that, on average, respondents either slightly agreed or agreed with the statements. In terms of the standard deviation (s), the values varied from 1.0414 and 1.5446, again indicating a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (sk) values ranged from -1.629 to -2.200 which indicated that the data distribution was negative or left skewed as these values exceeded the threshold values of +1 and -1. The peakedness (ku) values varied from 1.999 to 6.774 indicating that the data was not normally distributed, having platykurtic distribution.

Table 8.14   Data distribution – Gender Equality

	GE1	GE2	GE3	GE4
N	814	814	814	814
Mean	5.953	5.611	5.781	6.107
Std. Deviation	1.1036	1.5446	1.1338	1.0414
Skewness	-2.175	-1.629	-1.716	-2.200
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	6.057	1.999	3.624	6.774
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

Table 8.15 below summarises the frequency distribution of the responses to each of the items related to GE.

Table 8.15 Frequency distribution – Items GE1, GE2, GE3 and GE4

	GE1 n (%)	GE2 n (%)	GE3 n (%)	GE4 n (%)
1	9 (1.1)	33 (4.1)	6 (0.7)	8 (1.0)
2	15 (1.8)	35 (4.3)	17 (2.1)	7 (0.9)
3	14 (1.7)	21 (2.6)	23 (2.8)	10 (1.2)
4	26 (3.2)	50 (6.1)	42 (5.2)	33 (4.1)
5	68 (8.4)	69 (8.5)	107 (13.1)	53 (6.5)
6	453 (55.7)	386 (47.4)	439 (53.9)	399 (49.0)
7	229 (28.1)	220 (27.0)	180 (22.1)	304 (37.3)
Total	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**

The frequency distribution of the responses to item GE1 "It is all right for men to be emotional sometimes" indicates that 55.7% (453) of respondents agreed with this statement while 28.1% (229) strongly agreed and 8.4% (68) slightly agreed. In terms of item GE2 "Men do not have to be the sole breadwinner in a family" a large percentage of respondents 47.4% (386) indicated that they agreed while a far smaller percentage 2.6% (21) indicated that they slightly disagreed.

Concerning item GE3 "Men can be as caring as women" the majority of respondents indicated that they agreed with this statement to varying degrees with 13.1% (107) slightly agreeing, 53.9% (439) agreeing and 22.1% (180) strongly agreeing.

With regard to item GE4 "Women can be as ambitious as men", 49% (399) of respondents indicated that they agreed with this statement while 1% (8) strongly disagreed.

8.2.3.5 *Brand Loyalty*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Brand Loyalty (BL) are provided in Table 8.16. The mean ($\overline{x}$) values calculated for each of the four questions varied from 3.778 to 4.307. These values suggest that, on average, respondents either slightly disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements. In terms of the standard deviation (*s*), the values varied from 1.7098 to 1.7956, again suggesting a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (*sk*) values ranged from -0.328 to 0.107 which suggested that the data distribution is not skewed as these values do not exceed the threshold values of +1 and -1. The peakedness (*ku*) values ranged from -1.204 to -1.365 suggesting that the data was not normally distributed and that the shape is mesokurtic.

Table 8.16   Data distribution – Brand Loyalty

	BL1	BL2	BL3	BL4
N	814	814	814	814
Mean	3.778	3.984	4.307	4.163
Std. Deviation	1.7098	1.7503	1.7956	1.7533
Skewness	0.107	-0.102	-0.328	-0.197
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-1.268	-1.365	-1.248	-1.204
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

The frequency distribution of the responses to each of the four items related to BL are summarised in Table 8.17 below.

Table 8.17   Frequency distribution – Items BL1, BL2, BL3 and BL4

	BL1 n (%)	BL2 n (%)	BL3 n (%)	BL4 n (%)
1	50 (6.1)	47 (5.8)	41 (5.0)	45 (5.5)
2	220 (27.0)	203 (24.9)	175 (21.5)	168 (20.6)
3	107 (13.1)	87 (10.7)	59 (7.2)	83 (10.2)
4	128 (15.7)	105 (12.9)	98 (12.0)	118 (14.5)
5	127 (15.6)	148 (18.2)	153 (18.8)	163 (20.0)
6	157 (19.3)	199 (24.4)	235 (28.9)	187 (23.0)
7	25 (3.1)	25 (3.1)	53 (6.5)	50 (6.1)
Total	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**

With regard to item BL1 "I do not regularly change the clothing brands I buy", a large percentage of respondents 27.0% (220) indicated that they slightly disagreed with this statement, while only 3.1% (25) indicated that they strongly agreed. In terms of item BL2 "I go to the same stores each time I shop for branded clothing" 18.2% (148) indicated that they slightly agreed with this statement, 24.4% (199) that they agreed and 3.1% (25) that they strongly agreed.

Concerning item BL3 "I have favourite clothing brands I buy over and over" 28.9% (235) of respondents indicated that they agreed with this statement while a smaller percentage

5.0% (41) indicated that they strongly disagreed. Similarly, a large percentage of respondents 23.0% (187) indicated that they agreed with item BL4 "Once I find a clothing brand I like, I stick with it" while 5.5% (45) indicated that they strongly disagreed.

8.2.3.6 *Brand Consciousness*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Brand Consciousness (BC) are provided in Table 8.18. The mean ($\overline{x}$) values calculated for each of the six questions ranged from 3.092 to 4.607. These values suggest that, on average, respondents either slightly disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements. In terms of the standard deviation (*s*), the values varied from 1.624 to 1.7986, again indicating a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (*sk*) values varied from 0.570 to -0.619 which suggested that the data distribution is not skewed as these values do not exceed the threshold values. The peakedness (*ku*) values ranged from -0.662 to -1.263 suggesting that the data had a somewhat flat distribution.

Table 8.18   Data distribution – Brand Consciousness

	BC1	BC2	BC3	BC4	BC5	BC6
N	814	814	814	814	814	814
Mean	3.699	3.729	3.092	3.638	4.607	3.830
Std. Deviation	1.7442	1.6632	1.7124	1.7986	1.624	1.7761
Skewness	0.172	0.068	0.570	0.136	-0.619	0.048
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-1.112	-1.136	-0.815	-1.211	-0.662	-1.263
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

The frequency distribution of the responses to each of the six questions related to this construct are summarised in Table 8.19 below.

Table 8.19   Frequency distribution – Items BC1, BC2, BC3, BC4, BC5 and BC6

	BC1 n (%)	BC2 n (%)	BC3 n (%)	BC4 n (%)	BC5 n (%)	BC6 n (%)
1	71 (8.7)	62 (7.6)	144 (17.7)	100 (12.3)	33 (4.1)	64 (7.9)
2	214 (26.3)	198 (24.3)	265 (32.6)	192 (23.6)	96 (11.8)	209 (25.7)
3	83 (10.2)	105 (12.9)	94 (11.5)	114 (14.0)	72 (8.8)	86 (10.6)
4	171 (21.0)	154 (18.9)	115 (14.1)	92 (11.3)	122 (15.0)	123 (15.1)
5	112 (13.8)	147 (18.1)	98 (12.0)	168 (20.6)	176 (21.6)	146 (17.9)
6	122 (15.0)	125 (15.4)	75 (9.2)	109 (13.4)	264 (32.4)	146 (17.9)
7	41 (5.0)	23 (2.8)	23 (2.8)	39 (4.8)	51 (6.3)	40 (4.9)
Total	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**

The frequency distribution of the responses to item BC1 "The well-known clothing brands are best for me" indicate that 26.3% (214) of respondents disagreed with this statement while 5% (41) indicated that they strongly agreed. In terms of item BC2 "The most advertised clothing brands are usually very good choices" 12.9% (105) indicated that they slightly disagreed with this statement, 24.3% (198) that they disagreed and 7.6% (62) that they strongly disagreed.

Concerning item BC3 "The more expensive clothing brands are usually my choices". A large percentage of respondents 32.6% (265) indicated that they disagreed with this statement while a far smaller percentage 2.8% (23) indicated that they strongly agreed. With regard to item BC4 "The higher the price of the brand of clothing, the better its quality" 23.6% (192) of respondents indicated that they disagreed with the statement while 14.0% (114) slightly disagreed and 12.3% (100) strongly disagreed.

The largest percentage of respondents 32.4% (264) indicated that they agreed with item BC5 "Good quality stores offer me the best clothing brands" while only 4.1% (33), the smallest percentage of respondents, indicated that they strongly disagreed with this statement.

In terms of item BC6 "I prefer buying the well-known clothing brands" the majority of respondents indicated that they disagreed with the statement to varying degrees with

7.9% (64) indicating that they strongly disagreed, 25.7% (209) that they disagreed and 10.6% (86) that they slightly disagreed.

8.2.3.7 *Risk Involvement*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Risk Involvement (RI) are indicated in Table 8.20. The mean ($\bar{x}$) values calculated for each of the six questions varied from 4.416 to 5.354. These values indicate that, on average, respondents neither agreed nor disagreed or slightly agreed with the statements. In terms of the standard deviation (*s*), the values ranged from 1.2944 to 1.6678, again indicating a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (*sk*) values varied from -0.438 and -1.286 which indicated that apart from items RI3 and RI5 the data distribution is not skewed. The peakedness (*ku*) values ranged from -0.751 to 1.473. Apart from item RI3, the data was normally distributed.

Table 8.20   Data distribution – Risk Involvement

	RI1	RI2	RI3	RI4	RI5	RI6
N	814	814	814	814	814	814
Mean	4.657	4.416	5.354	4.801	5.221	4.964
Std. Deviation	1.6678	1.5863	1.2944	1.5222	1.4613	1.6442
Skewness	-0.687	-0.438	-1.286	-0.727	-1.028	-0.877
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-0.542	-0.751	1.473	-0.202	0.527	-0.278
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

Table 8.21 below summarises the frequency distribution of the responses to each of the six questions related to the RI construct.

Table 8.21   Frequency distribution – Items RI1, RI2, RI3, RI4, RI5 and RA6

	RI1 n (%)	RI2 n (%)	RI3 n (%)	RI4 n (%)	RI5 n (%)	RI6 n (%)
1	41 (5.0)	32 (3.9)	11 (1.4)	26 (3.2)	19 (2.3)	27 (3.3)
2	99 (12.2)	108 (13.3)	35 (4.3)	65 (8.0)	43 (5.3)	88 (10.8)
3	37 (4.5)	71 (8.7)	21 (2.6)	54 (6.6)	29 (3.6)	35 (4.3)
4	137 (16.8)	176 (21.6)	112 (13.8)	161 (19.8)	142 (17.4)	115 (14.1)
5	173 (21.3)	174 (21.4)	137 (16.8)	168 (20.6)	117 (14.4)	117 (14.4)
6	261 (32.1)	211 (25.9)	405 (49.8)	274 (33.7)	343 (42.1)	336 (41.3)
7	66 (8.1)	42 (5.2)	93 (11.4)	66 (8.1)	121 (14.9)	96 (11.8)
Total	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**

In terms of item RI1 "I believe that different brands of clothing provide different amounts of satisfaction" 32.1% (261) of respondents agreed with this statement, while a smaller percentage of respondents 5.0% (41) strongly disagreed. Similarly, for item RI2 "I feel rather sure when choosing branded clothing" the largest percentage of respondents 25.9% (211) indicated that they agreed with this statement, while the smallest percentage 3.9% (32) strongly disagreed.

The frequency distribution of the responses to item RI3 "Not all brands of clothing are equally satisfying" indicates that the majority of respondents agreed with this statement to varying degrees with 16.8% slightly agreeing, 49.8% agreeing and 11.4% (93) strongly agreeing.

With regard to item RI4 "In purchasing branded clothing, I am certain of my choice" the largest percentage of respondents 33.7% (274) indicated that they agreed with this statement. Only 3.2% (26) respondents, the smallest percentage, strongly disagreed with this statement. Similarly, the largest percentage of respondents 42.1% (343) agreed with item RI5 "It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of branded clothing" while the smallest percentage 3% (19) strongly disagreed.

In terms of item RI6 "A poor choice of branded clothing would be upsetting" the minority of respondents indicated that they disagreed with the statement to varying degrees with 3.3% (27) indicating that they strongly disagreed, 10.8% (88) indicating that they disagreed and 4.3% (35) indicating that they slightly disagreed.

8.2.3.8 *Situational Involvement*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Situational Involvement (SI) are provided in Table 8.22. The mean ($\overline{X}$) values calculated for each of the four questions varied from 3.711 to 4.149. These values suggest that, on average, respondents either slightly disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements. In terms of the standard deviation (*s*), the values ranged from 1.7032 to 1.7707, again suggesting a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (*sk*) values varied from -0.212 to 0.137 which again suggested that the data distribution is not skewed as these values do not exceed the threshold values of +1 and -1. The peakedness (*ku*) values ranged from -1.232 to -1.172 suggesting that the data distribution is flat and is platykurtic.

Table 8.22   Data distribution – Situational Involvement

	SI1	SI2	SI3	SI4
N	814	814	814	814
Mean	3.903	4.108	4.149	3.711
Std. Deviation	1.7343	1.7032	1.7707	1.7392
Skewness	-0.032	-0.208	-0.212	0.137
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-1.232	-1.181	-1.172	-1.198
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

The frequency distribution of the responses to each of the four questions related to the SI construct are summarised in Table 8.23 below.

Table 8.23   Frequency distribution – Items SI1, SI2, SI3 and SI4

	SI1 n (%)	SI2 n (%)	SI3 n (%)	SI4 n (%)
1	58 (7.1)	46 (5.7)	55 (6.8)	66 (8.1)
2	191 (23.5)	162 (19.9)	162 (19.9)	224 (27.5)
3	80 (9.8)	90 (11.1)	63 (7.7)	80 (9.8)
4	163 (20.0)	132 (16.2)	156 (19.2)	153 (18.8)
5	117 (14.4)	160 (19.7)	132 (16.2)	124 (15.2)
6	175 (21.5)	192 (23.6)	197 (24.2)	134 (16.5)
7	30 (3.7)	32 (3.9)	49 (6.0)	33 (4.1)
Total	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**

In terms of item SI1 "Choosing between brands of clothing is a very important decision" 23.5% (191) of respondents indicated that they disagreed with this statement, while 3.7% (30) indicated that they strongly agreed.

Concerning item SI2 "Buying a brand of clothing requires a lot of thought". The largest percentage of respondents 23.6% (192) indicated that they agreed with this statement.

The frequency distribution of the responses to item SI3 "It is extremely important that I make the right choice of clothing brand" indicated that the majority of respondents agreed with this statement to varying degrees with 16.2% (132) slightly agreeing, 24.2% (197) agreeing and 6.0% (49) strongly agreeing.

With regard to item SI4 "I am concerned about the outcome of my choice of branded clothing". The largest percentage of respondents 27.5% (224) indicated that they disagreed with this statement while the smallest percentage 4.1% (33) strongly agreed.

8.2.3.9   *Normative Involvement*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Normative Involvement (NI) are provided in Table 8.24. The mean ($\overline{x}$) values calculated for each of the four questions varied from 3.474 to 4.015. These values indicate that, on average, respondents either slightly disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements. In terms of the standard

deviation (*s*), the values varied from 1.7267 to 1.7820, suggesting a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (*sk*) values varied from -0.196 to 0.291 which suggested that the data distribution is not skewed as these values do not exceed the threshold values of +1 and -1. The peakedness (*ku*) values ranged from -1.189 to -1.254 suggesting that the data was not normally distributed but instead, platykurtic.

Table 8.24   Data distribution – Normative Involvement

	NI1	NI2	NI3	NI4
N	814	814	814	814
Mean	3.474	4.015	3.931	3.824
Std. Deviation	1.7797	1.782	1.7367	1.7267
Skewness	0.291	-0.196	-0.130	-0.059
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-1.189	-1.238	-1.254	-1.253
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

The frequency distribution of the responses to each of the four questions related to this construct are summarised in Table 8.25.

Table 8.25   Frequency distribution – Items NI1, NI2, NI3 and NI4

	NI1 n (%)	NI2 n (%)	NI3 n (%)	NI4 n (%)
1	96 (11.8)	69 (8.5)	61 (7.5)	67 (8.2)
2	254 (31.2)	175 (21.5)	193 (23.7)	203 (24.9)
3	72 (8.8)	66 (8.1)	71 (8.7)	72 (8.8)
4	126 (15.5)	111 (13.6)	115 (14.1)	122 (15.0)
5	122 (15.0)	189 (23.2)	194 (23.8)	191 (23.5)
6	114 (14.0)	166 (20.4)	150 (18.4)	132 (16.2)
7	30 (3.7)	38 (4.7)	30 (3.7)	27 (3.3)
Total	814 (100)	814 (100)	814 (100)	814 (100)

The frequency distribution of the responses to item NI1 "Buying branded clothing helps me express my personality" indicates that a large percentage of respondents disagree with this statement to varying degrees with 8.8% (72) slightly disagreeing, 31.2% (254) disagreeing and 11.8% (96) strongly disagreeing.

In terms of item NI2 "I can tell a lot about a person by the brand of clothing he or she buys" the majority of respondents indicated that they agreed with this statement to varying degrees. In this regard, 23.2% (189) indicated that they slightly agreed, 20.4% (66) that they agreed and 4.7% (38) that they strongly agreed.

Concerning item NI3 "The branded clothing I buy reveals a little bit about me" 23.8% (194) of respondents indicated that they slightly agreed with this statement, while 3.7% (30) of respondents indicated that they strongly agreed.

With regard to item NI4 "The clothing brands I buy give a glimpse of the type of person I am" the largest percentage respondents 203 (24.9%) indicated that they disagreed with this statement.

8.2.3.10 *Enduring Involvement*

The results of the distribution analysis related to Enduring Involvement (EI) are listed in Table 8.26. The mean $(\overline{X})$ values calculated for each of the four questions varied from 3.203 to 4.676. These values suggest that, on average, respondents either slightly disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements. In terms of the standard deviation (s), the values varied from 1.7632 to 1.8907, again suggesting a fairly large variance from the distribution's mean.

The skewness (sk) values varied from -0.628 to 0.465 which suggests that the data distribution is not skewed. The peakedness (ku) values ranged from -0.899 to -1.211 suggesting that apart from the data distribution associated with item EI4, the data distribution was flat.

Table 8.26   Data distribution – Enduring Involvement

	EI1	EI2	EI3	EI4
N	814	814	814	814
Mean	3.582	3.203	4.276	4.676
Std. Deviation	1.8578	1.7632	1.8354	1.8907
Skewness	0.222	0.465	-0.347	-0.628
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-1.211	-1.036	-1.108	-0.899
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

Table 8.27 below summarises the frequency distribution of the responses to each of the four items related to EI.

Table 8.27   Frequency distribution – Items EI1, EI2, EI3 and EI4

	EI1 n (%)	EI2 n (%)	EI3 n (%)	EI4 n (%)
1	110 (13.5)	138 (17.0)	72 (8.8)	64 (7.9)
2	216 (26.5)	257 (31.6)	130 (16.0)	110 (13.5)
3	76 (9.3)	84 (10.3)	59 (7.2)	39 (4.8)
4	125 (15.4)	115 (14.1)	135 (16.6)	98 (12.0)
5	125 (15.4)	98 (12.0)	141 (17.3)	118 (14.5)
6	113 (13.9)	101 (12.4)	212 (26.0)	272 (33.4)
7	49 (6.0)	21 (2.6)	65 (8.0)	113 (13.9)
Total	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**	**814 (100)**

In terms of item EI1 "I have a strong interest in branded clothing" 26.52% (216) of respondents indicated that they disagreed with this statement, while 6.0% (49) indicated that they strongly agreed.

The frequency distribution of the responses to item EI2 "I attach great importance to branded clothing" indicate that the majority of respondents 31.6% (257) indicated that they disagreed with this statement, while 17% (138) indicated that they strongly disagreed and 10.3% (84) that they slightly disagreed.

With regard to item EI3 "I enjoy buying branded clothing" the largest percentage of respondents 26.0% (212) indicated that they agreed with this statement while 8.0% (65) indicated that they strongly agreed and 17.3% (141) that they slightly agreed.

Concerning item EI4 "Buying branded clothing is like buying a gift for myself". The majority of respondents indicated that they agreed with the statement to varying degrees with 14.5% (118) indicating that they slightly agreed, 33.4% (272) that they agreed and 13.9% (113) that they strongly agreed.

8.2.4   Summary of descriptive statistics for the constructs

This fourth sub-section provides an overall summary of the descriptive statistics related to the data distribution for each of the constructs in terms of their average- mean, standard

deviation, skewness and peakedness. The results of the analysis are provided in Table 8.28.

Apart from Gender Equality (GE), the mean ($\overline{x}$) values varied from 3.787 to 4.902. These values indicate that overall, respondents either slightly disagreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the scale items associated with each particular construct. In contrast, the $\overline{x}$ value for GE was 5.863 which indicated that the results were more positive with respondents slightly agreeing with each of the statements related to this construct.

The similarities of the $\overline{x}$ values associated with those constructs related to Consumer Involvement (CI) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) may suggest that branded clothing is considered neither a high- or low involvement product. Indeed, research conducted by Bauer *et al.* (2006), for example, determined that different products were linked to high- and low involvement while CDMS were also product dependent.

In terms of the standard deviation (*s*), the average values varied from 1.2058 to 1.8367. These values suggest a fairly large variance from the means.

In terms of skewness, the (*sk*) values varied from -1.930 to 0.070. Whereas the results associated with all of the constructs, except GE, suggested that, on average, the data distribution is not skewed, the sk value associated with GE exceeded the threshold value of -1 suggesting that the data was negatively skewed. This finding is consistent with the frequency distribution of the individual items related to GE, as summarised in Table 8.15, which indicated that the majority of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with the statements.

The peakedness (*ku*) values ranged from -1.271 to 4.613. Apart from GE, the ku values suggested that, on average, the shape of the average data distribution was flat or platykurtic with the data evenly distributed. In terms of GE, however, the shape of the average data distribution was peaked or leptokurtic with data centred on the mean.

Table 8.28   Summary of data distribution for the constructs

	RA	AI	MAS	GE	BL	BC	RI	SI	NI	EI
N	814	814	814	814	814	814	814	814	814	814
Mean	3.787	4.357	4.544	5.863	4.058	3.765	4.902	3.967	3.811	3.934
Std. Deviation	1.7910	1.7803	1.5207	1.2058	1.7522	1.7197	1.5293	1.7368	1.7562	1.8367
Skewness	0.070	-0.372	-0.569	-1.930	-0.130	0.062	-0.840	-0.0787	-0.023	-0.072
Std. Error of Skewness	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086	0.086
Kurtosis	-1.227	-0.931	0.104	4.613	-1.271	-1.033	0.037	-1.195	-1.233	-1.063
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171	0.171

8.3   ASSESSMENT OF THE REFLECTIVE MEASUREMENT MODEL

This section starts with the analysis of the reflective measurement model, one of two evaluation stages in assessing the PLS-SEM results, as described briefly in Chapter 7: Section 7.4.3.4. In terms of this analysis, an assessment is made of the degree to which the indicators correlate positively with other indicators of the same construct or convergent validity, the internal consistency or composite reliability, and the uniqueness of the constructs or discriminant validity.

8.3.1   Assessment of convergent validity

Convergent validity is, as explained briefly in Chapter 7: Section 7.4.3.4, assessed by firstly, determining the outer loadings of the indicators and secondly, the average variance extracted (AVE) of a specific construct. The standardised outer loadings as well as the AVE values for each reflective construct included within the original measurement model are presented in Table 8.28.

As highlighted in Chapter 7: Section 7.4.3.4, convergent validity is dependent on the absolute standardised outer loadings and AVE values exceeding the minimum threshold levels of 0.70 and 0.50, respectively. In terms of the original measurement model it is apparent from the results presented in Table 8.29 that there are a number of outer loadings and resulting AVEs that do not meet the minimum threshold level. However, before simply eliminating items with weak outer loadings it was necessary to first examine the effect of removing the particular item on increasing the AVE value above the required threshold level, as suggested by Hair *et al.* (2017:113).

Table 8.29   Original measurement model metrics

Construct	Items	Outer loadings	AVE	CR
Ambiguity Intolerance (AI)	AI1	0.743	0.579	0.846
	AI2	0.823		
	AI3	0.765		
	AI4	0.710		
Brand Consciousness (BC)	BC1	0.831	0.577	0.890
	BC2	0.701		
	BC3	0.820		
	BC4	0.677		
	BC5	0.671		
	BC6	0.836		
Brand Loyalty (BL)	BL1	0.746	0.639	0.876
	BL2	0.741		
	BL3	0.858		
	BL4	0.846		
Enduring Involvement (EI)	EI1	0.907	0.743	0.920
	EI2	0.875		
	EI3	0.868		
	EI4	0.794		
Gender Equality (GE)	GE1	0.802	0.465	0.711
	GE2	0.778		
	GE3	0.509		
	GE4	0.595		
Masculinity (MAS)	MAS1	0.420	0.410	0.726
	MAS2	0.594		
	MAS3	0.764		
	MAS4	0.726		
Normative Involvement (NI)	NI1	0.855	0.701	0.903
	NI2	0.726		
	NI3	0.881		
	NI4	0.877		
Risk Aversion (RA)	RA1	0.675	0.519	0.810
	RA2	0.810		
	RA3	0.613		
	RA4	0.769		
Risk Involvement (RI)	RI1	0.729	0.454	0.832
	RI2	0.740		
	RI3	0.602		
	RI4	0.723		
	RI5	0.574		
	RI6	0.654		
Situational Involvement (SI)	SI1	0.862	0.698	0.902
	SI2	0.799		
	SI3	0.886		
	SI4	0.790		

In undertaking this examination it was determined that:

i) Eliminating item **GE3** increased the AVE for Gender Equality (GE) to 0.539, above the 0.50 minimum threshold, while CR also increased slightly, to 0.774.

ii) Eliminating items **MAS1** and **MAS2** increased the AVE of the Masculinity (MAS) construct from 0.410 to 0.646. CR also increased slightly from 0.726 to 0.785.

iii) Eliminating items **RI3** and **RI5** increased the AVE of Risk Involvement (RI) to 0.547, above the minimum threshold limit, albeit the CR decreased slightly from 0.832 to 0.827.

The standardised outer loadings as well as the AVE values for each reflective construct included within the modified measurement model are presented in Table 8.30. In terms of the outer loadings, these now vary between 0.575 and 0.907 while in terms of the AVE values, these vary between 0.519 and 0.743.

There is, therefore, adequate evidence of convergent validity.

8.3.2   Assessment of composite reliability

The composite reliability (CR) values for each construct within the original measurement model are presented in Table 8.29. In terms of CR, the values range between 0.711 and 0.920. As highlighted in Chapter 7: Section 7.4.3.4, reliability values between 0.70 and 0.90 are considered to be satisfactory for studies that have moved beyond the exploratory stage. As such, all of the CR values are considered to be satisfactory.

In terms of the modified measurement model, the CR values for each construct are presented in Table 8.30. The CR values range between 0.774 and 0.920. Again, as explained previously, these values are considered to be satisfactory.

There is, therefore, sufficient evidence of composite reliability.

Table 8.30   Modified measurement model metrics

Construct	Item	Outer loadings	AVE	CR
Ambiguity Intolerance (AI)	AI1	0.746	0.579	0.846
	AI2	0.825		
	AI3	0.762		
	AI4	0.705		
Brand Consciousness (BC)	BC1	0.831	0.577	0.890
	BC2	0.701		
	BC3	0.821		
	BC4	0.676		
	BC5	0.670		
	BC6	0.836		
Brand Loyalty (BL)	BL1	0.746	0.639	0.876
	BL2	0.740		
	BL3	0.858		
	BL4	0.846		
Enduring Involvement (EI)	EI1	0.907	0.743	0.920
	EI2	0.875		
	EI3	0.868		
	EI4	0.794		
Gender Equality (GE)	GE1	0.812	**0.539**	**0.774**
	GE2	0.792		
	GE4	0.575		
Masculinity (MAS)	MAS3	0.838	**0.646**	**0.785**
	MAS4	0.768		
Normative Involvement (NI)	NI1	0.855	0.701	0.903
	NI2	0.725		
	NI3	0.881		
	NI4	0.877		
Risk Aversion (RA)	RA1	0.675	0.519	0.810
	RA2	0.810		
	RA3	0.612		
	RA4	0.769		
Risk Involvement (RI)	RI1	0.754	**0.547**	**0.827**
	RI2	0.798		
	RI4	0.762		
	RI6	0.634		
Situational Involvement (SI)	SI1	0.861	0.698	0.902
	SI2	0.799		
	SI3	0.887		
	SI4	0.790		

8.3.3 Assessment of discriminant validity

The results of the Fornell-Larcker analysis are presented in Table 8.31. It is evident from these results that there is one instance, as highlighted in bold in the table, where the square root of the AVE values is less than the latent variable correlations. In this particular instance, the square root of the Brand Consciousness (BC) AVE, namely 0.760 was less than the correlation between BC and Enduring Involvement (EI), 0.771. It was, therefore, necessary to examine the cross-loadings of the items associated with the two constructs in order to assess whether there was sufficient evidence of discriminant validity.

Table 8.31   Results of the Fornell-Larcker analysis

	AI	BC	BL	EI	GE	MAS	NI	RA	RI	SI
AI	0.761									
BC	0.121	0.760								
BL	0.116	0.576	0.799							
EI	0.122	**0.771**	0.523	0.862						
GE	-0.010	-0.134	-0.042	-0.094	0.734					
MAS	0.104	0.295	0.216	0.245	-0.095	0.804				
NI	0.136	0.650	0.474	0.718	-0.113	0.252	0.837			
RA	0.445	0.032	0.145	-0.002	-0.018	0.163	0.054	0.721		
RI	0.121	0.626	0.505	0.669	-0.011	0.195	0.635	0.003	0.739	
SI	0.192	0.544	0.398	0.653	-0.094	0.212	0.591	0.044	0.630	0.835

Note: Values in shaded cells represent the square root of the AVEs.

The results of the cross-loadings analysis are provided in Table 8.32. It is evident from these results that the items associated with BC and EI demonstrate the loadings with the highest values on each of their respective constructs (Highlighted in bold). For example, the outer loading of BC1, namely 0.831, is larger than its cross-loading on EI, which is 0.685. Similarly for BC2, BC3. BC4, BC5 and BC6. In terms of EI, the outer loadings of EI1, EI2, EI3 and EI4 are larger than their cross-loadings also as highlighted in the table.

There is, therefore, adequate evidence of discriminate validity.

Table 8.32   Results of the cross-loadings analysis

	AI	BC	BL	EI	GE	MAS	NI	RA	RI	SI
AI1	0.746	0.098	0.074	0.088	-0.066	0.080	0.105	0.337	0.083	0.183
AI2	0.825	0.136	0.101	0.133	0.010	0.099	0.116	0.299	0.128	0.152
AI3	0.762	0.029	0.089	0.050	-0.003	0.068	0.101	0.397	0.076	0.123
AI4	0.705	0.072	0.088	0.073	0.025	0.059	0.088	0.371	0.060	0.121
BC1	0.096	**0.831**	0.455	**0.685**	-0.106	0.246	0.544	0.028	0.518	0.499
BC2	0.113	**0.701**	0.367	**0.478**	-0.152	0.272	0.450	0.073	0.394	0.376
BC3	0.051	**0.821**	0.478	**0.624**	-0.123	0.190	0.508	-0.010	0.471	0.394
BC4	0.162	**0.676**	0.366	**0.476**	-0.141	0.209	0.465	0.039	0.384	0.349
BC5	0.102	**0.670**	0.399	**0.483**	-0.024	0.180	0.448	0.018	0.512	0.379
BC6	0.060	**0.836**	0.535	**0.709**	-0.075	0.249	0.538	0.012	0.560	0.461
BL1	0.055	0.416	0.746	0.365	-0.050	0.193	0.351	0.108	0.353	0.290
BL2	0.203	0.373	0.740	0.311	-0.016	0.187	0.331	0.204	0.336	0.249
BL3	0.046	0.543	0.858	0.512	-0.059	0.156	0.446	0.045	0.486	0.358
BL4	0.093	0.488	0.846	0.453	-0.008	0.166	0.377	0.135	0.418	0.359
EI1	0.094	**0.734**	0.491	**0.907**	-0.107	0.231	0.661	-0.003	0.602	0.643
EI2	0.111	**0.684**	0.445	**0.875**	-0.180	0.274	0.665	0.009	0.549	0.651
EI3	0.071	**0.667**	0.470	**0.868**	-0.007	0.204	0.590	-0.016	0.586	0.456
EI4	0.154	**0.560**	0.390	**0.794**	-0.014	0.123	0.551	0.018	0.574	0.486
GE1	0.003	-0.099	-0.043	-0.075	0.812	-0.069	-0.111	-0.015	-0.008	-0.102
GE2	-0.031	-0.128	-0.024	-0.087	0.792	-0.067	-0.082	-0.001	-0.026	-0.053
GE4	0.040	-0.027	-0.028	-0.009	0.575	-0.121	-0.018	-0.064	0.059	-0.039
MAS3	0.067	0.244	0.176	0.210	-0.171	0.838	0.241	0.148	0.136	0.180
MAS4	0.104	0.230	0.172	0.184	0.035	0.768	0.159	0.111	0.182	0.159
NI1	0.111	0.661	0.493	0.713	-0.094	0.261	0.855	0.063	0.566	0.562
NI2	0.079	0.400	0.271	0.414	-0.137	0.199	0.725	0.036	0.432	0.407
NI3	0.117	0.538	0.402	0.626	-0.077	0.171	0.881	0.030	0.556	0.491
NI4	0.144	0.530	0.381	0.595	-0.085	0.206	0.877	0.047	0.552	0.494
RA1	0.328	0.075	0.078	0.047	-0.061	0.138	0.035	0.675	-0.009	0.066
RA2	0.382	0.025	0.134	0.009	-0.001	0.142	0.067	0.810	0.024	0.041
RA3	0.232	-0.031	0.029	-0.073	0.013	0.108	-0.028	0.612	-0.051	-0.026
RA4	0.301	-0.007	0.119	-0.032	0.005	0.088	0.025	0.769	-0.005	0.006
RI1	0.165	0.416	0.296	0.469	-0.043	0.182	0.509	0.038	0.754	0.493
RI2	0.060	0.590	0.478	0.629	-0.038	0.198	0.559	0.005	0.798	0.453
RI4	0.042	0.501	0.444	0.513	-0.035	0.162	0.479	-0.051	0.762	0.435
RI6	0.077	0.350	0.285	0.367	0.082	0.033	0.322	0.010	0.634	0.469
SI1	0.129	0.556	0.378	0.611	-0.079	0.209	0.548	0.033	0.577	0.861
SI2	0.159	0.350	0.279	0.461	-0.068	0.136	0.411	0.018	0.467	0.799
SI3	0.155	0.470	0.357	0.580	-0.071	0.197	0.527	0.023	0.581	0.887
SI4	0.214	0.409	0.300	0.509	-0.099	0.153	0.469	0.075	0.461	0.790

8.3.4   Summary of the assessment of the measurement model

The overall assessment of the measurement model entailed individual assessments of the degree to which the indicators correlate positively with other indicators of the same construct, of the internal consistency, and of the uniqueness of the constructs. A summary of the individual assessments is provided in Table 8.33. It is evident from this table that the measurement model exhibits adequate evidence of convergent validity, composite reliability and discriminant validity.

Table 8.33   Summary of the assessment of the measurement model

Construct	Item	Outer loadings > 0.60	AVE > 0.50	CR > 0.70	Convergent validity	Composite reliability	Discriminant validity
Ambiguity Intolerance (AI)	AI1	0.746	0.579	0.846	Yes	Yes	Yes
	AI2	0.825					
	AI3	0.762					
	AI4	0.705					
Brand Consciousness (BC)	BC1	0.831	0.577	0.890	Yes	Yes	Yes
	BC2	0.701					
	BC3	0.821					
	BC4	0.676					
	BC5	0.670					
	BC6	0.836					
Brand Loyalty (BL)	BL1	0.746	0.639	0.876	Yes	Yes	Yes
	BL2	0.740					
	BL3	0.858					
	BL4	0.846					
Enduring Involvement (EI)	EI1	0.907	0.743	0.920	Yes	Yes	Yes
	EI2	0.875					
	EI3	0.868					
	EI4	0.794					
Gender Equality (GE)	GE1	0.812	0.539	0.774	Yes	Yes	Yes
	GE2	0.792					
	GE4	0.575					
Masculinity (MAS)	MAS3	0.838	0.646	0.785	Yes	Yes	Yes
	MAS4	0.768					
Normative Involvement (NI)	NI1	0.855	0.701	0.903	Yes	Yes	Yes
	NI2	0.725					
	NI3	0.881					
	NI4	0.877					
Risk Aversion (RA)	RA1	0.675	0.519	0.810	Yes	Yes	Yes
	RA2	0.810					
	RA3	0.612					
	RA4	0.769					
Risk Involvement (RI)	RI1	0.754	0.547	0.827	Yes	Yes	Yes
	RI2	0.798					
	RI4	0.762					
	RI6	0.634					
Situational Involvement (SI)	SI1	0.861	0.698	0.902	Yes	Yes	Yes
	SI2	0.799					
	SI3	0.887					
	SI4	0.790					

8.4   ASSESSMENT OF THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

This next section will address the analysis of the structural model, the second of two evaluation stages in assessing the PLS-SEM results, as described briefly in Chapter 7: Section 7.4.3.4. The analysis will encompass an assessment of collinearity, path coefficients and the coefficient of determination of each endogenous construct.

8.4.1 Assessment of collinearity

In assessing collinearity, the following sets of exogenous and endogenous constructs were analysed, namely:

i. AI, EI, GE, MAS, RA, SI → BC
ii. AI, EI, GE, MAS, RA, SI → BL
iii. NI → EI
iv. GE, MAS → NI
v. AI, RA → RI
vi. RI → SI

Key: AI = Ambiguity Intolerance / BC = Brand Consciousness / BL = Brand Loyalty / EI = Enduring Involvement / GE = Gender Equality / MAS = Masculinity / NI = Normative Involvement / RA = Risk Aversion / RI = Risk Involvement / SI = Situational Involvement

The results of the analysis are provided in Table 8.34.

Table 8.34   VIF results in the structural model

	AI	BC	BL	EI	GE	MAS	NI	RA	RI	SI
AI		1.296	1.296						1.247	
BC										
BL										
EI		1.789	1.789							
GE		1.016	1.016				1.009			
MAS		1.104	1.104				1.009			
NI				1.000						
RA		1.280	1.280						1.247	
RI										1.000
SI		1.793	1.793							

It is evident from the results contained in Table 8.34 that none of the variance inflation factor (VIF) values exceed the maximum threshold of 5 which would indicate critical levels of collinearity. Therefore, with VIF values only ranging between 1.000 and 1.793, collinearity among the exogenous constructs is not an issue to be considered when further evaluating the model.

- 185 -

8.4.2   <u>Assessment of structural model path coefficients</u>

The composite reliability (CR) values together with the standardised path coefficients and *t*-values in parenthesis are provided in Figure 8.1 on the next page.

The results of the assessment of the structural model path coefficients and their significance are summarised in Table 8.35. As highlighted in Chapter 7: Section 7.4.3.4, path coefficient values close to zero (0) are usually not considered to be statistically different from zero (0) whereas values approaching -1 or +1 are considered to be statistically significant, representing strong negative or positive relationships, respectively. In terms of *t* values, at a significance level of 5%, the cut-off for the critical *t* value for the two-tailed tests is 1.96 and above. While, with regard to *p* values, at a significance level of 5%, values must be less than 0.05 in order to conclude that a particular relationship is indeed significant. In evaluating *p* values close to zero (0), reference was made to bias-corrected confidence intervals. When zero (0) did not fall into the particular confidence interval, the estimated parameter, as stated by Hair *et al.* (2017:313), was assumed to be significantly different from zero (0).
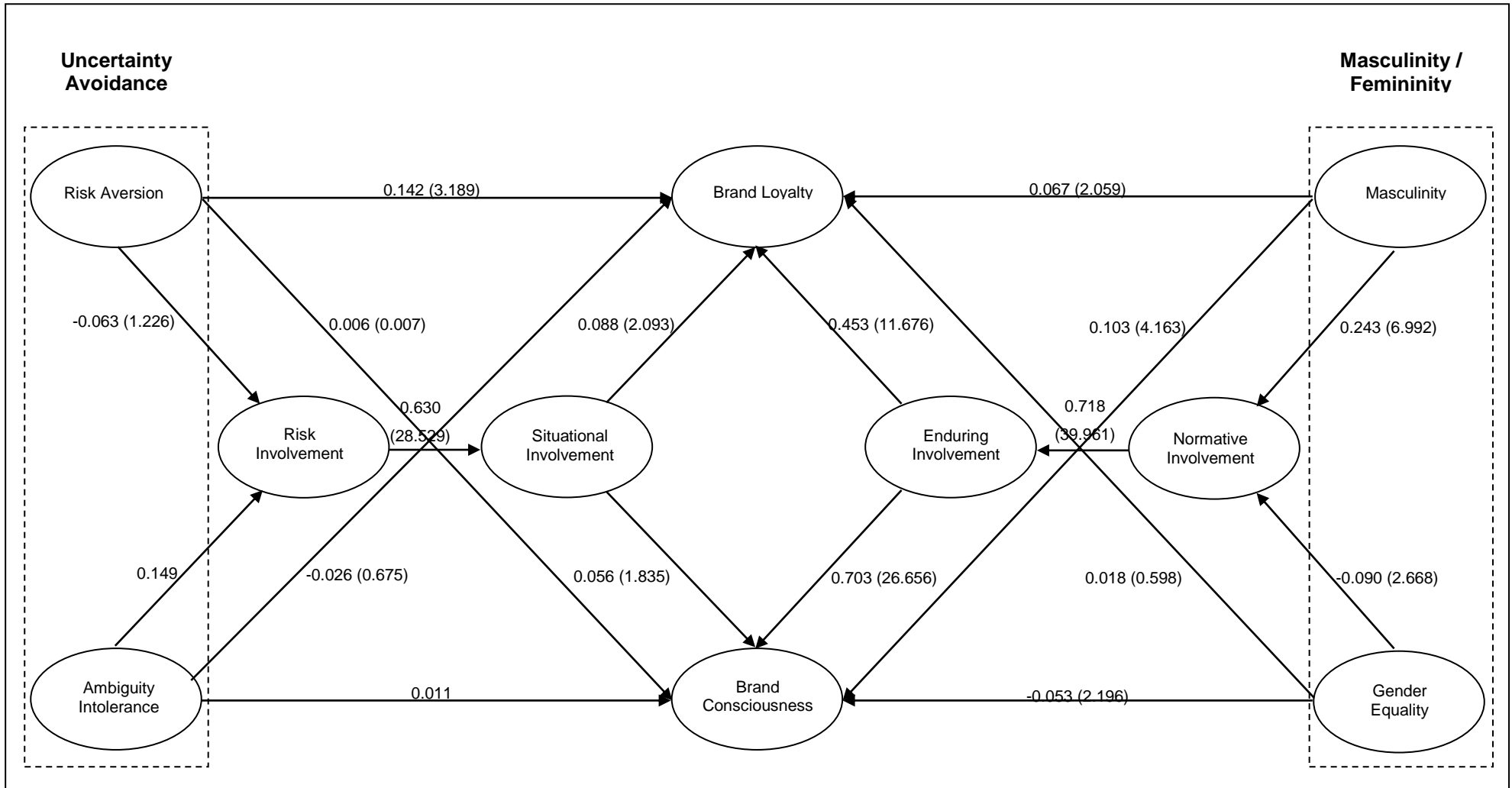
Figure 8.1   Structural model

Table 8.35　Significance of structural model path coefficients

Relationship	Path Coefficients	t-values	p-values	95% Bias-corrected Confidence Interval		Significant
				LLCI	**ULCI**	
Ambiguity Intolerance -> Brand Consciousness	0.011	0.429	0.668	-0.044	0.053	Not Significant
Ambiguity Intolerance -> Brand Loyalty	-0.026	0.675	0.500	-0.105	0.043	Not Significant
Ambiguity Intolerance -> Risk involvement	0.149	3.699	0.000	0.078	0.231	Significant
Enduring Involvement -> Brand Consciousness	0.703	26.656	0.000	0.651	0.752	Significant
Enduring Involvement -> Brand loyalty	0.453	11.676	0.000	0.375	0.527	Significant
Gender Equality -> Brand Consciousness	-0.053	2.196	0.029	-0.094	-0.003	Significant
Gender Equality -> Brand Loyalty	0.018	0.598	0.550	-0.038	0.074	Not Significant
Gender Equality -> Normative Involvement	-0.090	2.668	0.008	-0.151	-0.026	Significant
Masculinity -> Brand Consciousness	0.103	4.163	0.000	0.057	0.154	Significant
Masculinity -> Brand Loyalty	0.067	2.059	0.040	-0.003	0.128	Not Significant
Masculinity -> Normative Involvement	0.243	6.992	0.000	0.170	0.303	Significant

Normative Involvement -> Enduring Involvement	0.718	39.961	0.000	0.679	0.751	Significant
Risk Aversion -> Brand Consciousness	0.006	0.007	0.817	-0.045	0.056	Not Significant
Risk Aversion -> Brand Loyalty	0.142	3.189	0.002	0.036	0.210	Significant
Risk Aversion -> Risk Involvement	-0.063	1.226	0.221	-0.177	0.026	Not Significant
Risk Involvement -> Situational Involvement	0.630	28.529	0.000	0.581	0.669	Significant
Situational Involvement -> Brand Consciousness	0.056	1.835	0.067	0.002	0.113	Not Significant
Situational Involvement -> Brand Loyalty	0.088	2.093	0.037	0.000	0.171	Not Significant

8.4.3   <u>Assessment of the coefficient of determination</u>

The coefficient of determination (R^2 value) for each of the endogenous constructs in the structural model is presented in Table 8.36. Explaining the amount of variance found in each construct, the result of all the exogenous constructs linked to them, the R^2 values range from 0.018 to 0.611. As highlighted in Chapter 7: Section 7.4.3.4, R^2 values of 0.75 are considered to be substantial with significant predictive power, 0.50 moderate with modest predictive power and 0.25 weak with poor predictive power.

It is evident from the results that the exogenous constructs linked to Brand Consciousness (BC), namely Risk Aversion (RA), Ambiguity Intolerance (AI), Situational Involvement (SI), Enduring Involvement (EI), Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE) account for 61.1% of the variance in this construct. Therefore, the predictive power of these determinants is considered to be modest to substantial. In terms of BL, its predicators, namely RA, AI, SI, EI, GE and MAS account for 30.3% of its variance. These

constructs, therefore, exhibit weak to moderate predicative power. EI is considered to have a moderate coefficient value with 51.5% of its variance being explained by Normative Involvement (NI). The predicative power of GE and MAS on NI is weak, only accounting for 1.8% of the variance in this construct. Similarly, the effect of RA and AI on Risk Involvement (RI) is also weak, only accounting for 7.2% of the variance. Finally, in terms of SI, the exogenous construct linked to this construct accounts for 39.7% of its variance, thereby exhibiting weak to moderate predicative power.

Table 8.36   Summary of R^2 results

Endogenous Construct	R^2
Brand Consciousness	0.611
Brand Loyalty	0.303
Enduring Involvement	0.515
Normative Involvement	0.071
Risk Involvement	0.018
Situational Involvement	0.397

8.4.4   Summary of the hypotheses testing

A summary of the hypotheses testing is provided in Table 8.37. It is evident from the results of the testing that all, but eight of the hypotheses, namely H_2, H_3 H_4, H_5, H_7, H_9, H_{12} and H_{13}, were supported.

The results are discussed in detail in *Chapter 9: Summary of research findings, contribution, limitations and future research*.

Table 8.37 Summary of the hypotheses testing

Hypothesis	Relationship	Direction	Path Coefficients	p-values	95% Bias-corrected Confidence Intervals		Support / Not Support Hypothesis
					LLCI	ULCI	
H1	Risk Aversion -> Brand Loyalty	+	0.142	0.002	0.036	0.210	Supported
H2	Risk Aversion -> Brand Consciousness	+	0.006	0.817	-0.045	0.056	Not Supported
H3	Ambiguity Intolerance -> Brand Loyalty	+	-0.026	0.500	-0.105	0.043	Not Supported
H4	Ambiguity Intolerance -> Brand Consciousness	+	0.011	0.668	-0.044	0.053	Not Supported
H5	Masculinity -> Brand Loyalty	-	0.067	0.040	-0.003	0.128	Not Supported
H6	Masculinity -> Brand Consciousness	+	0.103	0.000	0.057	0.154	Supported
H7	Gender Equality -> Brand Loyalty	+	0.018	0.550	-0.038	0.074	Not Supported
H8	Gender Equality -> Brand Consciousness	-	-0.053	0.029	-0.094	-0.003	Supported
H9	Risk Aversion -> Risk Involvement	+	-0.063	0.221	-0.177	0.026	Not Supported
H10	Ambiguity Intolerance -> Risk Involvement	+	0.149	0.000	0.078	0.231	Supported
H11	Risk Involvement -> Situational Involvement	+	0.630	0.000	0.581	0.669	Supported
H12	Situational Involvement -> Brand Loyalty	+	0.088	0.037	0.000	0.171	Not Supported

Hypothesis	Relationship	Direction	Path Coefficients	p-values	95% Bias-corrected Confidence Intervals		Support / Not Support Hypothesis
					LLCI	ULCI	
H13	Situational Involvement -> Brand Consciousness	+	0.056	0.067	0.002	0.113	Not Supported
H14	Masculinity -> Normative involvement	+	0.243	0.000	0.170	0.303	Supported
H15	Gender Equality -> Normative Involvement	-	-0.090	0.008	-0.151	-0.026	Supported
H16	Normative Involvement -> Enduring Involvement	+	0.718	0.000	0.679	0.751	Supported
H17	Enduring Involvement -> Brand Loyalty	+	0.453	0.000	0.375	0.527	Supported
H18	Enduring Involvement -> Brand Consciousness	+	0.703	0.000	0.651	0.752	Supported

8.5   SUMMARY

This chapter firstly, shared insights into the analysis of the descriptive data related to the gender, age and race of the respondents as well as their purchasing habits. Secondly, it presented how the data related to the constructs and their measurement items. Next, it discussed the assessment of the reflective measurement model followed by a similar discussion of the structural model. Finally, it provided a summary in tabular form of the hypotheses testing.

The next chapter, Chapter 9, addresses Steps 9 and 10 of the research process. It provides a summary of the research findings before discussing the implications and

contribution of these findings, both from a theoretical and managerial perspective. It also discusses the limitations of the study related to the research design and methodology. It concludes with a discussion on recommendations for future research.

9 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS, CONTRIBUTION, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined Step 8 of the research process, namely the analysis and interpretation of the data. This final chapter addresses the remaining steps of the process, Steps 9 and 10, which relate to the preparation and discussion of the research findings.

This chapter firstly, discusses the findings for each of the primary research objectives according to the individual components of the A-I-C framework. Secondly, it considers the implications of these findings within the context of the complete A-I-C framework and against the overall purpose of the research study. This is followed by a discussion of both the theoretical and managerial contributions of the research. Next, the chapter highlights the limitations related to the research design and methodology employed for the purpose of the study before it concludes with recommendations for future research.

9.2 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

9.2.1 Primary research objective 1: Determine the relationship between *Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS)*

The first primary research objective formulated for the purpose of this study relates to the A-C component of the A-I-C framework described in Chapter 6. In this regard, the research objective is concerned with determining the relationships between Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity (as Antecedents), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) (as Consequences).

The first four findings describe the relationships between Uncertainty Avoidance, measured at the individual-level by Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI), and

BL and BC. A visual representation of these relationships, as contained within the structural model discussed in Chapter 8, is provided in Figure 9.1 below.

Figure 9.1   **Path relationships between Uncertainty Avoidance and Brand Loyalty and between Uncertainty Avoidance and Brand Consciousness**
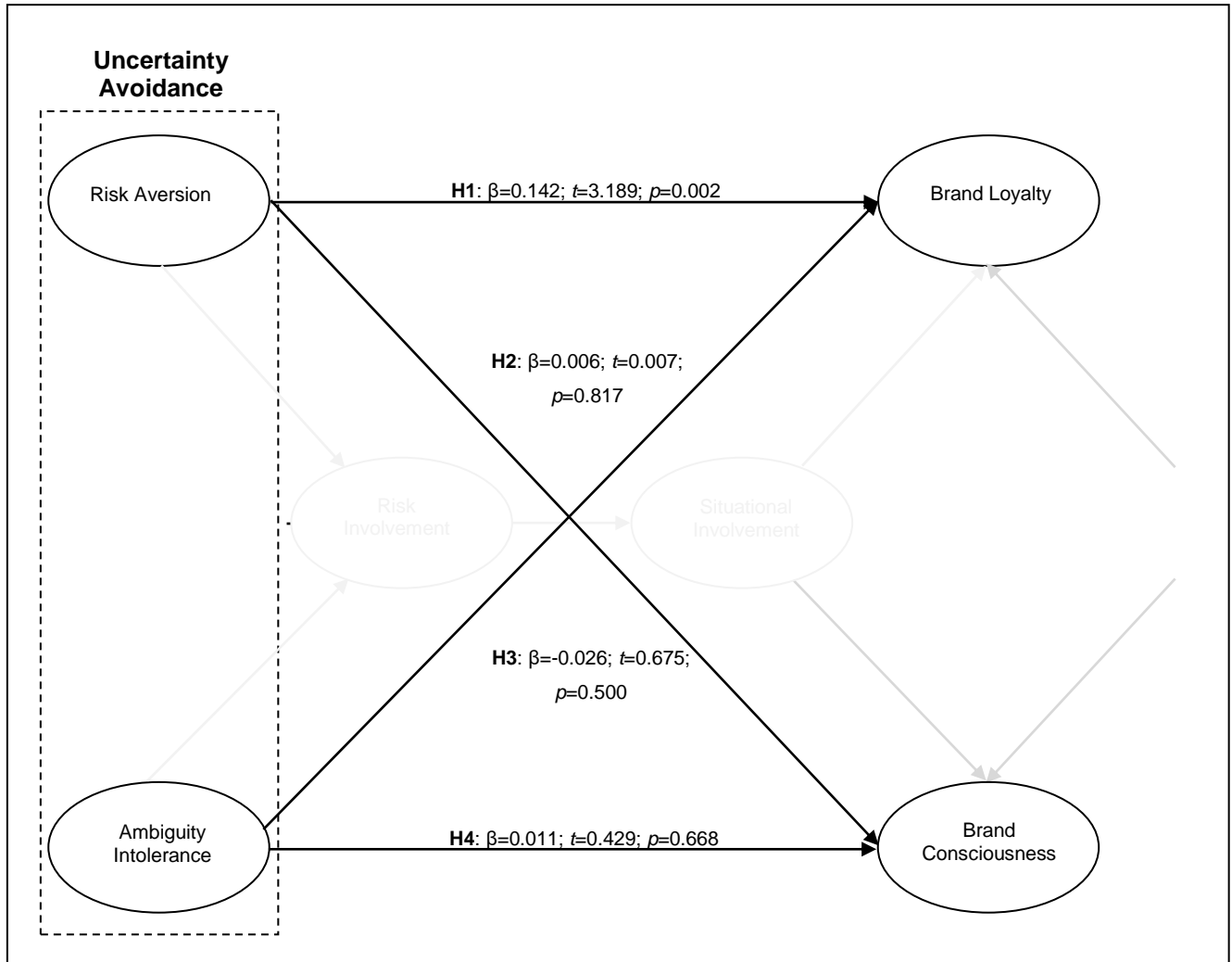
Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between Risk Aversion (RA) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

The findings show that a positive relationship exists between RA and BL: $\beta=0.142$, $t=3.189$, $p=0.002$; thus support for Hypothesis 1. However, while the relationship between the two latent variables suggests that when a consumer's reluctance to assume additional risk increases, so too does their need to purchase brands, the size of the effect is practically rather small, employing Cohen's (1988) typology for effect sizes, with β less than or equal to 0.2. These findings are consistent with previous research undertaken by, for example, Leo *et al.* (2005) who hypothesised that cultures with a high aversion to

uncertainty would be more risk averse and, therefore, more brand loyalty. In terms of the culture of South Africa, the country only has a low preference for avoiding uncertainty[6] and while a positive relationship exists between RA and BL, the size of the effect could be expected to be rather small. Similarly, later research conducted by Leng and Botelho (2010) concluded that uncertainty avoidance was related to Hofstede's Power Distance dimension. As such, cultures characterised by large Power Distance would be more risk averse and, therefore, more brand loyal. Given that South Africa is not characterised as being a large Power Distance culture, the size of the effect between RA, at the individual level, and BL could be expected to be rather small.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between Risk Aversion (RA) and BC

Although the empirical results indicate that the relationship between RA and BC is positive, the results are not statistically significant: $\beta=0.008$, $t=0.007$, $p=0.817$. Based on these results there is no support for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

Although a positive relationship between AI and BL was postulated, the empirical results provide evidence of a negative relationship between the two latent variables: $\beta=-0.026$, $t=0.675$, $p=0.500$. The results, therefore, suggest that BL is not considered to be a brand reduction strategy amongst the respondents. Indeed, in reviewing the frequency distribution of responses to the items related to AI and BL they suggest that, on average, the respondents are somewhat able to tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty and are not brand loyal. Furthermore, the empirical results are not statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is not supported.
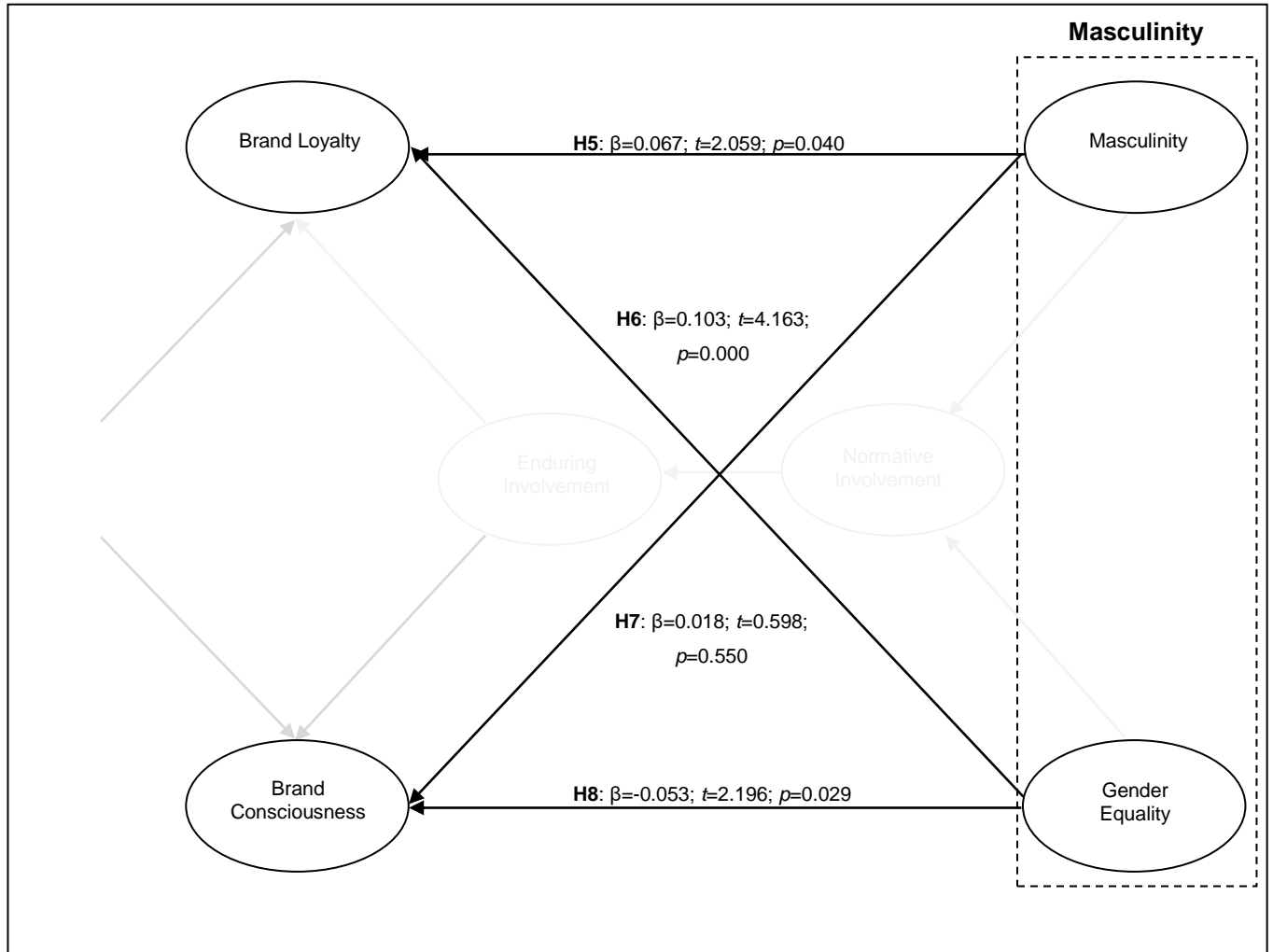
Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

The relationship between AI and BC is not statistically significant: $\beta=0.022$, $t=0.970$, $p=0.332$. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is not supported.

---

[6] https://geert-hofstede.com/south-africa.html

The next four findings describe the relationships between Masculinity/Femininity, measured at the individual-level by Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC). These relationships are presented in Figure 9.2.

Figure 9.2 **Path relationships between Masculinity and Brand Loyalty and between Masculinity and Brand Consciousness**

Hypothesis 5: There is a negative relationship between Masculinity (MAS) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

It is evident from the empirical data that a positive relationship exists between MAS and BL: $\beta=0.067$, $t=2.059$, $p=0.040$. This finding is contrary to the negative relationship posited by Hypothesis 5. Whereas it was hypothesised that consumers who could be defined as having a masculine personal cultural orientation were likely to purchase brands that reflected their status and success on a routine basis, the empirical data suggests a

habitual decision-making orientation. In reviewing the results of the frequency distribution of the responses to MAS3 "Men are generally more ambitious than women" and MAS4 "Women are generally more modest than men", the respondents, on average, neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements. In terms of BL, respondents again, on average, neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements. It is, therefore, not possible to come to a meaningful conclusion in this regard.

In addition to the finding being contrary to the hypothesised relationship, the results are also not statistically significant as the bias-corrected confidence interval contains zero (0). Hypothesis 5 is, therefore, not supported.

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between Masculinity (MAS) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

It is evident from the empirical data that there is a positive relationship between MAS and BC: β=0.103, t=4.163, p=0.00. It is also evident from the data that this relationship is both statistically and practically significant. Hypothesis 6 is, therefore, supported. This finding is consistent with Hofstede's (1980, 2001) research which determined that Masculine cultures, at a national level, are characterised by, amongst other things, an ego orientation and a focus on money. Given that South Africa is considered to be a Masculine society[7] focussed on material success, a positive relationship between MAS and BC, at the individual level, is to be expected.

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive relationship between Gender Equality (GE) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

The empirical data suggests that there is neither a statistically, nor practically significant relationship between GE and BL: β=0.018, t=0, p=0.550. Hypothesis 7 is, therefore, not supported.

---

[7] https://geert-hofstede.com/south-africa.html

Hypothesis 8: There is a negative relationship between Gender Equality (GE) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

The empirical data suggests that there is a negative relationship between GE and BC: β=-0.053, t=2.196, p=0.029. These results imply that the relationship is statistically significant and, therefore, provides support for Hypothesis 8. The results also suggest that the relationship is practically significant albeit that the size of this relationship is small with β ≤ 0.2. These findings are consistent with the findings of Schwartz and Rubel-Lifschitz (2009:178) research that greater gender equality leads to a reduction in, amongst other things, power and achievement.

9.2.2 Primary research objective 2: Determine the relationship between *Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO), Consumer Involvement (CI) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS)*

The second primary research objective formulated for the purpose of this study relates to the remaining components of the A-I-C framework, namely A-I, I (between the sub-constructs of I), and I-C. In this regard, the research objective is concerned with describing the relationships between Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity (as Antecedents), Involvement (I), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) (as Consequences).

#### 9.2.2.1 *Findings related to the A-I component of the A-I-C framework*

The first two findings describe the relationships between Uncertainty Avoidance and Risk Involvement (RI). As mentioned before, Uncertainty Avoidance was measured at the individual-level by Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI). A visual representation of these relationships is provided in Figure 9.3.

Hypothesis 9: There is a positive relationship between Risk Aversion (RA) and Risk Involvement (RI)

In evaluating the structural model, it is evident that there is a negative relationship between RA and RI: β=-0.063, t=1.226, p=0.221. This is contrary to Hypothesis 9 which posited a positive relationship between the two latent variables. These empirical results imply that as

the level of avoiding risk increases, the relative importance or probability of making poor product choices decreases. Although the finding does seem somewhat counter-intuitive, the results of the frequency distribution analysis related to RA suggest that respondents either slightly agreed or neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements and are, therefore, slightly more tolerant of risk. In turn, the distribution analysis related to RI suggests that respondents, on average, neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements, suggesting neither high nor low levels of risk involvement. Therefore, it is not possible to make a conclusive finding in this regard as borne out by the fact that p=0.221 (>0.050), which indicates that the relationship is not statistically significant. Consequently, based on the empirical results, Hypothesis 9 is not supported.

Figure 9.3   Path relationships between Uncertainty Avoidance and Risk Involvement
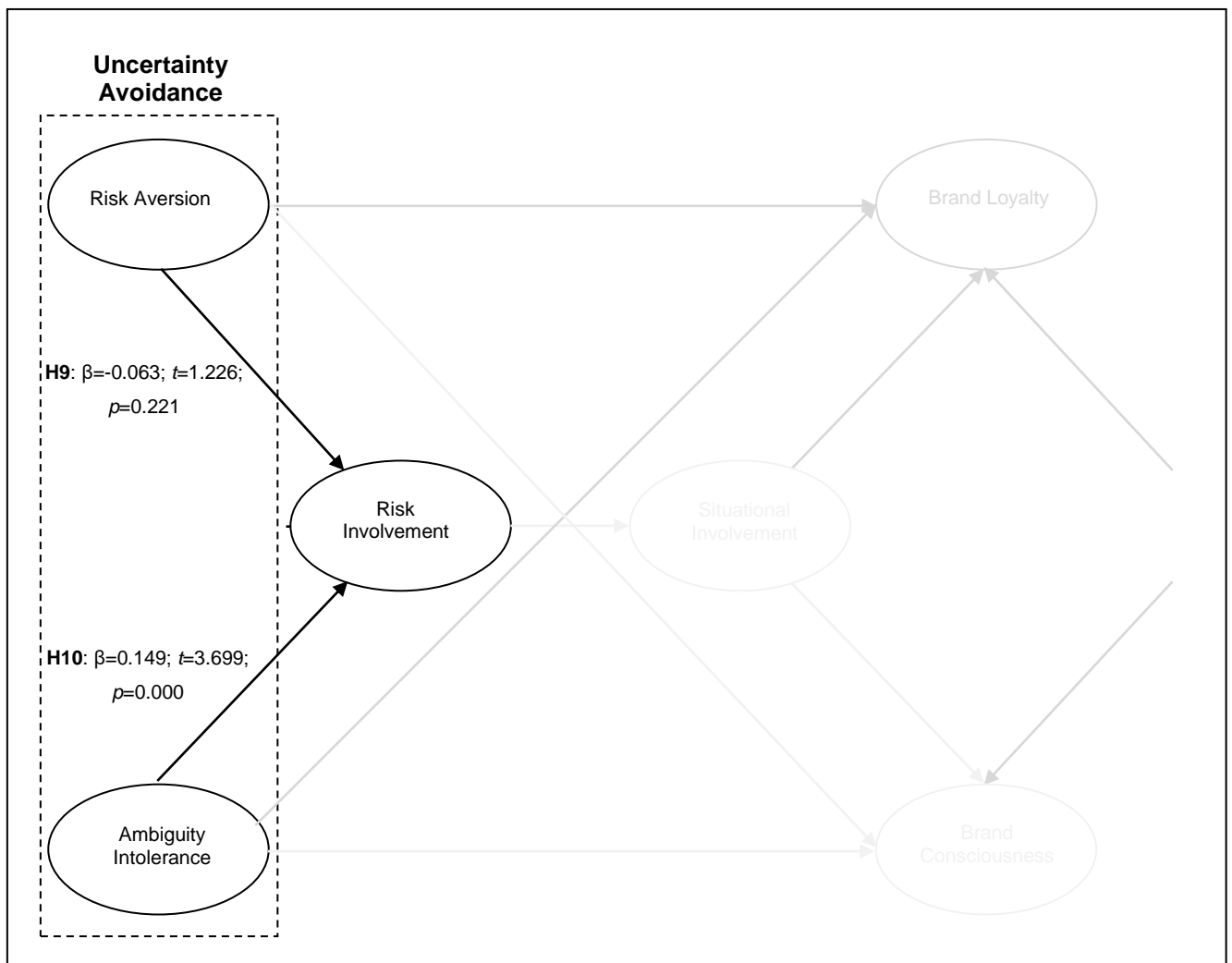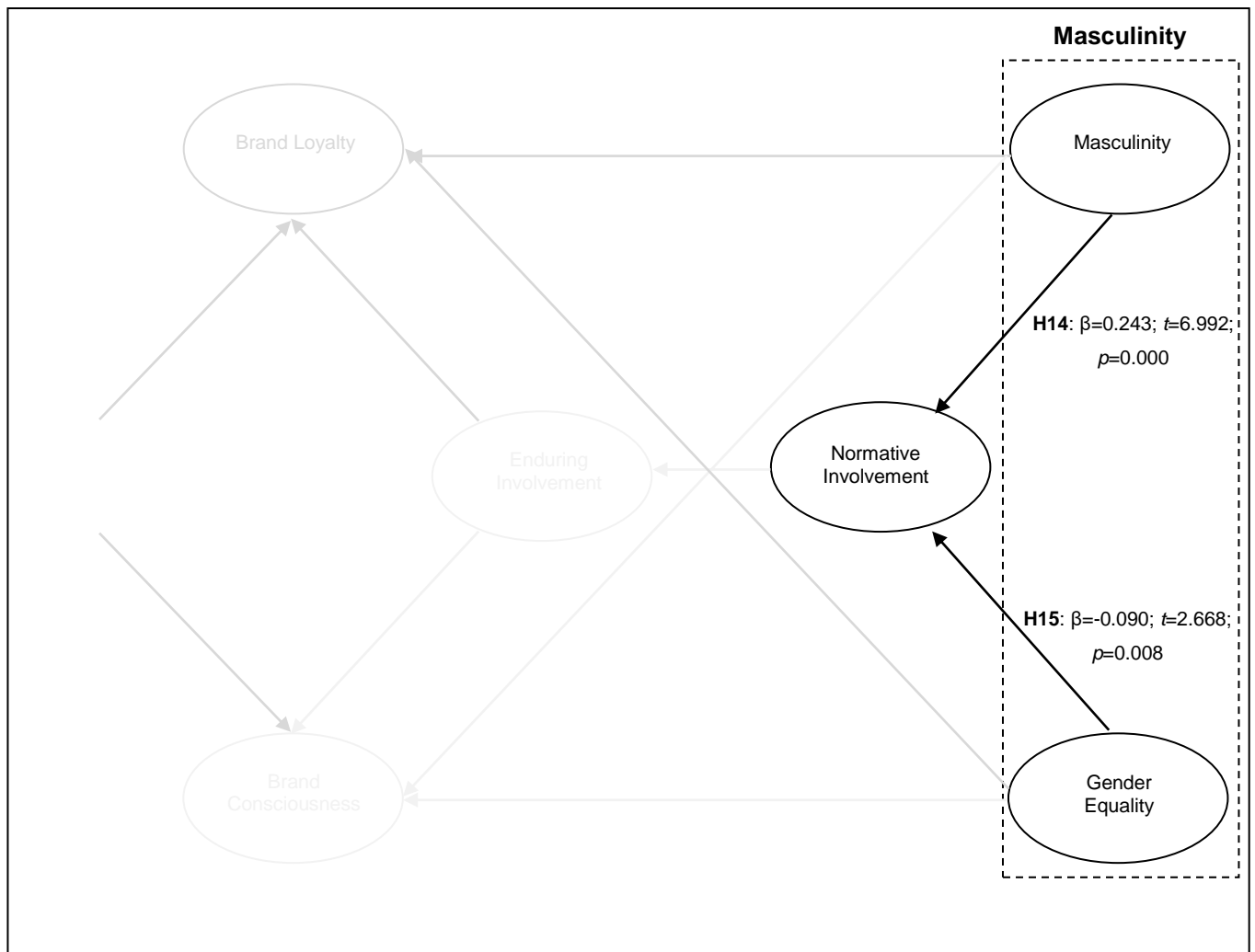
Hypothesis 10: There is a positive relationship between Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) and Risk Involvement (RI)

The structural model indicates that there is a positive relationship between AI and RI: β=0.149, t=3.699, p=0.000. Given the empirical results, the relationship is considered to be statistically significant and supports Hypothesis 10. This relationship implies that when the level of AI increases so too does the level of RI. This finding is consistent with the results of the study conducted by Yoo and Donthu (2005:29) which determined a positive relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance and the suitability and associated risk of purchasing imported products. The practical significance of the relationship, however, employing Cohen's (1988) typology for effect sizes, is considered to be small with β less than or equal to 0.2.

The next two findings describe the relationships between Masculinity/Femininity and Normative Involvement (NI). For this study, Masculinity/Femininity was measured at the individual-level by two constructs, namely Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE). These relationships are shown in Figure 9.4.

Figure 9.4   Path relationships between Masculinity and Normative Involvement

Hypothesis 14: There is a positive relationship between Masculinity (MAS) and Normative Involvement (NI) (H_{14})

In evaluating the structural model, it is evident from analysing the empirical data that there is a positive relationship between MAS and NI: β=0.243, t=6.992, p=0.000. This relationship suggests that as the level of traits such as ambition and self-confidence associated with MAS increases, so too does the level of NI which relates to the symbolic and hedonistic values associated with a particular product or group of products, in this instance branded clothing. These findings are consistent with the conclusions drawn by Sharma (2011:357) related to the effect of masculinity on the evaluation and behavioural intentions related to imported luxury products. Also evident from analysing the data is that the relationship is statistically significant, supporting Hypothesis 14. In addition to being statistically significant, the relationship between the two latent variables is also practically

- 202 -

significant. In this regard, the relationship between MAS on NI is considered to be medium, $0.2 \leq \beta \leq 0.5$, when classified according to Cohen's (1988) typology for effect sizes.

Hypothesis 15: There is a negative relationship between Gender Equality (GE) and Normative Involvement (NI)

A negative relationship exists between GE and NI: $\beta=-0.090$, $t=2.668$, $p=0.008$. Given the empirical results, the relationship is considered to be statistically significant and supports Hypothesis 15. It is also considered to be practically significant although the influence is considered to be small with β less than or equal to 0.2. This relationship suggests that as a consumer's acceptance of gender equality increases, the symbolic value of products decreases, particularly for products related to power, achievement and security. These findings are also consistent with the conclusions drawn by Sharma (2011:359) which determined that consumers with a feminine orientation preferred to consumer imported luxury products privately rather than publicly as they were not concerned with status.

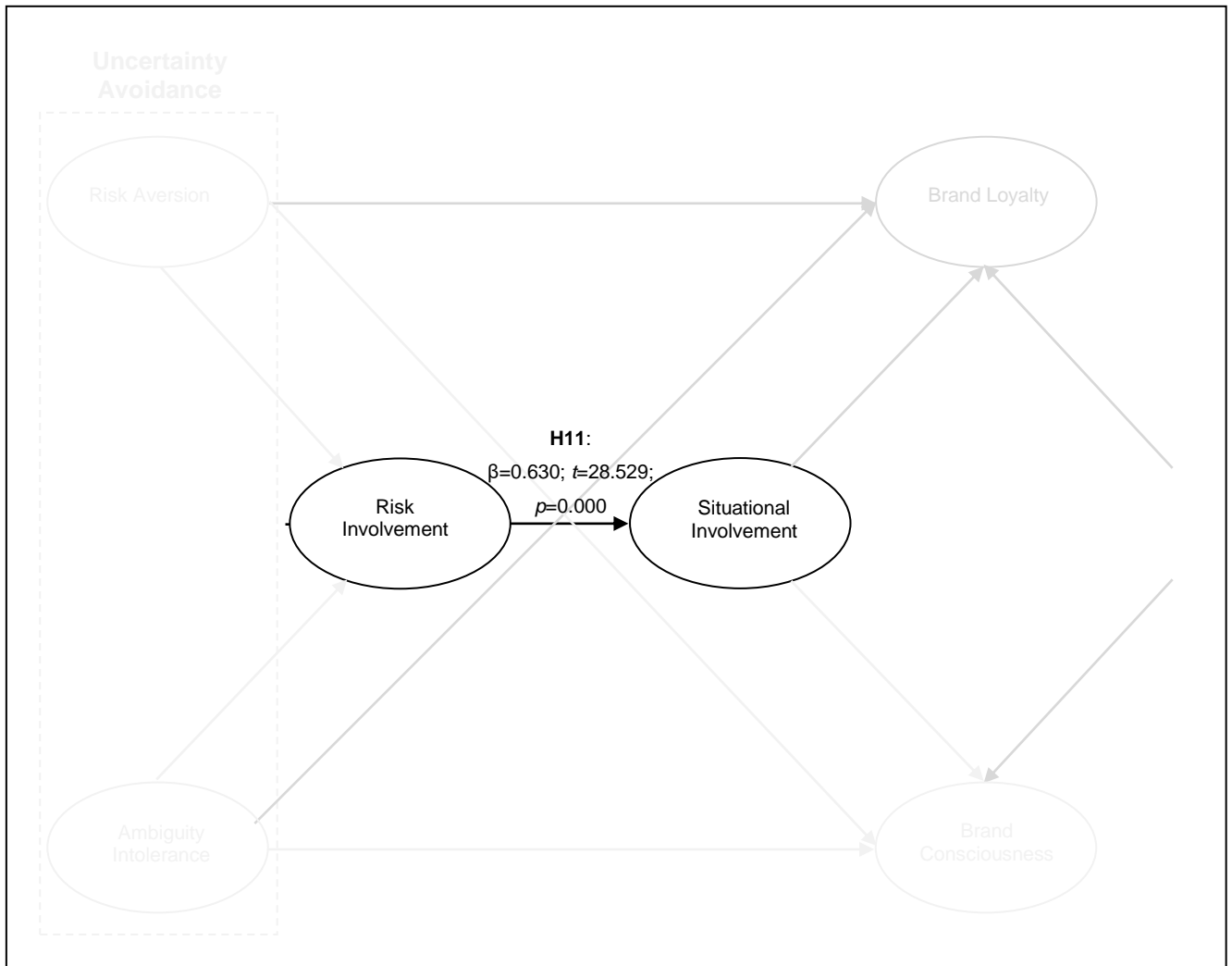### 9.2.2.2   *Considering consumer involvement in the A-I-C framework*

The first of the two findings discussed in this section relates to the relationship between Risk Involvement (RI), a cognitive Involvement (I) type, and Situational Involvement (SI), an affective Involvement (I) type. These relationships are shown in Figure 9.5.

Hypothesis 11: There is a positive relationship between Risk Involvement (RI) and Situational Involvement (SI)

The findings from the structural model show that there is a positive relationship between RI and SI: $\beta=0.630$, $t=28.529$, $p=0.000$. Further, the empirical results indicate that the relationship is not only statistically significant, supporting Hypothesis 11, but practically important as well as the size of the direct effect is large with $\beta > 0.5$.

These findings are supported by the research undertaken by Broderick (2007) who too found a positive relationship between RI and SI although the size of the average effect across five countries, which formed the focus of her study, was not as large. The average standard path coefficient was $\beta=0.35$ at a $p<0.001$ significance level.

- 203 -

Figure 9.5   **Path relationship between Risk Involvement and Situational Involvement**

The second of the two findings discussed in this section relates to the relationship between Normative Involvement (NI) which is a cognitive Involvement (I) type, and Enduring Involvement (EI) which is an affective Involvement (I) type. A visual depiction of these

relationships as contained within the structural model discussed in Chapter 8, is presented in Figure 9.6 below.

Figure 9.6   Path relationship between Normative Involvement and Enduring Involvement
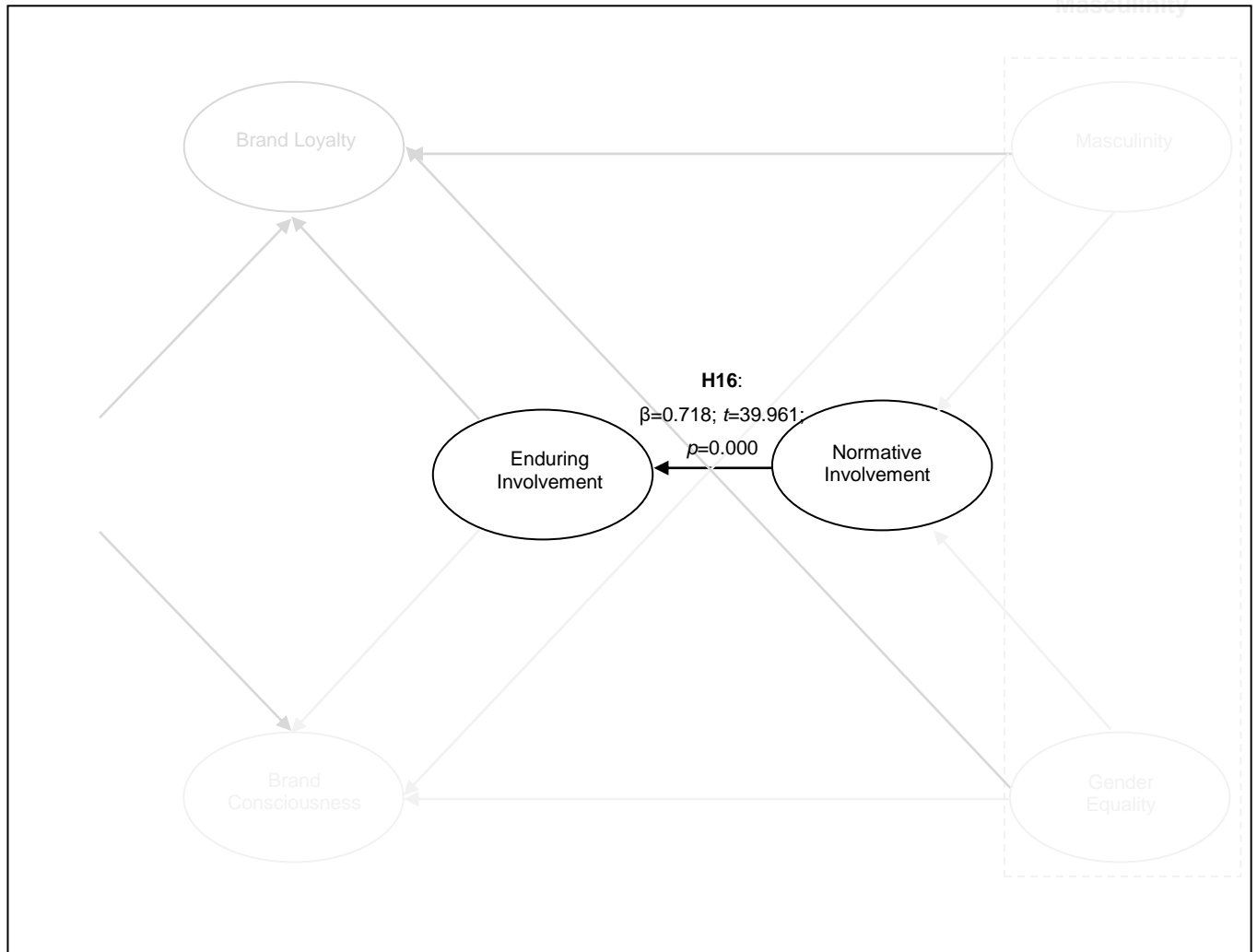
Hypothesis 16: There is a positive relationship between Normative Involvement (NI) and Enduring Involvement (EI)

It is evident from the structural model that there is a positive relationship between NI and EI: $\beta=0.718$, $t=39.961$, $p=0.000$. These empirical results also indicate that the relationship is both statistically and practically significant. In terms of statistical significance, Hypothesis 16 is supported, while in terms of practical significance, the role of NI is large: $0.5 \geq \beta \geq 0.8$. These findings are also supported by the findings reported by Broderick (2007), although the size of the average effect across five countries which formed the focus of her study was not as large. In this regard, the average standard path coefficient

was β=0.23 at a p<0.001 significance level which suggested a small to medium role rather than a large one.

9.2.2.3   *Findings related to the I-C component of the A-I-C framework*

This section contains findings related to the relationship between two affective types of Involvement (I), namely Situational Involvement (SI) and Enduring Involvement (EI), and two consumer decision-making styles (CDMS), namely Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC).

The first two findings discuss the relationships between SI and BL and between SI and BC, as shown in Figure 9.7 below.

Figure 9.7   Path relationships between Situational Involvement and Brand Loyalty and between Situational Involvement and Brand Consciousness
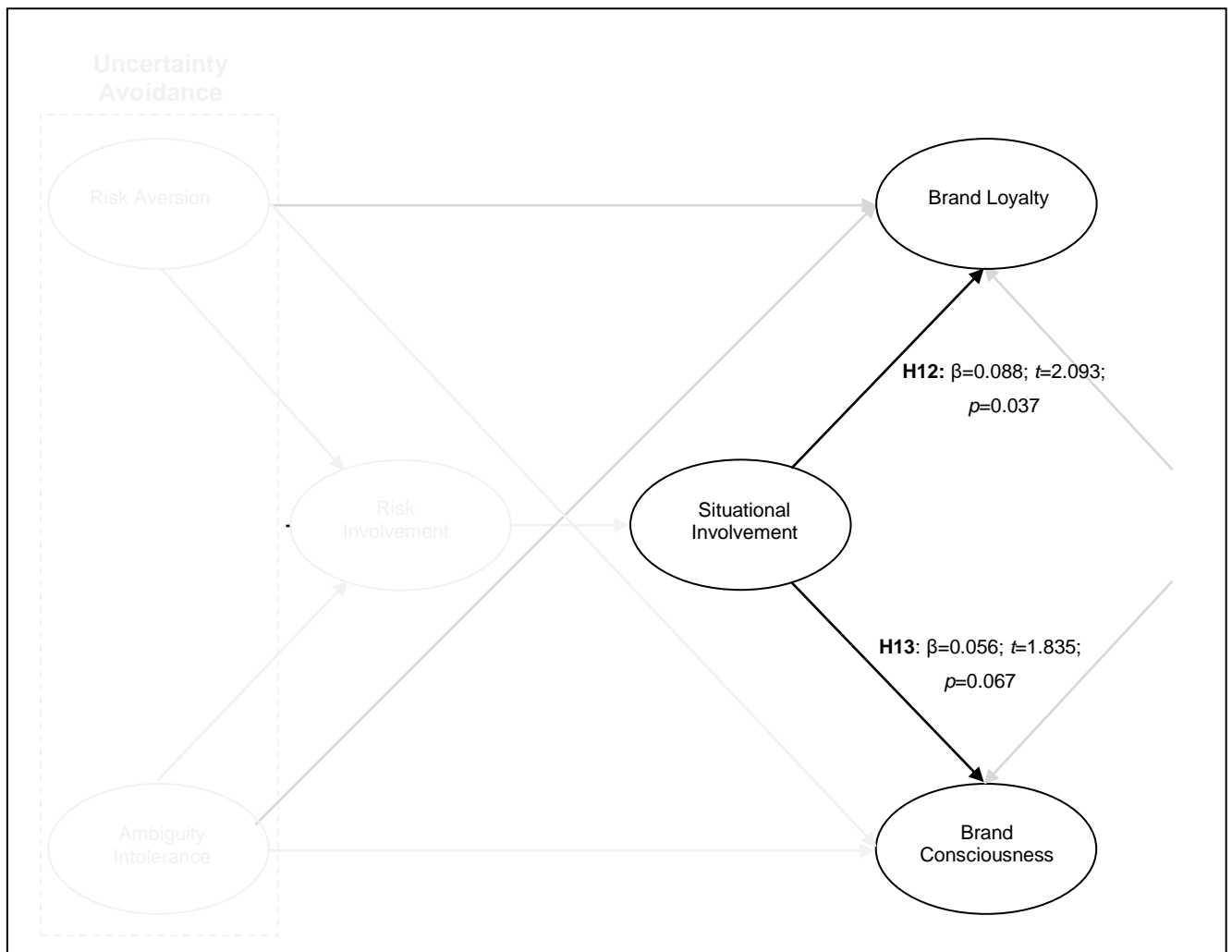
Hypothesis 12: There is a positive relationship between Situational Involvement (SI) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

The relationship between SI and BL is positive: β=0.088, *t*=2.093, *p*=0.037. The results, however, are statistically significant because although the p value is <0.050, the bias-corrected confidence interval contains zero (0). As such, Hypothesis 12 is not supported.

Hypothesis 13: There is a positive relationship between Situational Involvement (SI) and Brand Consciousness (BC)

The relationship between SI and BC is positive but not statistically significant: β=0.056, *t*=1.835, *p*=0.067. Based on these results, there is no support for Hypothesis 13.

The last two findings discuss the relationships between EI and BL and between EI and BC, as shown in Figure 9.8.

Hypothesis 17: There is a positive relationship between Enduring Involvement (EI) and Brand Loyalty (BL)

The relationship between EI and BL is both positive and statistically significant: β=0.453, *t*=11.676, *p*=0.000; showing support for Hypothesis 17. The relationship is also practically significant when classified according to Cohen's (1988) typology for effect sizes. This finding is in keeping with the outcomes of the research conducted by Bauer *et al.* (2006) and later by Gupta *et al.* (2010) who determined that there was a positive relationship between product or enduring involvement and BL.

Figure 9.8 **Path relationships between Enduring Involvement and Brand Loyalty and between Enduring Involvement and Brand Consciousness**
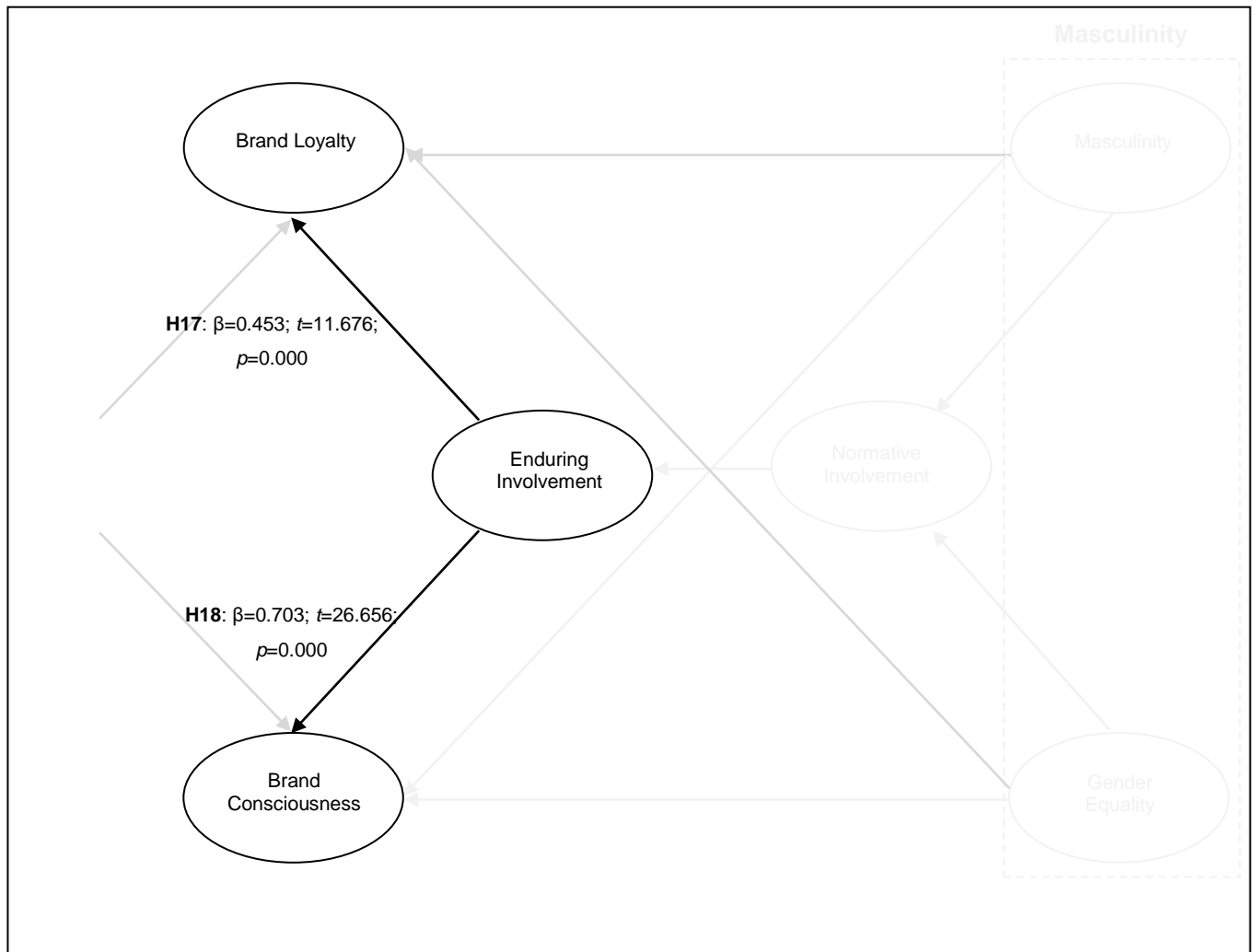
Hypothesis 18: There is a positive relationship between Enduring Involvement (EI) and Brand Consciousness

As is evident from the structural model, the relationship between EI and BC is one which is both positive and statistically significant: $\beta=0.703$, $t=26.656$, $p=0.000$. These results support Hypothesis 18. However, not only is this relationship statistically significant, it is practically significant as well. In this regard, the size of the effect is large with $\beta \geq 0.5$. This effect suggests that as a consumer's perception that a particular product or product class satisfies his/her specific values increases over time, so too will the consumer's orientation towards buying expensive, well-known national brands.

9.2.2.4 *Describing the indirect effects between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO), Consumer Involvement (CI) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS)*

The results of the indirect effects analysis are presented in Table 9.1 below.

Table 9.1 **Results of the indirect effects analysis between Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity and Brand Loyalty and Brand Consciousness**

	Original Sample (O)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values	Bias-corrected CI	
				LLCI	ULCI
				2.50%	97.50%
Risk Aversion -> Risk Involvement -> Situational Involvement -> Brand Loyalty	-0.004	0.936	0.350	-0.017	0.001
Risk Aversion -> Risk Involvement -> Situational Involvement -> Brand Consciousness	-0.002	0.950	0.343	-0.009	0.001
Ambiguity Intolerance -> Risk Involvement -> Situational Involvement -> Brand Loyalty	0.008	1.663	0.097	0.001	0.021
Ambiguity Intolerance -> Risk Involvement -> Situational Involvement ->Brand Consciousness	-0.005	1.526	0.128	0.000	0.013
Masculinity -> Normative Involvement -> Enduring Involvement ->Brand Loyalty	0.079	5.650	0.000	0.053	0.105
Masculinity -> Normative Involvement -> Enduring Involvement -> Brand Consciousness	0.123	6.618	0.000	0.086	0.154
Gender Equality -> Normative Involvement -> Enduring Involvement -> Brand Loyalty	-0.029	2.594	0.010	-0.050	-0.010
Gender Equality -> Normative Involvement -> Enduring Involvement -> Brand Consciousness	-0.045	2.612	0.009	-0.077	-0.013

The results from Table 9.1 show that the indirect effects associated with Uncertainty Avoidance (measured at the individual-level by Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI)), and with Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC), are not statistically significant. In all instances, p>0.050 (5% significance level). In contrast to

these results, the indirect effects associated with Masculinity/Femininity (measured at the individual-level by Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE)), and BL and BC, are all statistically significant with p<0.050. It is also evident from the results that the indirect effects obtained for *Masculinity -> Brand Loyalty* and for *Masculinity -> Brand Consciousness* are also practically significant although considered to be small, β ≤ 0.2.

9.2.3 Overall purpose of the study: Determine the relationship between *Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) through Consumer Involvement (CI)*

9.2.3.1 *Describing the total effects between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO), Consumer Involvement (CI) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS)*

The results of the total effects analysis are presented in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2 **Results of the total effects analysis between Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity and Brand Loyalty and Brand Consciousness**

	Original Sample (O)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values	Bias-corrected CI	
				LLCI	ULCI
				2.50%	97.50%
Risk Aversion -> Brand Loyalty	0.138	3.057	0.002	0.034	0.208
Risk Aversion -> Brand Consciousness	-0.018	0.458	0.647	-0.100	0.049
Ambiguity Intolerance -> Brand Loyalty	-0.018	0.458	0.647	-0.100	0.049
Ambiguity Intolerance -> Brand Consciousness	0.016	0.628	0.530	-0.039	0.061
Masculinity -> Brand Loyalty	0.146	4.334	0.000	0.072	0.203
Masculinity -> Brand Consciousness	0.226	7.125	0.000	0.164	0.288
Gender Equality -> Brand Loyalty	-0.012	0.384	0.701	-0.071	0.048
Gender Equality -> Brand Consciousness	-0.098	3.214	0.001	-0.152	-0.034

The results in Table 9.2 indicate that apart from the total effect associated with *Risk Aversion -> Brand Loyalty*, the total effects associated with Uncertainty Avoidance (measured at the individual-level by Risk Aversion (RA) and Ambiguity Intolerance (AI)), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC), are not statistically significant with p>0.050 (5% significance level). In terms of the total effect of RA to BL, the effect is small with β=0.138. So too is the direct effect with β=0.142. These results suggest that Consumer Involvement (CI) does not have a role in the direct relationship from RA to BL.

Also evident from the results in Table 9.2 is that apart from the total effect associated with *Gender Equality -> Brand Loyalty*, the total effects associated with Masculinity/Femininity (measured at the individual-level by Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE)), and BL and BC, are statistically significant with p<0.050.

In terms of the direct effect between *Masculinity->Brand Loyalty*, the effect is small with β=0.067 whereas the total effect is somewhat larger, β=0.146, which suggests that CI does have a role in the direct relationship between MAS and BL. Similarly, in terms of the total effect for *Masculinity->Brand Consciousness*, β=0.226, this is somewhat larger than the direct effect, β=0.103. Again, this suggests that CI has a role in the relationship.

Finally, the total effect of *Gender Equality->Brand Consciousness* is very small, β=-0.098. This is smaller than the direct effect of GE to BC which is β=-0.053. These results suggest that CI does not have a role in the direct relationship between GE and BC.

9.2.3.2 *Conclusion*

Based on the findings presented in the previous section, it is possible to conclude the following within the context of the complete A-I-C framework:

i. In terms of the relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance (as Antecedent), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) (as Consequences), through Consumer Involvement (CI) – the CI construct does not have a role in the direct relationships between the variables.

ii. In terms of the relationship between Masculinity/Femininity (as Antecedent), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) (as Consequences), through Consumer Involvement (CI) – the relationship between the Antecedents and Consequences was largely indirect, through CI, rather than direct. Indeed, apart from the relationships *Gender Equality -> Brand Loyalty* and *Gender Equality -> Brand Consciousness*, the involvement construct seemed to fulfil a role in the direct relationships between *Masculinity -> Brand Loyalty* and *Masculinity -> Brand Consciousness*.

9.2.3.3   *Implications*

The implications of the findings presented in Sections 9.2.1, 9.2.2 and 9.2.3, within the context of the complete A-I-C framework, are discussed below.

i. *In terms of the relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance (as Antecedent), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) (as Consequences), through Consumer Involvement (CI)* – consumer perceptions concerning the negative consequences and probability of their making a poor decision when purchasing a particular product may influence their choices concerning brands and stores although, practically, the size of this influence will be small. A consumer's loyalty towards particular brands and stores will, however, most likely not be influenced by their ability to tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty. Further, Uncertainty Avoidance will also most likely not influence consumers' beliefs towards buying well-known, high-priced brands. Understanding different cultural orientations and their impact on consumer behaviour and, in particular, decision-making styles has important implications for marketers, both with regard to positioning their products and segmenting their target markets (Sharma, 2011:359). In this regard, the findings indicate that risk averse consumers may adopt a BL decision-making orientation and are likely to have favourite brands and stores influenced by their propensity for risk. Therefore, in formulating integrated marketing and communication strategies, for example, marketers should consider focussing their activities on providing information concerning their particular products that will satisfy these consumers' particular evaluative criteria (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:80). The messaging should, therefore, emphasise the mitigation of risk in terms of those product attributes that are important to these consumers.

ii. *In terms of the relationship between Masculinity/Femininity (as Antecedent), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) (as Consequences), through Consumer Involvement (CI)* – consumers' attitudes towards more masculine values are not likely to influence their decision-making orientation towards choosing particular brands and stores directly but rather indirectly, through CI. While with regard to Gender Equality (GE) and BL there is no relationship, neither direct nor indirect. In terms of influencing consumers' preferences for expensive, well-known brands, a masculine orientation is expected to do so directly. Similarly, consumers' acceptance of qualities associated with equality amongst men and women may influence BC directly, albeit it negatively. In both instances, however, the indirect effects are larger than the direct effects. In terms of targeting consumers displaying either a Masculinity (MAS) or GE cultural orientation it is necessary to take into account the level of involvement between the consumers and the particular product. However, in order to be more effective, marketers should also tailor the communications to address the different types of involvement (Broderick, 2007:364) evident in the indirect relationships between MAS and BL/BC, namely Normative Involvement (NI) and Enduring Involvement (EI). In this regard, both NI and EI relate to the personal relevance of a product to a consumer's values, emotions and ego. Therefore, when targeting consumers with a masculine cultural orientation, the promotional message should convey expressions of assertiveness and ambition, for example, while for consumers with a gender equality orientation, the message should appeal to rights and responsibilities depending on the product.

9.3 CONTRIBUTION

9.3.1 <u>Theoretical contribution</u>

An increasing amount of research effort is being expended in trying to understand the role of involvement in consumer behaviour leading researchers to develop complex models to explicate this relationship (Flynn & Goldsmith, 1993:129-130; O'Cass, 2000:546). One such model is the Antecedents-Involvement-Consequences (A-I-C) model, described by Flynn and Goldsmith (1993), and which has been used as the theoretical basis for this research study.

- 213 -

The A-I-C model is an integration of earlier models with involvement as its central component along with two sets of related variables, namely antecedents or causal factors and consequences or behavioural outcomes. Yet, despite the attraction of parsimony, repeated attempts by researchers to validate it have failed (Gabbott & Hogg, 1999160). Indeed, studies undertaken by Goldsmith *et al.* (1991) and Flynn and Goldsmith (1993) determined that the conceptual model failed to fit statistically. However, these studies did find sufficient empirical evidence to support many of the links between the constructs. As such, Flynn and Goldsmith (1993:137 & 141) concluded that despite its apparent shortcomings, the A-I-C model may have value and should be the focus of future research. Applying each of the three interrelated components of the A-I-C framework this study has extended current research on the importance of involvement as a construct which explains consumer behaviour.

This section will discuss the theoretical contribution of the study according to the individual components of the A-I-C framework.

9.3.1.1 *Theoretical contribution related to the A-C component of the A-I-C framework*

This study has extended the research undertaken by researchers, including Correia *et al.* (2011), Leng and Botelho (2010), Leo *et al.* (2005), Podrug (2011) and Zhang *et al.* (2013) on the relationship between culture, at primarily the national level, and decision-making at the individual level. The findings have determined that there is a relationship between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) although the statistical and practical significance of the relationship varies dependent on firstly, the particular PCO and CDMS and secondly, the presence of Consumer Involvement (CI). In this regard, the findings suggested that the relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance, more specifically Risk Aversion (RA), and Brand Loyalty (BL) is direct but largely indirect, through CI. The findings also suggested that the relationship between Masculinity/Femininity, measured at the individual level by Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE), and Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) is largely indirect, rather than direct, through CI.

9.3.1.2 *Theoretical contribution related to the A-I component of the A-I-C framework*

This study has broadened the work undertaken by Sharma (2010) in attempting to understand different facets of culture and their impact on consumer behaviour. Indeed, this study has responded to Sharma's (2010:803) recommendation to explore the effects of PCO on important outcome variables including involvement. The findings of the study have established that there is a relationship between PCO and CI although the statistical and practical significance of the relationship varies, dependent on the particular PCO and type of CI. In this regard, there is a positive relationship between Uncertainty Avoidance, more specifically Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) and Risk Involvement (RI). There is also a positive relationship between Masculinity/Femininity, both the sub-constructs Masculinity (MAS) and Gender Equality (GE), and Normative Involvement (NI).

9.3.1.3 *Theoretical contribution related to the involvement component of the A-I-C framework*

The study has applied Broderick's (2007) nomological framework of Consumer Involvement (CI) across a South African sample and thereby extended the generalisability of its hypotheses. In this regard, the antecedent role of cognitive involvement on affective involvement was supported by the findings of the study.

9.3.1.4 *Theoretical contribution related to the I-C component of the A-I-C framework*

This study has contributed to the body of knowledge with regard to involvement as a construct influencing consumer behaviour and, in particular Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS). As suggested by Bauer *et al.* (2006:352) and Gupta *et al.* (2010:33), this study further explored the discovered relationship that involvement has an important role on the decision-making styles that consumers' exhibit. The study's findings have determined that there is indeed a relationship between Consumer Involvement (CI) and CDMS although the statistical and practical significance of the relationship varies, dependent on the particular type of CI and the CDMS. In this regard, there is a positive

relationship between Situational Involvement (SI) and Brand Loyalty (BL) while there is a positive relationship between Enduring Involvement (EI) and both Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC).

9.3.1.5 *Conclusion*

This study has made a contribution in understanding the role of involvement in consumer behaviour and it has done so by adopting a framework that not only takes into account the consequences of involvement, in terms of its role on decision-making and decision-making styles, but also its antecedents. Indeed, any conceptualisation of the involvement construct must also take cognisance of its antecedents (Gabbott & Hogg, 1999:160).

9.3.2 <u>Managerial contribution</u>

This section will discuss the managerial contribution of the study according to the individual components of the A-I-C framework.

9.3.2.1 *Managerial contribution related to the A-C component of the A-I-C framework*

While research has highlighted the need for marketers to adapt their marketing mix to address cultural differences at the national level according to Hofstede's (1980, 2001) typology of culture (Correia *et al.*, 2011:443; Leng & Bothelo, 2010:272; Leo *et al.*, 2005:52), it is evident from the findings of this study that there is also a positive relationship between individual-level cultural orientations and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS). The practical significance of the relationship varies, dependent on the particular Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and CDMS. In this regard, a consumer's Risk Aversion (RA) may have a role in their choices concerning their favourite brand and stores although practically, the role may be small. In this regard, as mentioned previously, marketers should consider focussing their activities on satisfying these particular consumers' evaluative criteria, highlighting those product attributes that are most important to them (Blackwell *et al.*, 2006:80).

Regarding consumers who exhibit a Masculine (MAS) cultural orientation towards choosing their preferred brands and stores, the role of culture on Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC) is largely indirect, through Consumer Involvement (CI). While for consumers who exhibit a Gender Equality (GE) orientation, the role of culture on BC is also exerted largely indirectly, through CI.

In terms of consumers who could be considered as exhibiting both a MAS orientation and a BL decision-making style, marketers should focus on stimulating Normative Involvement (NI) by means of promotional messages appealing to masculine values. In terms of those consumers with a BC decision-making style. Masculine values have a positive role on their preference for expensive, well-known brands. As such, stimulating NI should be the focus of a marketing communications campaign.

In formulating marketing communication targeting consumers with a gender equality orientation and exhibiting a BC decision-making style. It is suggested that marketers, as discussed previously, focus on those consumers whose NI involvement level is low, subscribing to more masculine values.

9.3.2.2 *Managerial contribution related to the A-I component of the A-I-C framework*

As with Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS), it is evident from the findings of this study that there is a positive relationship between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Involvement (CI) although the practical significance of the relationship varies, dependent on the particular PCO and CI. In this regard, consumers who are characterised as having an Ambiguity Intolerance (AI) cultural orientation may display a greater Risk Involvement (RI) in the purchase of a product although the size of this relationship may be small. In turn, consumers characterised as being Masculine (MAS) may display increased Normative Involvement (NI) as part of the decision-making process whereas those consumers who are characterised as having a Gender Equality (GE) cultural orientation may exhibit a decreased level of NI although again, the size of these relationships is small. In attempting to influence RI and NI, marketers are encouraged to tailor their marketing communication activities to take advantage of differences in the types

of consumer involvement (Broderick, 2007:364). In this regard, communications attempting to influence RI could focus on reducing feelings of risk amongst consumers with an AI cultural orientation. While for communications attempting to influence NI, the emphasis could be on activating those related personal characteristics such as values and emotions amongst consumers with either an MAS or GE cultural orientation (Broderick, 2007:365).

9.3.2.3 *Managerial contribution related to the involvement component of the A-I-C framework*

Practically, as highlighted by Broderick (2007:364), marketers should not only think about the overall levels of Consumer Involvement (CI) when tailoring their marketing mix activities but should also think about the different types of CI. Therefore, in targeting consumers with either a Brand Loyalty (BC) or Brand Consciousness (BC) decision-making style and who have a Masculine (MAS) cultural orientation, marketers should consider activities that seek to positively influence the level of Normative Involvement (NI) and consequently, the level of Enduring Involvement (EI) these consumers experience. In influencing NI, marketers should, as stated previously seek to relate the attributes of a product or product class to the consumers' own masculine values.

9.3.2.4 *Managerial contribution related to the I-C component of the A-I-C framework*

While there was a positive relationship between Enduring Involvement (EI) and both Brand Loyalty (BL) and Brand Consciousness (BC), a positive relationship was only found between Situational Involvement (SI) and BL although the size of this relationship is so small as to be practically irrelevant. Therefore, in seeking to positively influence consumers who have either a BL or BC decision-making orientation, marketers could focus their efforts on influencing the level of Normative Involvement (NI) experienced by these consumers relative to a particular product or product class. A positive assessment will, in turn, positively affect the motivational state felt by these consumers towards this particular product or product class (Broderick, 2007:348). Marketers can achieve this goal through carefully constructing their promotional messages to ensure that the product attributes relate to the masculine-orientated values consumers cherish.

9.3.2.5 *Conclusion*

It is evident from the findings of the study that the relationship between individual-level Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) was either not statistically or practically significant, or in instances where it was, the total effect was not significantly larger than the direct effect.

9.4 LIMITATIONS

This study has attempted to contribute to the body of knowledge on involvement and its role in consumer behaviour and, in particular, consumer decision-making. There are, however, several limitations associated with the study that need to be recognised due to their potential influence on the findings and conclusions of the study.

i. *Research design* – while descriptive research is suitable for describing the relationships or the associations between marketing variables, it is not suitable for examining the cause-and-effect between these same variables. Therefore, in order to avoid *post hoc fallacy*, no conclusions could be made concerning causal relations.

ii. *Sampling technique* – the representativeness of the sample may also have been negatively affected by the use of a non-probability sampling technique to select the sampling frame. In order to improve the representativeness of the sample, the quota sampling technique was employed. However, given the manner in which the online panel used was assembled – dynamically, leveraging third-party applications and websites – an objective assessment of the sample when compared to the target population is not possible.

iii. *Sample size* – due to budget constraints the size the eventual sample was 814. This quantity was substantially less than the required quantity of 2 022 to achieve a minimum effect size of 0.10 and the desired statistical power level of 0.80. The sample size may negatively impact on the representativeness of the sample and on the statistical and practical significance of the results.

iv. Data distribution – the results of the Mardia Skewness and Mardia Kurtosis tests, determined that the distribution of the data was non-normal. While the statistical method used in this study, PLS-SEM, does not require the data distribution to be

- 219 -

normal, the lack of normality may negatively affect the statistical and practical significance of the results.

v. *Measurement scales* – the lack of convergent reliability among items contained in two of the scales used in this study, namely Sharma's (2010) Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) scale and Broderick's (2007) International Consumer Involvement (ICI) scale. The low proportion of shared variance among some of the items necessitated their removal from the particular measurement scales. In this regard, Gender Equality item *GE3: Men can be as caring as women*, was eliminated from the Gender Equality dimension of the PCO scale. Also eliminated were items *MAS1: Women are generally more caring than men* and *MAS2: Men are generally physically stronger than women*, related to the Masculinity dimension of this scale. Further, in terms of the ICI scale, two items related to Risk Involvement were also eliminated, namely *RI3: Not all brands of clothing are equally satisfying* and *RI5: It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of branded clothing*.

vi. *Survey method* – the survey method chosen for this study was a self-administered questionnaire distributed online, using the Internet. While there are many benefits associated with online surveys, its major disadvantage is its potential lack of representativeness among respondents which may result in a bias in the sample.

9.5 FUTURE RESEARCH

There are a number of recommendations for future researchers. Each of these is highlighted below.

i. Understanding the influence of Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) on variables such as involvement was identified by Sharma (2010:803) as an avenue for future research. This study has sought to explore this relationship, employing Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity/Femininity, reconceptualised at the individual-level, as antecedents of Consumer Involvement (CI). Findings from this study concluded that apart from Risk Aversion (RA), there was a positive relationship between the remaining PCO and CI. It is, therefore, recommended that future research extend the findings of this study by examining the relationships with other PCO related to Hofstede's (1980, 1991) three remaining national cultural dimensions, namely Independence/Interdependence, Power/Social Inequality and Tradition/Prudence on CI.

ii. The influence of products and product (enduring) involvement on consumers' decision-making orientations was highlighted by Bauer *et al.* (2006:352) as requiring further research. This was due to the findings of their research which indicated that consumer decision-making styles (CDMS) were firstly, not product independent but product dependent and secondly, governed by product involvement. Therefore, in terms of further investigating the relationship between products and CDMS, it is suggested that future research consider replicating this study using different product categories spanning the spectrum of high- and low-involvement. While, in terms of CI, it is recommended that further studies examine the relationship between both Enduring Involvement and Situational Involvement on CDMS. In this regard, researchers could focus on the six remaining decision-making orientations identified by Sproles and Kendall (1986) related to Perfectionism, Novelty-fashion Consciousness, Recreational Shopping Consciousness, Price-value Consciousness, Impulsiveness and Confused by Overchoice.

iii. Researchers whose work underpins the key constructs investigated during the course of the study, including Broderick (2007), Sharma (2010) and Sproles and Kendall (1986), each emphasised the need to extend the generalisability of their hypotheses. The study has sought to do this by defining the target population of this study as being solely adults, 21 years and older who speak English as either a first or second language, who reside in South Africa. It is recommended, in order to extend the generalisability of the theoretical framework and its underlying hypotheses still further, that future research is conducted amongst different target populations, drawn from different country settings and demographic backgrounds.

iv. Demographic characteristics associated with, for example, gender (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003; Mitchell & Walsh, 2004; Sylvie & Huang, 2008) and to a lesser extent age (Anić, Ciunova-Suleska & Raihj, 2010: Yoo *et al.*, 2011; Zaichkowsky, 1987) have been found to influence the key constructs contained with the A-I-C framework to varying degrees. Although descriptive statistics related to gender, age and ethnicity were reported, the study did not investigate the potential moderating or mediating effects of these factors. It is, therefore, recommended that future research investigate the role of one or more of these factors on the relationships contained within the model.

9.6 SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between Personal Cultural Orientations (PCO) and Consumer Decision-making Styles (CDMS) through Consumer Involvement (CI). In reviewing the findings discussed in this chapter, it is evident that the primary and associated secondary objectives, listed in Chapter 6: Section 6.4.1, have been achieved. This chapter also discussed both the theoretical and managerial contributions of this study before highlighting the study's limitations with regard to the research design and methodology employed. Finally, this chapter concluded by suggesting a number of recommendations for future research.

10 LIST OF REFERENCES

Aldlaigan, A.H. & Buttle, F.A. 2001. Consumer involvement in financial services: an empirical test of two measures. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 19(6):232-245.

American Marketing Association. *s.a. Dictionary*. [Online] Available from: http://www.marketingpower.com/_layouts/dictionary.aspx?dLetter=C [Accessed: 2013-09-22].

Andrews, J.C., Durvasula, S. & Akhter, S.H. 1990. A framework for conceptualizing and measuring the involvement construct in advertising research. *Journal of Advertising*, 19(4):27-40.

Anić, I., Ciunova-Suleska, A. & Rajh, E. 2010. Decision-making styles of young-adult consumers in the Republic of Macedonia. *Economic Research*, 23(4):102-113.

Antil, J.H. 1984. Conceptualization and operationalization of involvement. In: Kinnear, T.C. (ed.) *Advances in Consumer Research*, 21:203-209.

Arnould, E., Price, L. & Zinkhan, G. 2004. *Consumers*. Boston: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Babin, B.J. & Harris, E.G. 2012. *CB3*. Ohio: South-Western/Cengage Learning.

Bauer, H.H., Sauer, N.E. & Becker, C. 2006. Investigating the relationship between product involvement and consumer decision-making styles. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 5(July-August):342-354.

Bayton, J.A. 1958. Motivation, cognition, learning: basic factors in consumer behaviour. *Journal of Marketing*, 22(3):282-289.

Berkman, H.W. & Gilson, C. 1986. *Consumer behaviour: concepts and strategies*. 3rd ed. Boston, Mass.: Kent Publishing.

Bienstock, C.C. & Stafford, M.R. 2006. Measuring involvement with the service: a further investigation of scale validity and dimensionality. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 14(3):209-221.

Blackwell, R.D., Miniard, P.W. & Engel, J.F. 2006. *Consumer behavior*. 10th ed. Singapore: Thomson South-Western.

Bloch, P.H & Richins, M.L. 1983. A theoretical model for the study of product importance perceptions. *Journal of Marketing*, 47(Summer 1983):69-81.

Bond, M.H. 2002. Reclaiming the individual from Hofstede's Ecological Analysis – a 20-year odyssey: comment on Oyserman *et al*. (2002). *Psychological Bulletin*, 128(1):73-77.

Broderick, A.J. 2007. A cross-national study of the individual and national-cultural nomological network of consumer involvement. *Psychology & Marketing*, 24(4):343-374.

Broderick, A.J., Greenley, G.E. & Mueller, R.D. 2007. The behavioural homogeneity evaluation framework: multi-level evaluations of consumer involvement in international segmentation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38:746-763.

Broderick, A.J. & Mueller, R.D. 1999. A theoretical and empirical exegesis of the consumer involvement construct: the psychology of the food shopper. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, Fall:97-108.

Burns, A.C. & Bush, R.F. 2010. *Marketing research*. 6th ed. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Byrne, B.M. 2010. *Structural equation modelling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications and programming*. 2nd ed. New York: Routledge.

Celsi, R.L. & Olson, J.C. 1988. The role of involvement in attention and comprehension processes. Journal of Consumer Research, 15(September):210-224.

Cohen, J. 1988. *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. 2nd ed. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cooper, D.R. & Schindler, P.S. 1998. *Business research methods*. 6th ed. Boston, Mass.: Irwin McGraw-Hill.

Correia, A., Kozak, M. & Ferradeira, J. 2011. Impact of culture on tourist decision-making styles. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13:433-446.

Coulter, R.A., Price, L.L. & Feick, L. 2003. Rethinking the origins of involvement and brand commitment: insights from postsocialist Central Europe. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30(2):151-169.

Craig, C.S. & Douglas, S.P. 2012. Culture and consumer behaviour: contextual and compositional components. In: Wells, V. & Foxall, G. (eds.) *Handbook of developments in consumer behaviour*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Curşeu, P.L. & Schruijer, S.G.L. 2012. Decision styles and rationality: an analysis of the predictive validity of the general decision-making style inventory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 72(6):1053-1062.

De Mooij, M. 2004. *Consumer behavior and culture: consequences for global marketing and advertising*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE publications.

De Mooij, M. 2011. *Consumer behavior and culture: consequences for global marketing and advertising*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE publications.

Donthu, N. & Yoo, B. 1998. Cultural influences on service quality expectations. *Journal of Service Research*, 1(2):178-186.

Du Plessis, P.J. 1990. Models of buying behaviour. In: Du Plessis, P.J. (ed.) *Consumer behaviour: a South African perspective*. Halfway House: Southern Book.

Du Plessis. P.J. & Rousseau, G.G. 1999. *Buyer behaviour: a multi-cultural approach*. 2nd ed. Johannesburg: International Thomson Publishing.

Durvasula, S., Andrews, J.C., Lysonski, S. & Netemeywer, R.G. 1993. Assessing the cross-national applicability of consumer behaviour models: a model of attitude toward advertising in general. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19(March):626-636.

Durvasula, S., Lysonski, S. & Andrews, J.C. 1993. Cross-cultural generalizability of a scale for profiling consumers' decision-making styles. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 27(1):55-65.

Encyclopaedia Britannica. Not dated. *Industrial revolution* [Online] Available from: http://global.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/287086/Industrial-Revolution [Accessed: 2013-09-29].

Engel, J.F. & Blackwell, R.D. 1982. *Consumer behaviour*. 4th ed. Chicago: Dryden Press.

Fischer, R. & Poortinga, Y.H. 2012. Are cultural values the same as the values of individuals? An examination of similarities in personal, social and cultural value structures. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 12(2):157-170.

Flynn, L.R. & Goldsmith, R.E. 1993. A causal model of consumer involvement: replication and critique. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 8(6):129-141.

Gabbott, M. & Hogg, G. 1999. Consumer involvement in services: a replication and extension. *Journal of Business Research*, 46:159-166.

Gereffi, G., Humphrey, J., Kaplinsky, R. & Sturgeon, T.J. 2001. Introduction: Globalisation, Value Chains and Development. *IDS Bulletin*, 32(3) pp.1-8.

Goldsmith, R.E., Emmert, J. & Hofacker, C.F. 1991. A causal model of consumer involvement: replication and extension. In: Childers, T.L., MacKenzie, S.B., Leigh, T.W., Skinner, S., Lynch Jr., J.G., Heckler, S., Gatignon, H., Fisk R.P. & Graham, J.L. (eds.) *American Marketing Association Winter Conference*, Chicago, IL:330-338.

Goswami, S. & Khan, S. 2015. Impact of consumer decision-making styles on online apparel consumption in India. *Vision*, 19(4):303-311.

Gupta, M., Brantley, A. & Jackson, V.P. 2010. Product involvement as a predictor of generation Y consumer decision making styles. *The Business Review*, 14(2):28-33.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. & Anderson, R.E. 2010. *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. 7th ed. Upper Saddle River: Pearson.

Hair, J.F., Hult, G.T.M., Ringle, C.M. & Sarstedt, M. 2017. *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM)*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: SAGE Publications.

Hair, J.F., Ringle, C.M. & Sarstedt, M. 2011. PLS-SEM: indeed a silver bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 19(2):139-151.

Hair, J.F., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L. & Kuppelwieser, V.G. 2014. Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). *European Business Review*, 26(2):106-121.

Hamzelu, B., Gohary, A., Nia, S.G. & Hanzaee, K.H. 2017. Does involvement shapes consumers' response to product failure? *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 29(2):283-304.

Hawkins, D.I., Mothersbaugh, D.L. & Best, R.J. 2007. *Consumer behavior: building marketing strategy*. 10th ed. Boston, Mass.: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Higie, R.A. & Feick, L.F. 1989. Enduring involvement: conceptual and measurement issues. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 16(1):690-696.

Hofstede, G. 1980. *Culture's consequences: international differences in work-related values*. Newbury Park, California: SAGE Publications.

Hofstede, G. 2001. *Culture's consequences: comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.

Houston, M.J. & Rothschild, M.L. 1978. Conceptual and methodological perspectives on involvement. In: Jain, S.C. (ed). *Proceedings of the American Marketing Association*, Chicago, 6-9 August:184-187.

Iacobucci, D. & Churchill, G.A. 2010. *Marketing research methodological foundations*. 10th ed. Mason, Ohio: South-Western.

Jain, K. & Srinivasan, N. 1990. An empirical assessment of multiple operationalizations of involvement. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 17:594-602.

Jones, D.G.B., Shaw, E.H. & McLean, P.A. 2009. The modern schools of marketing thought. In: Maclaran, P., Saren, M., Stern, B. & Tadajewski, M. (eds.) *The SAGE Handbook of Marketing Theory*. London, UK: SAGE Publications.

Karami, M., Olfati, O. & , Dubinsky, A.J. 2017. Key cultural values underlying consumers' buying behaviour: a study in an Iranian context. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 8(2):[30].

Kardes, F.R., Cline, T.W. & Cronley, M.L. 2011. *Consumer behavior: science and practice*. Australia: South-Western/Cengage Learning.

Kim, J. & Sung, Y. 2008. Dimensions of purchase-decision involvement: affective and cognitive involvement in product and brand. *Brand Management*, 16(8):504-519.

Kotler, P. 2000. *Marketing management*. International ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kotzé, T. 2011. *Referencing in academic documents: official guidelines of the Department of Marketing and Communication Management*. 5th ed. Pretoria: Department of Marketing Management, University of Pretoria.

Laurent, G. & Kapferer, J. 1985. Measuring consumer involvement profiles. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 22(February):41-53.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. 2010. *Practical research: planning and design*. 9th ed. Boston, Mass.: Pearson Education.

Leng, C.Y. & Botelho, D. 2010. How does national culture impact on consumers' decision-making styles? A cross cultural study in Brazil, the United States and Japan. *Brazilian Administration Review*, 7(3):260-275.

Leo, C., Bennett, R. & Härtel, C.E.J. 2005. Cross-cultural differences in consumer decision-making styles. *Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 12(3):32-62.

Longart, P., Wickens, E. & Bakir, A. 2016. Consumer decision process in restaurant selection: an application of the stylized EKB model. *Market-Tržište*, 28(2):173-190.

Loo, R. 2000. A psychometric evaluation of the general decision-making style inventory. *Personality and Differences*, 29:895-905.

Loudon, D.L. & Della Bitta, A.J. 1993. *Consumer behavior: concepts and applications*. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lysonski, S., Durvasula, S. & Zotos, Y. 1996. Consumer decision-making styles: a multi-country investigation. *European Journal of Marketing*, 30(12):10-21.

Malhotra, N.K. 2012. *Basic marketing research: integration of social media*. 4th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Mathews-Lefebvre, C. & Valette-Florence, P. 2014. Manufacturer brand value and the respective role of brand sensitivity, situational involvement and enduring involvement. *Journal of Brand Management*, 21(3):236-253.

McDaniel Jr, C. & Gates, R. H. 2013. *Marketing research*, 8th ed. Singapore: John Wiley & Sons.

McQuarrie, E.F. & Munson, J.M. 1987. The Zaichkowsky personal involvement inventory: modification and extension. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 14:36-40.

Mellott Jr, D.W. 1983. *Fundamentals of consumer behavior*. Tulsa, Oklahoma: PennWell Books.

Michaelidou, N. & Dibb, S. 2008. Consumer involvement: a new perspective. The *Marketing Review*, 8(1):83-99.

Mitchell, V. & Bates, L. 1998. UK consumer decision-making styles. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 14:199-225.

Mitchell, V. & Walsh, G. 2004. Gender differences in German consumer decision-making styles. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 3(4):331-346.

Mittal, B. & Lee, M. 1989. A causal model of consumer involvement. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 10:363-389.

Morel, K.P.N., Poiesz, T.B.C. & Wilke, H.A.M. 1997. Motivation, capacity and opportunity to complain: towards a comprehensive model of consumer complaint behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 24(1):464-469.

Mowforth, M. & Munt, I. 1998. *Tourism and sustainability: new tourism in the Third World*. London: Routledge.

O'Cass, A. 2000. An assessment of consumers product, purchase decision, advertising and consumption involvement in fashion clothing. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 21:545-576.

Parumasur, S.B. & Roberts-Lombard, M. 2012. In: Parumasur, S.B. & Roberts-Lombard, M. (eds.) *Consumer behaviour*. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta.

Peter, J.P. & Olson, J.C. 2010. *Consumer behavior and marketing strategy*. 9th ed. Singapore: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Podrug, N. 2011. Influence of national culture on decision-making style. *South East European Journal of Economics and Business*, 6(1):37-44.

Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B., Lee, J-Y. & Podsakoff, N.P. 2003. Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5):879-903.

Potgieter, D, Wies, M. & Strasheim, A. 2013. Demographic differences in adult consumers' decision-making styles in Tshwane, South Africa. *Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences*, 41:11-27.

Radder, L., Li, Y. & Pietersen, J.J. 2006. Decision-Making Styles of Young Chinese, Motswana and Caucasian Consumers in South Africa: An Exploratory Study. *Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences*, 34:20-31.

Rokeach, M. 1973. *The nature of human values*. New York: The Free Press.

Ruzane, T. 2010. *Consumer decision-making styles of post-democracy urban adolescents in South Africa*. Unpublished master's dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C.M., Smith, D. & Reams, R. & Hair, J.F. 2014. Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM): a useful tool for family business researchers. *Journal of Family Business Strategy, 5(1):*1-11.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. 2009 *Research business methods for business students*. 5th ed. Harlow, England: Financial Times/Prentice Hall.

Schiffman, L.G. & Kanuk, L.L. 2010. *Consumer behaviour*. 10th global ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Schiffman, L.G., Kanuk, L.L. & Hansen, H. 2012. *Consumer behaviour: a European outlook*. 2nd ed. New York: Pearson.

Schwartz, S.H. 1994. Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human values? *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(4):19-45.

Schwartz, S.H. & Rubel-Lifschitz, T. 2009. Cross-national variation in the size of sex differences in values: effects of gender equality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 97(1):171-185.

Scott, S.G. & Bruce, R.A. 1995. Decision-making style: the development and assessment of a new measure. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 55(5):818-831.

Sharma, P. 2010. Measuring personal cultural orientations: scale development and validation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38:787-806.

Sharma, P. 2011. Demystifying cultural differences in country-of-origin effects: exploring the moderating roles of product type, consumption context, and involvement. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 23:344-364.

Sharma, P., Wu, Z. & Su, Y. 2016. Role of personal cultural orientations in intercultural service encounters. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 30(2):223-237.

Soares, A.M., Farhangmehr, M. & Shoham, A. 2007. Hofstede's dimensions of culture in international marketing studies. *Journal of Business Research*, 60:277-284.

Solomon, M.R. 2007. *Consumer behaviour: buying, having, and being*. 7th ed. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Soper, D.S. 2017. *A-priori sample size calculator for structural equation models* [Online] Available from: www.danielsoper.com/statcalc [Date accessed: 2016-12-08].

Sproles, G.B. 1985. *From perfectionism to faddism: measuring consumers' decision-making styles.* Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Council on Consumer Interests:79-85.

Sproles, G.B & Kendall, E.L. 1986. A methodology for profiling consumers' decision-making styles. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 20(2):267-279.

Sylvie, G. & Huang, J.S. 2008. Value systems and decision-making styles of newspaper front-line editors. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 85(1):61-82.

Thunholm, P. 2004. Decision-making style: habit, style or both. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36:931-944.

Tustin, D.H., Lighelm, A.A., Martins, J.H. & van Wyk, H de J. 2005. *Marketing research in practice.* Pretoria: Unisa Press.

Ungerer, L.M & Strasheim, A. 2011. The moderating effect of living standards on the relationship between individual-level culture and life satisfaction: a value segmentation perspective. *Management Dynamics*, 20(2):25-50.

University of Pretoria. 1999. *Code of ethics for research (Rt 429/99)*. Pretoria: Research Ethics Committee, University of Pretoria.

Venaik, S. & Brewer, P. 2013. Critical issues in the Hofstede and GLOBE national cultural models. *International Marketing Review*, 30(5):469-482.

Walsh, G., Hennig-Thurau, T., Wayne-Mitchell, V. & Wiedmann, K-P. 2001. Consumers' decision-making style as a basis for market segmentation. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 10(2):117-131.

Wood, N.L. 2012. *Individual differences in decision-making styles as predictors of good decision making.* Published masters thesis. Bowling Green: Bowling Green State University.

Yoo, B. & Donthu, N. 2005. The effect of personal cultural orientation on consumer ethnocentrism: evaluations and behaviours of U.S. consumers towards Japanese products. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 18(1/2):7-44.

Yoo, B., Donthu, N. & Lenartowicz, T. 2011. Measuring Hofstede's five dimensions of cultural values at the individual level: development and validation of CVSCALE. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 23(3-4):193-210.

Zaichkowsky, J.L. 1985. Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12:341-352.

Zaichkowsky, J.L. 1986. Conceptualizing involvement. *Journal of Advertising*, 15(2):4-34.

Zaichkowsky, J.L. 1994. The personal involvement inventory: reduction, revision, and application to advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, 23(4):59-70.

Zaichkowsky, J.L. & Sood, J.H. 1989. A global look at consumer involvement and use of products. *International Marketing Review*, 6(1):20-34.

Zhang, A., Zheng, M., Jiang, N. & Zhang, J. 2013. Culture and consumers' decision-making styles: an experimental study in individual-level. *Paper presented at the 6th International Conference on Information Management, Innovation Management and Industrial Engineering*: 444-449.

APPENDIX A

- screening questions and data collection instrument -

SCREENING QUESTIONS

i) Are you 21 years or older?

Please select an appropriate answer.

Yes	If Yes, please complete question ii)
No	If No, thank you for your participation

ii) Are you responsible for purchasing your own clothing?

Please select an appropriate answer.

Yes	If Yes, please complete the remainder of the questionnaire
No	If No, thank you for your participation

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

Dear respondent,

Consumer decision-making, which is broadly related to the purchasing and consumption of products and services, is affected by many different factors. The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between two of these factors, culture and involvement, and between these factors and consumer decision-making styles.

This questionnaire should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete.

Please answer all of the questions contained in the questionnaire.

There are no correct or incorrect answers.

All information provided by you in completing this questionnaire will remain strictly confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this research study.

Section 1

Listed below are a number of general statements that reflect different aspects of culture at an individual level.

Please read each statement **carefully** and indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I find it difficult to function without clear directions and instructions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer specific instructions to broad guidelines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 236 -

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I tend to get anxious when I do not know an outcome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel stressed when I cannot predict consequences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tend to avoid talking to strangers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer a routine way of life to an unpredictable one full of change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would not describe myself as a risk-taker	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not like taking too many chances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Women are generally more caring than men.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Men are generally physically stronger than women	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Men are generally more ambitious than women.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Women are generally more modest than men.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is all right for men to be emotional sometimes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Men do not have to be the sole breadwinner in a family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Men can be as caring as women	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Women can be as ambitious as men	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 2

Listed below are a number of general statements that relate to decision-making styles associated with the purchasing of branded clothing.

Branded clothing refers to garments or items of clothing (excluding accessories e.g. shoes, sunglasses, jewellery, etc.) that display a label and/or logo identifying a particular designer, manufacturer or retailer.

Please read each statement **carefully** and indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The well-known clothing brands are best for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The most advertised clothing brands are usually very good choices							
The more expensive clothing brands are usually my choices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The higher the price of the brand of clothing, the better its quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good quality stores offer me the best clothing brands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer buying the well-known clothing brands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not regularly change the clothing brands I buy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I go to the same stores each time I shop for branded clothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have favourite clothing brands I buy over and over	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Once I find a clothing brand I like, I stick with it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3

Listed below are a number of general statements that are associated with different dimensions of involvement related to the purchasing of branded clothing (excluding accessories e.g. shoes, sunglasses, jewellery, etc.).

Please read each statement **carefully** and indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Buying branded clothing helps me express my personality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can tell a lot about a person by the brand of clothing he or she buys	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The branded clothing I buy reveals a little bit about me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The clothing brands I buy give a glimpse of the type of person I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe that different brands of clothing provide different amounts of satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel rather sure when choosing branded clothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not all brands of clothing are equally satisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In purchasing branded clothing, I am certain of my choice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of branded clothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A poor choice of branded clothing would be upsetting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Choosing between brands of clothing is a very important decision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying a brand of clothing requires a lot of thought	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of clothing brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am concerned about the outcome of my choice of branded clothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a strong interest in branded clothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I attach great importance to branded clothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy buying branded clothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying branded clothing is like buying a gift for myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 4

4.1 How often do you purchase branded clothing for yourself (<u>excluding</u> accessories e.g. shoes, sunglasses, jewellery, etc.)? **Choose only one option.**

Weekly	1
Twice a month	2
Monthly	3
Every 2nd month	4
Quarterly	5
Twice a year	6
Yearly	7
Other: Please specify _____	8

4.2 Please indicate from which type of store you **mostly** purchase branded clothing (<u>excluding</u> accessories e.g. shoes, sunglasses, jewellery, etc.) for yourself by **circling** an appropriate number. **Choose only one option.**

Boutique store *(This is a relatively small store which sells a collection of carefully selected product items from a single product category. It is usually characterised by an atmosphere of exclusivity and personalised attention e.g. Jenni Button, Nicci Boutiques, Pringle of Scotland)*	1
Department store *(This is a store which sells a large number of product categories all organised into separate departments e.g. Edgars, Stuttafords, Woolworths)*	2
Discount store *(This is a store which generally sells a large number of product categories containing standard product items at comparatively low or discounted prices e.g. Ackermans, Mr Price, PEP)*	3
Hypermarket *(This is an unusually large store which sells a large number of product categories containing a large variety of product items at comparatively low or discounted prices. Much of the stock items are stacked in the sales area e.g. Checkers Hyper, Game, Pick 'n Pay)*	4
Online store or e-tailer *(This is purely an online or internet-based store. It is not complementary to the traditional types of retailers. Examples are Zando, SassyChic, Spree)*	5
Speciality store *(This is a store which sells only a single or limited number of product categories containing a large variety of product items, such as a sporting goods store or a clothing store e.g. Donna Claire, Levi's, Jeep)*	6
Other: Please specify _____	7

Section 5

5.1 Please select an appropriate answer.

Male	1
Female	2

5.2 Please state your year of birth: 19____

5.3 According to the population groups prescribed by Stats SA, please indicate your population group.

Black African	1
Coloured	2
Indian/Asian	3
White	4
Other: Please specify _____	5

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.
Your participation in this survey is much appreciated