UNDERSTANDING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN THE LESS
DEVELOPED COUNTRIES: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF
BRAND LOYALTY IN ZAMBIA.

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ABSTRACT.

UNDERSTANDING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN THE LESS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF BRAND LOYALTY IN ZAMBIA.

The objectives of this study are to contribute to the understanding of consumer behaviour, and to investigate the existence of brand loyalty in the less developed countries. The study attempts to fill the gap in literature on consumer behaviour and consumer characteristics in the less developed countries.

The significance of the study is that while the existing studies focus on Latin American markets, it investigates consumer behaviour in Africa: Zambia. A further contribution lies in its attempts to understand consumer behaviour in markets where there is a common notion that marketing is not important because the existence of shortages creates demand. This study regards such attitudes as myopic because marketing should be understood as more than a demand creating tool. It should be viewed as a discpline that can enable a manager to match organizational capabilities and resources to the needs of a society. Moreover, at the micro level, companies are in competition for the occupation of the largest segment in the consumers mind. The need for marketing during shortages is in conformity with Kotlers argument that:

" Marketing is as critical a strategic concept and an operating philosophy during shortages as it is during surpluses. The seller [Marketer] who abandons the marketing mode of thinking during shortages is playing Russian roulette with his market franchise. He is risking long-term marriage to a set of customers for the temporary charms of a seductress." [Quoted in Nekvasil, 1975, p.57].]

Hence, studying brand loyalty and the factors related to it has particular relevance in the less developed countries.

The results of a consumer survey conducted among 1289 respondents in Zambia reveals that women, who were mostly involved in the purchase of the products, were very aware of brands on the market, used informal [personal sources] of information, identified brands by name and as expected, the frequency of purchases were low and quantities bought quite large, reflecting the product shortage situation. The cross-tabulations and log-linear analysis further indicated that brand loyal consumers tended to be mostly men, educated, from middle and high income classes, store loyal, heavy users, not price sensitive, influenced by family and friends, who lived in urban areas where distribution is extensive and many brands available. However, some interbrand differences were evident.

These results suggest a profile of brand loyal consumers, and this can be used to segment the market for frequently purchased products. More significantly, the possibility of market segmentation would indicate appropriate marketing and advertising strategies for companies selling these products in the less developed countries.

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I dedicate this thesis to my late father

James N. Bbenkele

and late mother

Maria C. Bbenkele.

You are ever so present in my life and I know you would have
been very proud of this. This is for you.

" Marketing battles are fought inside the mind of the prospect. The mind is the battleground. A terrain that is tricky and difficult to understand".
[Ries and Trout, 1986].

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SUMMARY AND ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS.

SUMMARY OF STUDY.

The problem this study addresses is the understanding of
consumer behaviour in the Less Developed Countries [LDCs]. This
is considered a pertinent problem as literature suggests that
socio - economic and cultural characteristics of consumers
differ between the Developed Countries [DCs] and the Less
Developed Countries. Such differences raise questions about the
direct transfer of consumer behaviour models from Western
countries into the Less Developed Countries. This problem is
explored by critically analysing the comprehensive models of
consumer behaviour and investigating the nature of brand loyalty
in the less developed countries . This study indicates that
these models can only be used to guide attempts to understand
consumer behaviour, especially as, in addition to being culture
specific, they also have problems related to their formulations.
This argument leads to the proposition that a proper
understanding of consumer behaviour in the Less Developed
Countries will depend on the formulation of novel perspectives
rather than merely trying to adapt the already existing models.
Such a new perspective would be important in the Less Developed
Countries where marketing is based on managing supply rather
than demand.

The existence of product shortages in the Less Developed
Countries was an additional consideration to the exploration of
the nature of repeat purchase behaviour in the Less Developed
Countries. A key question in this area became: Does brand
loyalty exist in an economy of shortages and what factors are

related to it? Any answers to this might fill part of the gap in consumer behaviour knowledge in the Less Developed Countries, and identify important variables for understanding consumer behaviour of frequently purchased products in the Less Developed Countries. Further, if comprehensive models can be used as guidelines for understanding consumer behaviour in the Less Developed Countries, certain pre-conditions required by these models also had to be met, notably the existence of brand choice behaviour. The objectives of the study were to explore the existence of brand loyalty in the Less Developed Countries [suggesting brand choice behaviour], and relate this phenomenon to a number of explanatory variables namely, consumer characteristics, social and family influence and market structure variables.

A survey was conducted in Zambia between June and August 1985 on 1289 respondents proportionately drawn from the urban and rural areas. The sample was designed to represent the various consumer segments in the country, hence the sample was stratified into high, middle and low class. This stratification represented differences in income, education, and social status and suggested differences in the sophistication of consumers. Due to financial and time constraints, the survey was restricted to the towns of Lusaka and Kitwe and to five different rural areas in the Southern, Central and Copperbelt provinces.

The results of the study were analysed using SPSS -X routines. The major statistical analysis used was contigency table analysis employing chi-square and Logit analysis. Logit analysis was more preferable as a statistical tool because it provided an easy interpretation of results as it collapsed the variables into dichotomies and its modelling approach provided

information on the relative importance of the variables. The procedure was not used for any other reason other than these. Inevitably, the results from the cross tabulations and the logit models were different because of the aggregation used in logit. There were however some similarities between the two. The data for the analysis is however drawn from the logit model outputs interpretation of the contigency tables was not easy as the relationships were not isotropic.

The results show that to a limited degree some brand loyalty exists for certain brands but this could not be generalized to all the frequently purchased products. The influence of shortages was observed in the relatively low level of brand loyalty and the existence of brand switching [multi brand buying] for the products which were commonly in short supply on the market. While brand loyalty varied according to the different product groups, the occupation of both the head of the household and the wife [a proxy for income], the number of the brands available and the extensiveness of distribution, all were commonly related to brand loyalty in all product classes.

The empirical findings of this research may help to fill the gap in consumer behaviour literature that exists in the Less Developed Countries. As such the study indicates the managerial implications on market segmentation and the design of appropriate advertising and marketing strategies, and should provide International Companies , International Advertising Companies, the Tropical African Advisory Group and Southern African Development Coordination Conference with important working consumer behaviour knowledge for these countries.

Organization of The Report.

The report of the study is divided into nine chapters each looking at different but related issues. Brief summaries of the chapters are given below.

Chapter 1 is divided into three sections. The first sections introduces the difficulties faced by marketing managers in formulating marketing strategies in the Less Developed Countries amid the paucity of consumer behaviour knowledge. The reasons for the lack of consumer research in the Less Developed Countries are attributed to the smallness of these markets, and the geocentric approach international companies use in understading the consumers in the international markets. The second section outlines the research objectives given this problem. The final section discusses the context within which the research is conducted. The existence of product shortages provides a unique context for studying consumer behaviour phenomenon in the Less Developed Countries. The existence of brand loyalty in particular was investigated in this framework.

Chapter 2 gives the background information to familiarize the reader with the general characteristics of the Zambian marketing system and the macroenvironmental variables. The major aim of presenting this information is to provide a backdrop of reference points against which to view the discussion in the chapters that follow.

In chapter 3 an argument is proposed that there is a link between the level of economic and marketing development. The central rationale is that marketing has a vital role to play in the economic developement process. Using this rationale a group of countries which share a number of similar attributes on consumer characteristics to Zambia are defined. This is in order to identify a relatively homogeneous group of countries to which the results and the research methodology can be generalized.

Chapter 4 comments on the literature that exists on consumer behaviour in the Less Developed Countries. The first section of the chapter confirms the observation that empirical consumer behaviour studies in these countries are scarce. Most of the studies on consumer behaviour in these countries tend to be impressionistic or at best stereotyped reports. The second section explores the consumer behaviour literature in the Developed Countries, with a view to using the knowledge that exists to adapt one of the models to the Less Developed Countries. This attempt proved abortive as the comprehensive models have their own peculiar problems which make any attempts at adaptation difficult.

Chapter 5 is concerned with the identification of the specific area of inquiry for the study. Here the different models of decision making are given and routinised response behaviour under low involvement is identified as the major model framework of the research. The second section looks at how brand loyalty should be understood. This section is important because there are many definitions of the construct and an attempt at conceptualization provides indications of how the construct may be measured. In the final section, the correlates of brand

loyalty in the Developed Countries are discussed, in order to construct a set of hypotheses based on the factors that influence repeat purchase behaviour in the Less Developed Countries.

Chapter 7 presents the research methodology, chapter 8 looks at the empirical findings of the study and chapter 9 discusses, and summarizes the study.

CHAPTER ONE.

THE PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH CONTEXT.

AIM OF THE CHAPTER.

This chapter aims at presenting the problem area of inquiry, the objectives which the study hopes to achieve and the context defining the parameters within which this research is being conducted. Within this outline the chapter first defines marketing and uses this conceptualization to argue that this function is under developed in the Less Developed Countries largely because there is a lack of understanding of the behaviour of consumers. Given the above, the task undertaken is is to make data available by studying an aspect of repeat purchase behaviour in the Less Developed Countries. Finnaly, the condition of shortages in the Less Developed Countries is discussed as the research context within whithin which the behaviour of consumers can be studied in the Less Developed Countries.

In international and domestic marketing, effective marketing strategy lies in having sound knowledge of the behaviour of consumers, for marketing has one important objective: bringing about the desired market response. Rothschild [1979], states that:

> "In marketing the desired end is appropriate behaviour control to further the goals of the organization. The currently recognized most efficient means to this end is through the use of the marketing concept... behaviour is a function of its consequences and the environment; by assessing needs marketers are best able to meet their own needs and control portions of the consumers environment"[p.24].

In this study the desired response which is examined is repeat purchase behaviour in the Less Developed Countries. However, before this is discussed , marketing as a concept requires definition, but this will be an orientation rather than an indepth study of the concept.

In many introductory textbooks of marketing, economics, sociology, and anthropology, the consumer is depicted as exchanging products for payments, with the flow of information in both directions. An interesting point to note is that this exchange of products for money or quid pro quo seems to be a universal concept; it exists in the most rural societies in Zambia. This is revealed by Lancaster [1970] whose work on economic anthropology in Zambia suggested the existence of two systems of exchange behaviour. He described the exchange systems common to the villages as one in which " both parties are familiar and interact with a view to strengthen social networks relations."

The other type is where the parties are strangers and involved in business - like transactions. In this second form of

transactions Lancaster [1970] describes how the

> " lumpen proletariats strive to get the better of the
> deal if they can and as such both sides adopt a take it
> or leave it attitude and insults and rebuffs are more
> common..." [p.72].

This identification of exchanges in a backward community suggests that if the modus operandi of marketing is the exchange concept then the concept is universal, the only difference being in the degree of development. For example the concept of market exchanges has been extensively researched in the Developed Countries, in the work of Kotler [1970], Alderson [1965], Bagozzi [1975, 1978] and Zaltman [1975]. These authors considered exchange to be central to the interaction between consumers and producers. This led them to consider marketing as the core concept of marketing. The IMP group has extensively used this concept in their network approach in industrial marketing. However, even though the work of Lancaster [1970] reveals the existence of market interactions in the Less Developed Countries little further research has been undertaken and consequently very little is known about marketing in these countries. This lack of interest in marketing in the Less Developed Countries is suggested by Thorelli [1981] to be due to relative unimportance given to consumer behaviour. The reasons for this are:

> " a.   The existence of a sellers market where, by
>   definition as it were, there is little
>   incentive for the sellers to look out for
>   consumer interests.
>   b.   The low aspiration levels of consumers...which
>   are strongly correlated with the degrees of
>   economic development.
>   c.   In the Less Developed Countries the consumer is
>   the forgotten man.
>   d.   There has been a lack of research - based data
>   concerning the exp[erience of the consumers in
>   the market place in the Less Developed
>   Countries"[p.197].

The importance of the exchange notion in the consumer market lies in the fact that it implies that the producer and the consumer will exchange the product if, and only if, both parties

expect their net satisfaction to be higher after the transaction has been consummated [Enis, 1983]. Incorporating this exchange notion, a number of definitions of marketing can be identified. For example, Kotler [1984] defines marketing as:

> " a social process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and value with others".

This definition has been extended to include the responsibilty that organizations should have to society as a whole in their efforts to achieve their objectives. However, a more recent definition of marketing which is rather eclectic has been suggested by the Committee of definitions of the American Marketing Association. They suggest that marketing should be defined as:

> " the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organizational objectives"[AMA Board, 1985].

This definition of marketing is used in the rest of this chapter because it depicts marketing in terms of creating an exchange through preconcieved and deliberative actions of manipulating the marketing elements for the desired market responses, implying an active attitude of the organization towards the market [which is a very important principle of marketing]. Secondly, the definition is multidimensional in nature,in that it explicitly includes the marketing of non business activities, an area which is usually neglected in marketing literature. Thirdly, Parkinson [1985] argues that this definition holds good whether one is talking of a developed country like the UK or some poor African country like Rwanda.

The conceptual advantage of defining marketing using exchange as the core concept is that the definition makes an implicit definition that the supplier should have full knowledge of the needs of the consumers he is trying to satisfy. This knowledge

is vital because without an understanding of consumer behaviour it becomes very difficult to effect exchanges to achieve the desired marketing objectives. This indicates the importance of the marketing orientation which stipulates that the key to achieving organizational goals consists in determining the needs and wants of the target markets [Kotler, 1984]. Though the exchanges exist in the Less Developed Countries in various forms, very little is known about the behaviour of consumers in the Less Developed Countries, suggesting that marketing orientation may not exist.

The lack of consumer understanding in the Less Developed Countries has led to the use of implicit models making the exchange process less effective and the attainment of the desired market responses a matter of intuitive judgement rather than a preactive and a deliberative process. Daubek [1981] aimed at refining the purchase behaviour model by Howard and Sheth, pointing out that it was important for the marketing manager to understand the consumer or there would be no basis to develop a strategy. While this suggests that consumer behaviour is very important for designing marketing and advertising strategies , the lack of consumer knowledge in the Less Developed Countries means that these strategies are not optimal. This lack of knowledge is partly due to the lack of empirical studies;

> " in the Less Developed Countries the few reports that exist on consumer behaviour are largely impressionistic reports from mono - cultural travelling scholars.... This has resulted into opportunistic and piecemeal researches that do not discover new insights but simply replicates abroad what is similr or fashionable in the developed countries" [Boddewyn, 1981: p65].

Invariably, this kind of research is reflected in the over-emphasis upon the cultural and economic differences that exist between the Less Developed Countries and Developed Countries. Wind and Douglas [1974] observe that this narrow

framework has led to a collection of stereotyped consumer researches which over stress the differences between consumer behaviour at home and that of the Less Developed Countries.

In spite of the existence of the "self reference criterion " inherent· in the reports from scholars from Developed Countries, the impetus for research in the Less Developed Countries is still predominantly from foreign scholars. Very little has been undertaken by scholars from the Less Developed Countries, except for scattered reports like that of Waruingi [1980] in which the Kenyan consumer is described. With this exception no other reports are known to have approached an understanding of consumer behaviour by dealing with the non Western countries on wholly new and empirical terms of their own. This study addresses the lack of consumer behaviour by empirically examining the nature of a consumer behaviour construct of brand loyalty in the Less Developed Countries.

This problem is supported by Holmes [1985] when he suggests that the inquiry into consumer behaviour in the Less Developed Countries is important because knowledge of consumers in these international markets will become increasingly important in future. The reason for this is that ; firstly, many markets in the Developed Countries are experiencing a market slowdown due to reduced population growth, economic slugginess and saturation in some particular product catagories. Secondly, it has been anticipated that fresh competition in the domestic market can be expected, making it reasonable to be aggressive in the foreign markets [Holmes, 1985]. For these aggressive actions in foreign markets to be effective, the marketing concept requires that the international marketing strategies be based on investigations of consumer needs and interests [Daubek, 1981]. Wind and Douglas [1974] also observe that very few companies operating in the

Less Developed Countries base their operations on empirical consumer knowledge. Further support of the research problem is suggested from the studies on the performance of the British exporters. For example, Hooley and Newcomb [1983] report problems in the execution of the international marketing process. Baker [1979] suggests that the problems are being caused by the small businesses involved in exporting neglecting to spend money on marketing in foreign markets. The common rationale usually given is that they lack the resources at hand to develop a sophisticated marketing process. As a result of this, it has been observed that most of the companies are more interested in matching needs with existing products rather than developing products to satisfy and meet unfulfilled needs. Support for this may be found in the work of Turnbull and Cunningham [1981]. Hooley and Newcomb [1984] also found that export sales are regarded by most UK exporters as a way of utilizing surplus capacity. Exports serve to smooth seasonal fluctuations in sales or act as a stop gap measure in dealing with a recession in the hiome market until things improve. The evidence underlines the lack of vital consumer knowledge in the Less Developed Countries.

Exploratory Study.

To determine whether marketing was practiced in the companies with operations in the Less Developed Countries a pilot study was conducted in Scotland and England. The main aim was to study the nature of the marketing practices of these companies in the Less Developed Countries and Zambia in particular. The sample of the eight companies included advertising agents, companies with subsdiaries in Zambia and the Tropical African Advisory Group [TAAG]. A list of these companies and the

various executives interviewed are provided in Appendix 1.

The top executives in these companies were contacted and the information collected using guided indepth interviews. This method was found to obtain richer and more useful information than the structured interviews which were used in the pilot study with two companies in Scotland. The structured questionnaire could not be used because the respondents could not answer most of the questions as they did not conduct market research in these markets. This implied that since these managers did not have any empirical understandindg of their consumers, they depended on implicit models of consumer behaviour based on intuitive judgement to make strategic marketing and advertising decisions. In addition to this, an observation was made that there was no investment in consumer research simply because the markets were too small to warrant any investments. Finally, all the managers felt that they could sell whatever they had in the Less Developed Countries because of the shortages situation that existed in these countries: as shortages create demand. These findings tend to confirm the earlier findings of Turnbull and Cunningham [1981] and Hooley and Newcomb [1984].

In a different perspective Wind and Douglas [1974] suggest that the lack of international consumer research is largely determined by the attitude of the managers. These attitudes are based on the orientation which the manager has towards international consumer behaviour. The dichotomy of this orientation are geocentricism or polycentricism [Terpstra, 1983]. The geocentric view holds that the home consumer behaviour understanding can be extended in understanding the international consumer and hence appropriate in designing marketing strategies in these foreign markets. The proponents

of this orientation would tend to extend whatever marketing strategy is used at home to the foreign countries leading to a form of " marketing imperialism" [Terpstra, 1983]. This is supported by the observation of Baker [1979] that "marketing myopia" was the main cause of the poor British export performance.

Though this orientation is usually supported because it is cheap to use, has some advantages for a company needing a world wide image, improves marketing performance and it is simpler [Majaro, 1982; Buzzell, 1968; and Sorenson and Wiechmann, 1975], but it tends to be too simplistic in its approach. For example, it rules out the influence of culture, economic development and the contribution other macroenvironmental variables have in shaping up the behaviour of consumers. As literature indicates that culture and economic development has a significant influence on the behaviour of consumers [Wind and Douglas, 1974], the geocentric approach in understanding consumer behaviour is seriously flawed.

A contrasting school of thought emphasizes the polycentric view in understanding international consumer behaviour. This view suggests that since each country has its own idiosyncracies, it is necessary to conduct country by country studies to understand the behaviour of consumers in the Less Developed Countries. Writers in this school include Elbanishier and Nicholls [1983]; Wind, Douglas and Perlmutter [1973]; Keegan [1970]; Buzzell [1973] and others.

The major weakness of this orientation is that it overemphasizes the differences in culture, economic development and the other macroenvironmental variables between the Developed Countries and the Less Developed Countries [Wind and Douglas, 1974]. In

addition to this there is an implicit assumption that consumers in the same country and/or culture will behave in a homogeneous way. Levy and Martineau [1978] argued that membership in a common culture or society does not necessarily imply similar response patterns because culture is composed of subcultures and as such:

> "different social classes and social groups as well as people with different personalities may tend to have different interests, lifestyles and behaviour patterns" [Wind and Douglas, 1974].

However, it is a mistake to view these approaches in terms of a simple dichotomy. They represent the extremes of a spectrum of views of international consumer behaviour.

Figure 2.A: Dichotomy of orientations in understanding consumer behaviour.

Geocentricism   Polycentricism.

{--}

Use understanding of   Treat consumer

home consumer behaviour.   behaviour as being

                                         different in

                                         various markets.
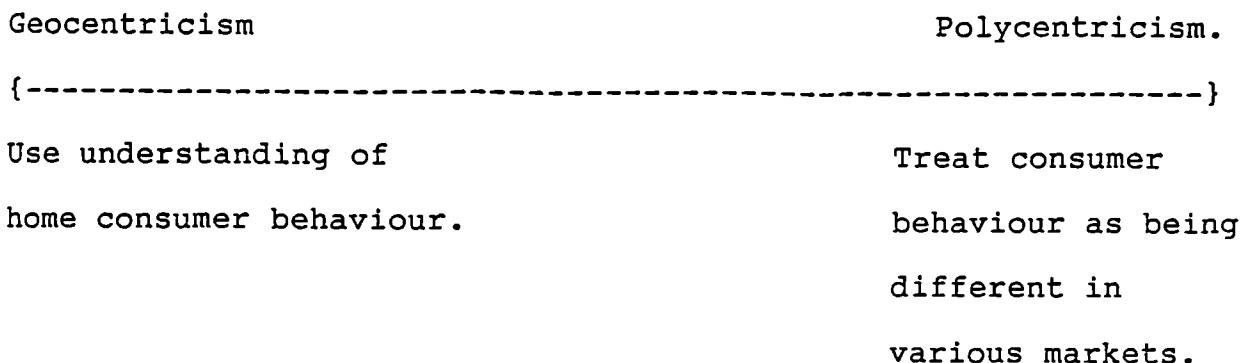
Holmes [1985], writing on global marketing, suggests an appropriate approach based on the experiences of the companies that have been successful in international marketing.

> " The optimum approach is a balanced one; standardize as many parts as you can, but be prepared to adjust to local conditions in a creative and imaginative way if necessary [p.5].

A similar recommendation is made by Triandis [1971] in his work on consumer behaviour, that:

> " people utilize a number of judgement continua that are related to each other in roughly comparable ways across cultures...[and that] people from different cultures combine stimuli to make complex judgements in roughly similar ways. On the other hand they utilize

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different weights for various characteristics"[p.40].

It is argued that it is these differences in weights which reflect the impact of culture and other country specific variables, causing differences in consumer behaviour. On the other hand, this approach to international consumer behaviour accepts the basic drives and psychological processes within markets as universal. It also allows for behavioural variations. due to differences in the environmental variables such as culture, economic and technological influences present in the less developed countries [Wind and Douglas, 1974].

The task of this resarch is not to advance new theories of consumer behaviour. It seeks to explore and enrich the existing consumer behaviour constructs so that they can be used in different environments. The contribution this would make to the current body of knowledge is substantial because to date, most conceptual frameworks in consumer behaviour developed so far can be invalidated as they tend to be "culture specific" [Engel, Kollat and Blackwell,1978]. Such a realisation led Boddewyn [1981] to refer to the consumer behaviour models as " limited generalizations found among particular countries only"[Boddewyn, 1966, 1969].

This study could therefore be considered as an initial attempt at developing an explicit model for the description, explanation and possibly prediction of consumer brand loyalty behaviour in the Less Developed Countries. The need for explicit models rather than implicit models is that the latter tend to be based on past experience and personal beliefs and feelings [Pindyck and Rubenfield, 1976; and Daubek, 1981]. The advantage here is is that " the explicit models can be fit to empirical data tested and tested"[Pindyck and Rubenfield, 1976].

If this task is accomplished it would enable the establishment of functional relationships between some consumer behaviour phenomenon [brand loyalty] and variables like consumer characteristics, social and .market structure variables. As Engel and Blackwell [1982] concluded that what was needed:

> " is a model [or a set of models] that starts with the determinants of brand loyalty and then attempts to relate these determinants to a valid measure of brand loyalty"[p.59].

Once this is done it would greatly assist marketing managers in in deducing normative decision rules to develop appropriate marketing and advertising strategies [Daubek, 1981] when marketing in the LDC markets. The rationale here is that the marketing manager cannot arrive at a marketing strategy without understanding consumer behaviour [Howard and Ostlund, 1973]. This point stimulated interest in understanding consumer behaviour in the Less Developed Countries by empirically examining the existence of brand loyalty behaviour.

Objectives and Scope of the Research.

The construct brand loyalty has been described by Daubek [1981] as an input to, or an influence on, the purchase decision process and as a post purchase construct. If this construct is viewed in this manner it can be suggested that efforts aimed at building brand loyalty for a company's products would be an effective marketing strategy in the Less Developed Countries. Building this brand loyalty could be achieved by;

a. Making occassional purchasers into repeat purchasers of its own brand.

b. increasing the amount bought by the repeat purchasers.

c. Attracting consumers of competing brands to own brand.

d. Maintaining high level of loyalty of repeat purchases [Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978].

The importance of looking at brand loyalty as an input construct in the routinized response behaviour process has been stressed by Jacoby and Chestnut [1978]. These can be briefly reviewed: Firstly, Fox and Wheatley [1978] and Jacoby and Chestnut [1978] considered loyal consumer behaviour to be the ultimate goal for marketers. However, this should not be taken to mean that a high degree of brand loyalty would lead to a high market share. Support for this is found in the studies of Johnston [1982], who discovered that Right Guard which was the brand leader in the deodorants market had a loyalty rating of 25% while Mitchum, a much smaller brand ranked first in loyalty with a ranking of 59%. The same kind of results were observed in the cigarette market . Though this suggests that market share in itself does not directly lead to profitability, Johnston [1982] argues that differentiated brands enjoyed more intense loyalty from consumers implying that brand loyalty as a goal is better for segmented than mainstream marketing.

Conversely, the work by Raj [1985] on the brand user share loyalty relationship using data from the Target Group Index Report concluded that :

" larger brands with a large share of users have a proportionately high fraction of loyal buyers. Brands that seek to improve their marketing positions have to be successful, both in terms of getting brand users and in developing their loyalty. The relationship that has been established is the norm for brand behaviour in the market".

Further, Markin [1977] believes that marketing activities are directed towards modifying customer loyalties, while, St. Marie and Sturdivant [1977]; Pickle, Abrahams and Porter [1970], hold that buyer loyalty is important because it is considered to be closely related to profits, and it is profits which most firms try to maximize. The connection here is that repeat purchase behaviour results in increased sales revenue for a company.

While this indicates the importance of studying brand loyalty as a construct under routinized purchase behaviour, very little is known about brand loyalty in the Less Developed Countries, and even in the developed countries the studies on the correlates of brand loyalty remain largely inconclusive [Engel and Blackwell, 1982]. However, a few scattered papers suggest that brand loyalty exists in the Less Developed Countries. For example Waruingi [1981] sought to describe information seeking, shopping and complaining behaviour of consumers in Kenya. He collected this information from 205 consumers, 130 retailers and 50 executives in manufacturing firms in Nairobi, Kenya. One of his findings was that brand reputation was a very important buying criterion used by Kenyan consumers. This view is supported by Omana [1965] and Simon-Miller [1984] who suggested that if the product is priced within the means of the consumer, there tends to be very high brand loyalty. The observations from the exploratory study in England and Scotland among managers also supports the above statements. This evidence led to the overall major hypothesis [which will be discussed later] that the nature of the consumer characteristics, the social and family influences and the market structure variables will influence the behaviour of consumers in the Less Developed Countries.

The overall objective of the study is hence to build a brand loyalty model for the frequently purchased products in the Less Developed Countries. Firstly, the study will seek to establish the existence of the construct and secondly relate it to a few contributory factors. The significance of establishing brand loyalty in the Less Developed Countries is that it proves that brand choice behaviour exists in these countries, hence suggesting the transferability of consumer behaviour concepts from the Developed Countries to the Less Developed Countries where seller loyalty has been shown to be most important [Savitt, 1973]. This overall objective meets the requirements of symmetry which stipulates that the alternative outcomes of the research should have a similar value. This indicates that whether brand loyalty is found to exist or not , the study would still be of value as the factors that hinder its existence would be revealed.

The second objective of the research is to provide marketing managers in Less Developed Countries and Developed Countries with a magnitude ranking of the variables important in developing appropriate marketing and advertising strategies. This is important as marketing is considered useless in an economy of shortages. The results of the brand loyalty models should also provide very useful information from which segments of loyal consumers may be identified as well as the factors important in the building of brand images. These influential or mediating variables in the routinized response behaviour framework would assist in developing advertising strategies in the Less Developed Countries. The information may also suggest differences that would have to be taken into account when attempting to adapt the Western models to consumer behaviour in the Less Developed Countries.

Thirdly, it is hoped that the information gathered will enable the nature of brand loyalty to be evaluated rather than merely providing the correlates of reported behaviour. This entails a typology of brand loyalty. Engel [1963] suggested a typology which distinguishes brand loyalty caused by inertia, psychological commitment and marketer strategies. Such a typology would be very important in the Less Developed Countries as the marketing and advertising strategies can be deduced from this. For example, in Engels typology, brand loyalty caused by inertia results from efforts to reduce perceived risks and / or costs associated with the purchase situation [time, energy and psychological costs]. On the other hand brand loyalty caused by psychological commitment would reflect the influence of ego involvement, reference group influence or dissonance reducing strategies, while brand loyalty caused by marketing strategies is dictated by the availability of brands advertising [Engel and Blackwell, 1984]. Such a typology in the Less Developed Countries would reveal the marketing programming necessary and appropriate in the Less Developed Countries.

The fourth objective of the study is to demonstrate the use of the logit model in establishing a functional relationship between brand loyalty and a large number of explanatory variables. It will also use a revolutionary methodology of measuring brand loyalty from reported purchase behaviour, as distinct from the use of purchase diaries. Ehrenberg calls this methodology the "Dip - stick measure" and it has been reported to have yielded comparable results to diary data by Stanton and Tucci [1982], Blattberg and Golanty [1978] and Raj [1985]. This should be a notable contribution to knowledge because panel data is not usually available in Less Developed Countries due to the under-development of the marketing infrastructure.

Finally, the output from the logit models should provide information on transitional probabilities which can be used in typical Markov -Chain models. To the marketing strategist the transitional matrix represents brand swiching behaviour and :

> " conceptually, the optimum level of promotional
> effort can be determined by relating changes in
> transitional changes in transitional probabilities
> to the investment required to bring about the
> changes "[Engel and Blackwell, 1982;p585].

As a model it may also be possible to predict the probability of of the existence of brand loyalty within a particular product class given contingent situations of the explanatory variables. Above all, the study should provide basic knowledge of the behaviour of consumers in Less Developed Countries, and enable managers to develop marketing and advertising startegies which are effective and appropriate to the LDC environments and conditions.

Research Context.

The research context describes the important parameters that define the environment in which the research will be conducted. Discussing these parameters is important because it further highlights the area of inquiry. The orientation will be to discuss the manner in which the various elements of the 4 P's are exchanged in the Less Developed Countries.

In pointing out the need for international consumer research for companies that are interested in Less Developed Countries, Wind and Douglas [1974] stress the need to base marketing strategies on investigations of consumer needs and interests as a basic requirement of the marketing concept. The marketing concept is here defined as:

"   A   managerial   philosophy   concerned   with
mobilization, utilization, and control of total
corporate effort for the purpose of helping
customers solve problems in ways compatible with
planned enhancement of the profit position of the
firm" [Schwartz, 1965].

This definition implies that there is a company wide managerial

awareness that the consumers position is related to the firm's

existence, growth and stability. As Drucker noted,

".... business enterprise is an organ of society;
thus its basic purpose lies outside the business
itself.   And the valid definition of business is
the creation of customers".

Secondly, the definition also indicates an awareness that

actions of one department will have implications for the actions

of other departments: because a firm is viewed as a network of

forces focused on meeting defined consumer needs. It is

inevitable that decisions taken in one section may result in a

significant repercussions in other areas of the firm. [

interested readers are referred to Schwartz, 1965 for a detailed

explanation of the implication of the marketing concept].

It is from such an understanding of the marketing concept that

Enis [1968] concludes that the concept requires the exchange of

the 4 P's to consummate an exchange. This would mean that if

one of the 4 P's is not exchanged in a mutually equitable

manner, conflict is bound to arise in the exchange relationship.

It would therefore seem important to look at the consumer

behaviour construct of brand loyalty within the parameters that

define exchanges in the Less Developed Countries. This is

important because the construct of brand loyalty, previously

mentioned, may be regarded as an outcome of the decision process

[Daubek, 1981]. In this case it would seem to reflect the

outcomes of the interctions that take place between the

manufacturers and the consumers. This would suggest that if the

supplier of frequently purchased products is aiming at increasing repeat purchase, or influencing customers to routinize their decision process, the best way to achieve this is to done is to be market oriented. This would seem verifiable for if the needs of the consumers are met and the objectives of the company achieved, then repeat sales are expected from the resultant consumer loyalties as guaranteed satisfaction from purchases have a tendency to enhance loyalty [Daubek, 1981, Engel and Blackwell, 1982].

If the connection between brand loyalty and the marketing concept is accepted, the relevance of brand loyalty might be questioned, given that the marketing concept does not seem applicable in the Less Developed Countries where product scarcities exist. This question is posed because the marketing concept has been suggested to be most useful during economic prosperity where competition is fierce and where product proliferation exists. Under such conditions, to remain competitive and profitable the marketing concept is regarded as a profit potential based on the important premise of customer satisfaction [Blankenship and Holmes, 1974]. Thus, while a buyers market exists in the Developed Countries [caveat vendor], in the Less Developed Countries where shortages exist the market reverts to being a sellers market [caveat emptor] [Kaynak, 1983; Nwokoye, 1983]. Under such conditions the exchange relationships between the two organized behavioral systems of households and suppliers become lopsided as the

consumers become over dependent on suppliers simply because demand exceeds supply. This condition has led many marketing managers in Less Developed Countries and Developed Countries to ignore the importance of understanding consumer behaviour [Nwokoye, 1983]. Hence the marketing concept is not regarded as

being important in these countries. However, it could be argued that there will be a time when the market structural problems will be resolved and then the satisfaction of consumer needs will become important in the Less Developed Countries. Though this posits a long term interpretation to justify the use of the concept. Kotler [1976] seems to support this view as he suggest that it would be myopic to limit the view of marketing to that of stimulating demand for the company's products. He suggests that marketing management should be looked at as:

> " the task of regulating the level of, timing and
> character of demamd in a way that will help the
> organization achieve its objectives" [p.8].

Using Kotler's model [1976] of the marketing tasks given different levels of demand , it could be suggested that the tasks in the Less Developed Countries should be one of reducing demand: demarketing as the level of demand is over the supply of goods.

Precisely because the background conditions do not suit the ready application of the marketing concept makes the study of consumer behaviour in the Less Developed Countries interesting. These differences in conditions between the Developed Countries and the Less Developed Countries have a signifuicant influence on the behaviour of consumers in the Less Developed Countries, and be instrumental in determining the nature of routinized response behaviour necessary for brand loyalty in the Less Developed Countries. For example, the lack of choice caused by shortages could suggest that the traditional models of consumer behaviour are unusable as they are based on brand choice behaviour. The research context in which this study was conducted is discussed in this section.

Kaynak [1983] noted the low discretionary buying power in the Less Developed Countries. He explained this as being caused by the high rate of inflation in these countries. For example, in Zambia , inflation is reported to have been fueled by the:

> " substantial reduction in subsidies, the decontrol of the pricing system, devaluation and the subsquent floating of the kwacha and the increase in the rate of excise duties" [CSO , 1984; p30].

In the same report, for the low income group, prices on furniture and household goods rose by more than 200% between 1975 and 1982. This is further exacerbated by the pressure IMF is putting on the Zambian government to devalue or to auction the American dollar in attempts to solve the country's foreign exchange problems.

The impact of these foreign exchange problems is that initially they lead to production cut-backs as most raw materials have to be imported. In the manufacture of vegetable oil, all the chemicals used in the production process were imported [Bbenkele, 1982]. Furthermore, as the consequent redundancies are made in industry, the result is a reduction in the disposable incomes of consumers [Papadopoulos, 1983]. Further, foreign exchange shortages would inevitably lead to a reduction in the brand alternatives available to consumers and at worst product shortages. More significantly, the product shortages provide a very important parameter, influencing the elements of marketing that are exchanged. Consequently, product shortages entail changes in the nature of the market, product, prices and promotion [Blankenship and Holmes, 1974]. It could also be argued that the product shortages would have a significant influence on the existence of brand loyalty in the Less Developed Countries. This possible influence is discussed below.

Firstly, Blankenship and Holmes [1974] suggest that with product shortages the nature of the market would change: there would be a significant reduction in the amount of items purchased to reflect the hand - to - mouth buying practices. The purchase patterns are also bound to change as the consumers desert certain products , and usage rates are also bound to differ as product lives are extended . At the aggregate level such conditions would lead to very few companies competing, resulting in the concentration of power in a few companies and consequently reducing the variety of brands on the market. The few number of brands on the market would tend to reduce the number of brands in the consumers evoked set. As such, one would expect consumers to show preference possibly resulting in brand loyalty, though the lack of attitudinal commitment tends to make this brand loyalty weak. In addition to this reduced number of brands available on the market Brown et al [1977] suggest that consumers will hoard in anticipation of shortages. This is a self-destructive practice as it has the tendency of making the consumers buy sooner as a safeguard against unseen market consequences [Gelb, 1975]. The existence of hoarding behaviour could imply that any brand that is available is purchased resulting in brand switching behaviour.

The possibility of "hedging" behaviour leading to brand switching activity is supported by Plotking and Gelb [1975]. They argue that if hoarding drives prices high or depletes supplies, brand loyalty or brand insistence would be insignificant. They empirically tested this proposition by investigating how consumers behaved when prices increased as a result of shortages. They found out that the loyal brand users were forced to buy competitors brands just to have the goods.

The study was extended by Blankenship and Holmes [1977] to further find out who hoards and most important why? Their results confirmed the findings of Plotking and Holmes [1975] who stated that consumers will hoard in the face of anticipated increase in prices. Additionally, they discovered that young people were more prone to change their typical buying patterns and that income and occupation did not seem to affect hoarding. However, this last finding in particlar reflects the conditions of high income levels in the Developed Countries. In the Less Developed Countries it could be argued that occupation and income would affect hoarding behaviour.

The second effect of shortages is on the products being exchanged. Under shortage situations the balance of power in the market lies with the producers, and inferior products are made just to keep plants in operation [Gelb, 1975]. The consequence of this is that the many brands that once existed are no longer produced. This has the obvious result of reducing the number of brand alternatives in the evoked set. This would in turn suggest that for the frequently purchased products , the information search would be reduced, and the decision process as a whole simplified by routinizing it. Whether brand loyalty would be fostered or inhibited by the small number of brands on the market is a proposition that will be empirically tested in this study.

Thirdly, the law of supply and demand stipulates that the prices of products would go up under shortages because by definition demand is higher than supply ceteris paribus. Though :

> "these price increases may increase short term profitability, they also fuel inflation, contribute to the reduction of a markets buying power and may be detrimental to the long term interests of business"[Papadoupolos, 1982; p. 171].

Kotler and Levy [1971] further suggest that there is a danger in over-emphasizing price as this results in under-utilisation of the other elements of the marketing mix which would otherwise have yielded superior overall results for the firm. Insistence on price can result in the consumers receiving a smaller quantity and inferior product for her/his small budget. The implications of this might be that, because consumers have limited discretionary income because of inflation, they might develop choice tactics of buying the cheapest brand . On the other hand, a plausible proposition could be that the reduced discretionary incomes would result in consumers going for the same brand in repeat purchases as a way of reducing the risk of buying a product that might not work. With low income households, the marginal utility of income is always very high , making the purchase of a product that does not meet the requirement have very undesirable consequences.

Finally, scarcities have a negative effect on promotion because when demand is seen to be higher than supply, marketers may see no need for promotion as a sellers market exists [Kaynak, 1982]. Under such conditions the temptation for many marketing managers is to let the product sell itself and there is hence no need for advertising. This is supported by evidence from the statement by Kaynak and Mitchell [1984] that in Turkish companies the advertising copy does not tell the " people what the product costs, where they can be obtained, what the consumer is to do with them or what their quality is"[p.196]. The reason for this, as Kaynak [1981] would seem to suggest, is that Turkey is still in the production stage and hence the demand for consumer and industrial products exceeds the total supply. This typifies the condition in most Less Developed Countries.

Overall, it can therefore be seen that because of product shortages, a challenging environment is created in Less Developed Countries within which consumer behaviour will be studied. As mentioned, this environment tends to de-emphasize consumer orientation leaving the consumers at the mercy of the greedy and unscrupulous businessmen who make exorbitant windfalls. As a result consumer welfare suffers. This situation is an important research context because it tends to be self-reinforcing as the companies would be forced to succumb to the scarcity environment and remain predominantly production oriented. On the other hand the consumers will become self destructive as shortages lead them to hoard [creating further shortages] [Gelb, 1975]. Amid these products shortages , an important observation can be made and this forms the fundamantal theme of the thesis. The proposition is that marketers in the Less Developed Countries should safeguard consumer loyalty, as it is highly unlikely that consumers will patronize firms which do not meet their needs as long as they have the opportunity to purchase from a competitor who will. Cannon [1984] concludes that being market oriented:

> " enables the company to get the best from the limited resources it can invest in particular areas, while ensuring that it provides a consistent and coherent image to customers"[p.40].

It is argued in this thesis that the marketing concept should be viewed by managers as a philosophy for ensuring as well as perpetuating their interests in the long run. How this is possible in an economy of shortages, is explored in this study by investigating the nature and the factors that are related to

brand loyalty in the Less Developed Countries.

Summary.

This chapter outlines the research problem, research objectives
and the context of the study. First, the study uses the
exchange notion to define marketing. Though it is seen that
marketing is a phenomenon that also exists in the Less Developed
Countries, it is concluded that little has been researched on
marketing in the Less Developed Countries. Specifically, the
chapter points to the gap in vital consumer knowledge in the
Less Developed Countries, despite its importance in designing
effective marketing and advertising strategies. This lack of
empirical research has been attributed to the smallness of the
LDC markets, making marketing investments seem unprofitable, as
well as the existence of shortages in these markets and the
orientation of managers in understanding the international
consumer.

Given this broad problem, a logical objective is to conduct
empirical research which would provide knowledge of the LDC
consumer for frequently purchased products. This will be
accomplished by building a brand loyalty model which starts by
exploring the existence of the concept and then investigates the
determinants of brand loyalty in the Less Developed Countries.

The above objectives require to be achieved in an environment
which does not favour the adoption of the marketing concept.
The product shortages that exist in the LDCs are seen to affect
the marketing elements that are used to manipulate the desired
market responses [behaviour]. This forms an interesting and
challenging framework because it can equally be argued that
shortages would lead to brand switching or conversely to brand

loyalty. It is within this broad researchframework that brand loyalty will be studied in Zambia. The following chapter discusses in detail the Zambian economic, cultural, social political and technological environment.

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CHAPTER TWO.

THE MACRO-ENVIRONMENTAL VARIABLES AND THE MARKETING SYSTEM IN ZAMBIA.

AIM OF THE CHAPTER.

The aim of the chapter is to provide information on the Zambian environment in which the behavioral construct will be studied. These external forces [culture, economy, politics and technology] are important as they shape opportunities, pose threats to the succesful functioning of the firm and influence the nature of consumer behaviour. The first half of the chapter therefore looks at the macro - environmental variables in Zambia. The second half examines the task environment of companies in Zambia and emphasis is placed on describing the nature of the marketing environment. This should provide an understanding of the development of the marketing system and its impact on marketing and consumer behaviour.

Wherever possible the implications of the Zambian macro-environment and the marketing system on marketing and consumer behaviour will be considered.

Macro - Environmental Variables.

In the whole of independent Africa, Bates [1976] describes Zambia as one of the countries which has experienced the most rapid, precipitate and comprehensive change over a short period of time. Less than a century ago the country was largely agrarian, but at present it is dependent on large scale industry.

The country is landlocked in Central Africa with Zaire and Tanzania in the north; Malawi and Mozambique in the east; Zimbambwe and Botswana in the south ; Namibia in the southwest and Angola in the west. This position has not been very helpful in terms of access to the ports. The total area covered by the country is 753,000 square kilometers (roughly six times the size of England).

Zambia lies on the great African plateau with an average altitude ranging from 1,000 to 1,300 meters. This gives the country a tropical climate with warm and wet summers and cool and dry winters.

Demography.

Demography is useful in marketing as it describes one of the elements of a market, people. For effective marketing, changes in this variable are usually monitored because they might suggest changes in the marketing programme.

Population: Compared to other African countries Zambia's population is very small. In the last census in 1980 the population was 5.68 million, currently it is estimated at 6.4 million. However with one of the highest growth rates in the world of 3.1% , Ohadike (1981) points out that this is high enough to ensure a rapid replacement of the population over a short period of time: the population has been estimated to double by the year 1990 (CSO, 1984).

This is more than likely for the following reasons; firstly, more women will reach the child bearing age in the late 80's and 90's; secondly, the infant mortality rate will keep on falling due to improved health standards; thirdly, the Zambian culture encourages large families and finally, the government policies on tax allowances tend to be pronatalistic. This suggests that there will be more mouths to feed, and as a consequence reduced discretionary income.

Population Density and Distribution: Marketers place great importance on population density and distribution as these are directly related to distribution and communication. Ceteris paribus, a marketer would prefer to operate in a market with concentrated population as this facilitates the task of communication and reaching the market. On the other hand operating in a market in which the population is scattered, involves having to deal with people portraying different behaviour tendencies.

Zambia is very sparsely populated despite the 100,000 square miles which is inhabitable because of the deadly tsetse fly which transmits trypanosomiasis to man (Hall, 1965). The average population density is 7.5 persons per square kilometer. These figures are however as low as 2% in some rural areas [where soils, uncertain rainfall and tsetse fly poses a threat] and 39.9% persons per square kilometer in the urban areas. Table 2.A below gives the population distribution by province.

However, between the rural and the urban areas there is a 60 - 40% distribution in population. Since independence , there has been rural migration mainly from the Northern, Eastern and Luapula provinces, to the Copperbelt and Lusaka provinces. This indicates that the urban areas will remain the main markets for consumer products while the rural areas will remain neglected.

Sex and Age Distribution: From the 1980 census figures there were 2.7 million males to 2.8 million females. Due to the rural - urban migration there has tended to be a disproportionately higher number of females in the rural areas as the young males usually leave their wives in search of jobs in the urban areas:

> " female headed households in the rural areas are
> quite prevalent, and the work load of rural women
> with husbands or relatives has increased
> dramatically while their ability to feed their
> families adequately has been affected by the
> shortage of male labour" (CSO,1984).

The age distribution of Zambia is very unfavourable for a lucrative market as there is a high dependency ratio. In 1980 the total population of children under the age of 15 years was 46% of the total population and 2% of people over the age of 65

Table 2.A : Population distribution by province, 1980.

Province	Population (000)	Area KM SQ. (000)	Population density /KM sq.
Central	514	94	5.4
Copperbelt	1249	31	39.9
Eastern	656	69	9.5
Luapula	613	51	8.2
Lusaka	694	22	31.7
Northern	678	148	4.6
N.Western	302	126	2.6
Southern	686	85	8.0
Western	488	126	3.9
Total	5680	753	7.5

Source: CSO, 1980 Census of population and Housing ; A Preliminary Report.

years. This gives a dependency ratio of 94 dependents to every 100 productive adults.

The consequence of this high ratio is the reduction of domestic investment, and the diversion of national income from savings to consumption. The high dependency ratio also suggests that few people have effective purchasing power.

The Economic Environment.

The Rostow model of stages in economic development can be used to explain the interrelationship between marketing and economic development. Rostow (1960) argued that each country is in or passing through, one of the five stages of economic development. Terpstra (1983) and others like Kaynak (1982) have argued that each level of economic development would represent a different type of economy with differing production and marketing systems. Understanding the economic environment is therefore critical to this study, as it forms one of the main parameters.

Economic System.

Daniels et al (1982) point out that the economic system of a country mainly concerns itself with :

> " allocating scarce resources among competing users and involves two important matters; the control and coordination of resources and the ownership of property" [p.47].

The Zambian economy can best be described as a mixed dual economy. This suggests that considerable government participation is present in the running of industries, and that a modern urban economy and a poor rural economy also exist.

The existence of the urban economy led the government in 1968, 1969 and 1970 to institute measures designed to stop the economy from developing in a capitalistic manner. Under these measures, the government acquired 51% of the controlling interest in 25 companies. Consequently, a large part of the national marketing system came under the control of the government.

However, the government was quick to realise the shortcomings of this policy. As a result, in 1977 the Industrial Development Act 1977 was introduced with the sole purpose of encouraging private investment in the rural areas: an open indication of a mixed economy. The aim of the Act was to improve the standard of living , bridging the gap between urban and rural areas and diversification of the economy. However, most of these objectives were not met due to lack of commitment by the government. Instead of working towards these objectives, the government instituted short term measures such as subsidizing imported agricultural products and domestic food prices (discouraging domestic agricultural production), and holding the cost of capital at low levels while wages increased, (leading to capital intensive industries) thereby reducing employment opportunities.

The adverse effects of such policies had no immediate impact on the economy as the earnings from copper in this period were very favourable. In the late 70's, the fluctuations in the copper prices started affecting the country's foreign exchange reserves, and as a consequence foreign exchange regulations were tightened and the kwacha was constantly devalued. As a result of these persistent problems, the country has been forced to adopt economic policies aimed at economic survival rather than development. The performance of the various sectors clearly indicates the economic problems faced by the country.

Economic Activity.

Overall the economy can be divided into three sectors; the primary, secondary, and tertiary sectors. The contribution of each of these sectors to the gross domestic product is shown in Table 2.B.

From this table the primary sector which includes mining and agriculture contributed 43% of GDP in 1983, of which 20% was from mining.

Primary Sector.

Mining: The mining industry provides 95% of the country's

Table 2.B: GDP at 1970 Constant Prices by Sectors (K Million).

	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
Primary	551[40%]	565[40%]	613[41%]	592[41%]	642[43%]
Secondary	313[23%]	327[23%]	332[22%]	335[23%]	328[22%]
Tertiary	501[37%]	518[37%]	528[36%]	520[36%]	502[36%]
other	5[0%]	8[0%]	11[0%]	6[0%]	5[0%]
Total GDP	1370	1418	1484	1454	1477

Source: CSO (1984), Lusaka.

foreign exchange earnings and provides 16% of employment in the formal sector. The contribution of the industry to GDP has however been decreasing since 1974 (32%) to as low as 15% in 1983 [Mwananshiku,1984]. This is said to be due to the depressed copper prices, a decline in the grade of ores, rising production costs due to strikes and falling productivity due to lack of capital investment. As a counter-measure, the government has merged the Roan Consolidated Mines and the Nchanga Consolidated Copper Mines to form the 60% state owned Zambia Consolidated Copper Mines [one of the largest copper conglomerates in the world].

In addition to copper, the country also mines cobalt,lead, zinc and other minerals such as silver, emeralds, and gold while prospecting for uranium is underway.

Agriculture: In the face of declining copper prices, agriculture has occupied a prominent role in the economy of the country. In the Third National Development Plan which covered the period 1979 to 1983,one stated objective was:
^spacing 1

>".. to diversify the economic structure in order
>to reduce the country's dependence on copper and
>to undertake a crash programme for promoting
>agriculture...' [CSO, 1984;p.19].

Of the 60% of the population in the rural areas about two thirds are engaged in agriculture. In 1978 there were 722,000 non-commercial farm households and 1,600 commercial farmers.

In 1984 this sector contributed 15% to GDP but failed to provide enough to feed the population of the country. Problems encountered included the availability and distribution of credit, fertilizers and capital inputs, and the government policy of agricultural imports and output subsidies.

Secondary Sector.

This sector is composed of manufacturing, electricity, and construction. In 1984 it contributed 25% of real GDP of which 21% was from manufacturing. The sector employs about 12% of the total labour force. This figure is currently much lower as the industry depends to a large degree on imported raw materials. Amid foreign exchange problems, there have been numerous production cut backs, at times operating as low as 20% of production capacity. This has inevitably resulted in massive layoffs and frequent product shortages [Lloyds Bank,1983].

The construction industry has been one of the contributing factors in the development of the country. Though it employs about 19% of the total labour force this industry has enjoyed no exemption exception from the impact of foreign exchange shortages.

The country is self-sufficient in the production of electricity both for domestic and the commercial requirements. However, even though this is the case, electrification is restricted to

the 80 kilometer zone along the line of rail leaving the rural areas unconnected. This is due in part to the low incomes in these areas, the lack of permanence in settlements and lack of transformers.

Tertiary Sector.

This sector includes trade and hotels, transport and communication, finance and real estate and community and personal services. The contribution to GDP in 1984 was 22% with community and personal services claiming a larger share.

Employment, Incomes and Prices.

A market does not only consist of people, for there is additional requirement that the people must have money to effect exchanges. These three factors , that is, employment, income and prices which are related to purchasing power will be discussed below.

Employment: During the first decade of independence, employment in Zambia increased faster than any other African country. This could be largely attributed to the overall rapid growth of the economy. However, at present the formal sector wage jobs have not kept pace with the rapid increase in the labour force. [see Table 2.C below].

Table 2.C. Labour force.

Year	Population 15yrs and over [000]	Labour force [000]	percent employed.
1969	2179	1221	56
1974	2546	1430	56
1980	3038	1761	58
1982	3190	1880	59

Source; CSO [1984 ;p31]

This low level of eligible labour participation is further exacerbated by the rural- urban migration and the excessive number of school leavers chasing too few jobs. In the rural areas the labour force dropped from 70% to 59%, while the urban areas registered an increase to 40% from the previous 30%. This supports the earlier contention that the urban areas will become the primary markets for most consumer products.

Incomes and Prices: The average annual earnings of Zambian workers showed an increase of 32% from 1977 to 1980 [K1657 to K2194]. In the same period the average non Zambian earnings increased by 40% [K6122 to K8655]. In the formal sector the average annual wages range from K995 [Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing] to K2935 in the mining industry.

Though a 32% wage increase was reported from 1977 to 1980, during this period inflation increased by 14%, suggesting a decrease in real wages. This could not be countered by a wage increase as in 1983 the International Monetary Fund imposed a maximum wage rise of 10% as a loan accord. In addition to this, food subsidies were removed, prices were decontrolled and the kwacha devalued on several occassions. Altogether, this resulted in the clothing and food price index for the lower income group to rise by 200% between 1975 and 1982.

The implication here is of a continuous reduction in consumer welfare as wages cannot match the increase in prices. The most affected however are the "lumpen proletariats" who are living below minimum levels of subsistence. The average income levels for the rural areas was K80 [$8] and K104 [$11] for the urban areas [CSO, 1984]. Purchasing power is therefore very low in the country and this suggests intense competition for the limited consumer spending.

The Cultural Environment.

The cultural environment provides another very important parameter as culture may inhibit the marketing process [for example products and communication have to be sensitive and compatible to the cultural dimensions]. This is supported by Kahler and Kramer (1977) in their observation that:

> "Markets consist of people who are influenced by social norms. As a member of society, consumers responses to marketing efforts reflects traditions, customs and mores of their society".

This suggests that countries with different cultures would display different behaviour patterns, reflecting the manner in which the members adapt to their environments by developing practices to solve everyday consumption and production problems. This implies that to use models of consumer behaviour developed in the western countries to interpret behaviour in the non-western countries is seriously flawed [as it assumes that culture is the same]. The misattribution of western behavioural norms to other societies and a lack of sensitivity toward,ans apreciation of alternative norms, is a danger Klein [1985] indentifies with cross-cultural research. eain [1984] discusses the importance of culture in determining consumer behaviour by pointing out that:

> " A marketing oriented firm should make decisions
> based on consumer perspectives. Customers actions
> are shaped by their lifestyles and behavior
> patterns as they stem from their society's
> culture. Thus the product that a person buys, the
> attributes she values.... are all culture based
> choices" [p.197].

The influence of culture a consumer finds himself on marketing is depicted in Figure 2.A. [below]. In this figure culture is seen to have an immediate impact on the consumer's behavioural pattern and his life-style. These are manifested as action tendencies by consumers on the market and the consequence is a reaction of companies in terms of the marketing decisions made.

However, culture is a concept that has been defined variously by different writers. In this study a simple definition by Hobel (1971) is used . Hobel defined culture as the " Sum total of learned behavior traits which are manifest and shared by members

Figure 2.A: Culture and Its Impact on Marketing.

```
                    ┌──────────────┐
                    │ Customer's   │
                    │ Culture.     │
                    └──────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
      ┌────────────────────┴────────────────────┐
      ▼                                          ▼
┌──────────────┐                         ┌──────────────────┐
│ Life style   │                         │ Behaviour pattern│
└──────────────┘                         └──────────────────┘
      │                                          │
      └────────────────────┬────────────────────┘
                           ▼
                  ┌──────────────────┐
                  │ Actions in the   │
                  │ Market place.    │
                  └──────────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
                  ┌──────────────────┐
                  │ Impact on firms  │
                  │ Marketing decisions │
                  └──────────────────┘
```
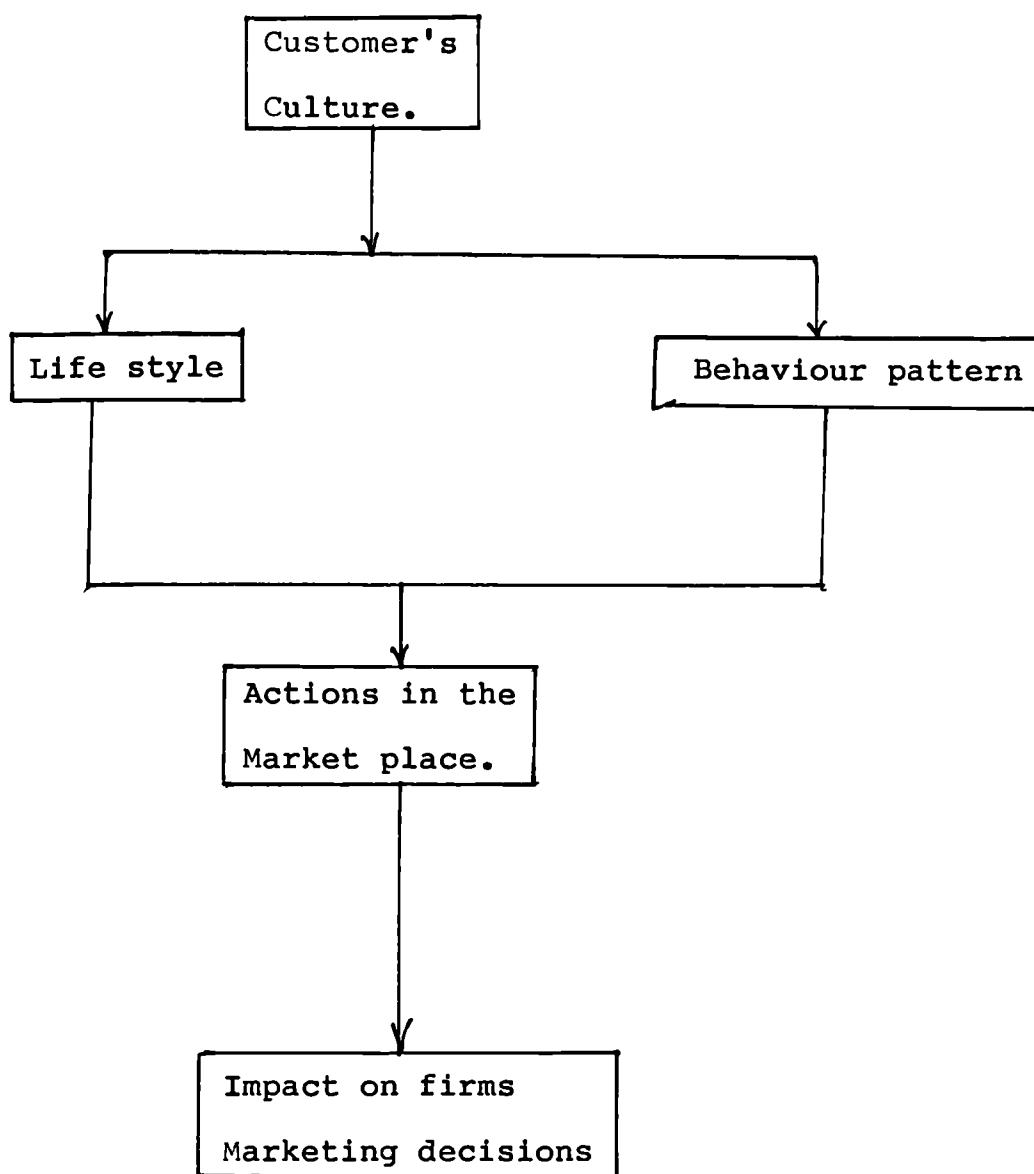
Source: Jain (1984;p197).

of a society". This definition implies that culture is;

a) Learned and not biologically transmitted

b) Passed from one generation to the other

c) Social in nature and consists of habits formed
in relationship with others

d) Satisfies some basic or secondary need

e) Dynamic

However,to describe what can be referred to as Zambian culture is difficult as there are heterogeneous groupings based on tribe, age group, or locality (urban or rural) . Each of these groupings portray distinct behaviour patterns and can be treated as distinct subcultures hence making it difficult to talk of a common Zambian culture.

This study uses the approaches adopted by Terpstra (1983) and Kahler and Kramer (1977) in describing culture. In this approach, culture is divided into two elements, the material and the abstract elements. The material element is usually referred to as the artifacts, techniques , tools and all products made by man. To a large extent this has been covered in the discussion on the economic environment . This section will therefore discuss the abstract elements of culture which include social institutions, ideas, aesthetics and language. However, one drawback is apparent: the shortage of literature on culture in Zambia. As such not all the elements of culture are given the adequate treatment necessary.

Social Institutions.

As an element of culture, social institution refers to the way in which people are grouped together in society and the way in which they relate to one another. These institutions would ordinarily include the family organizations, age groups, sex roles and religious organizations.

Family: Ohadike (1981) identifies eight household types for the rural and the urban areas in Zambia, and these are summarised in the table below.

In Table 2.D single means alone, conjugal means husband and wife, nuclear means conjugal with biological children. Extended means any of the above with at least a consanguinous or affinal relative as a member, and a compound family is taken to mean no relatives but friends living together (Ohadike ,1981). Table 2.D shows that the nuclear family is very common in Zambia contrary to widely held views that the extended families dominate, or that nuclear family is usually associated with urbanization: the rural areas showed to have more nuclear, single and conjugal family types. The opposite of this was also found to be true: Lusaka showed more extended families than the villages. This should not however be translated to mean that Lusaka has more domesticity than the rural areas. This manifestation is merely a reflection of the constraints and problems of urban unemployment and housing.

Table 2.D: Type of Household by Rural and Urban Location and by Social Class of Urban Households.

Types of family household	Urban survey				Rural survey
	Upper class	Middle class	Lower class	Total urban	Survey total
Single	0.4	1.1	2.7	2.9	7.3
Conjungal	2.3	4.6	6.4	5.8	11.8
Nuclear	18.2	29.8	48.6	42.7	55.7
Extended	66.8	58.4	39.8	44.7	25.0
Compound nuclear	8.7	4.1	1.4	2.3	0.0
Compound conjugal	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Compound extended	5.6	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.0
Compound	0.0	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.2

Source: Ohadike (1981; p103).

However it is taken, the implications on consumer behavior are that in urban areas the purchase decisions, their influences, the frequencies of purchases and the quantities purchased would reflect the size of the households, as opposed to what would seem to be individual consumer behaviour in the rural areas . This indicates that social influences on behaviour would be more pronounced in towns than in the rural areas . This is supported by studies which describe the extended family as having social functions of providing mutual protection, psychological support and a form of insurance for its members. Terpstra [1983] points out that the consumption decision would take place in a larger unit and in different ways.

Another interesting observation is that the upper social class households tend to be less single, conjungal, and nuclear than the lower classes. This would suggest that in urban areas a marketer would be more succesful in influencing consumer behaviour by approaching the purchase decision as a household decision, rather than as an individual purchase decision.

Generation Gap: From the discussion on demography, Zambia was described as a young nation with 46% of its population under the age of 15 years. This is reported to be a typical characteristic of the less developed countries [Daniels et al, 1982].

Due to the rapid social change that is taking place in the country, largely due to education and exposure to foreign cultures through travel, magazines and films, it is possible to identify distinct personalities , attitudes and values in different age cohorts. Kaplan (1979) indentifies the differences in traditional values and priorities when he states that:

" the older people in urban areas have closer ties with their homelands and stick to traditional values while the younger generation regard the traditional values as primitive and are happy with urban life".

The implication for consumer behaviour is that each age grouping can be regarded as a distinct market segment requiring different marketing strategies. For example the young people might put emphasis on the social attributes derived from a toothpaste, while the old people might be more concerned about tooth decay and the preventive aspects of the product. This has definite advertising implications. However, Terpstra [1983] has argued that because of extended families, age groupings are of no significance in the less developed countries. Here, family integration exists at all age levels, and there is a preponderant influence by age and seniority, in contrast with the youth motif in the USA.

Religion: The importance of looking at religion is that it provides indications on internal, psychic or mental behavior and this might enable marketers to understand why people behave as they do [Terpstra, 1983]. From a different point of view Engel, Kollat and Blackwell [1984] posit that religion defines

behaviours that are socially approved and provides criteria for evaluating products with some degree of consistency across social groups and between generations.

The Zambian religion is divided between traditional and christian systems of belief with 17% of the population christians while 80% still believe in traditional religion (Kaplan, 1979). These traditional systems are best described as animistic where spirits are worshiped. In these systems it is believed that magic can affect the physical world and whenever cause and effect are not found , magic is attributed to the results [Terpstra, 1983].

The study by Ohadike [1981] showed that there were more christians in rural areas than in the urban areas, there were more religious affiliations in towns, and, very few people reported being traditional believers. Though the protestants were the second largest group it was doubted whether the protestant ethics exist in the way that Max Weber described their emphasis on individualism and action.

With regards to the functions of the churches in the urban areas Jules-Rosette [1977] concluded that the churches in the shanty compounds:

> " represented a conservative reponse to urbanism
> in their efforts to reconstitute sacred ideals of
> the community... They involve direct rejection of
> aspects of tradition and promise the urban dweller
> a brighter life through spiritual salvation"[p.31].

It was also indicated that pragmatic ecumenism of ritual sharing and socioeconomic support was paramount.

The implications for the existence of the traditional system is the inculcation of traditionalism characterized by preference for the status quo and generally a backward-looking society [Terpstra, 1982]. This would suggest the existence of conservatism in consumption tendencies as traditions are protected and change discouraged. This gives a very strong argument that under such conditions the consumption patterns of consumers will be conservative, and suggests that they would buy the familiar product in repeat purchases. Religion also has a tendency to influence consumption patterns: the Seventh Day Adventists do not drink coffee, cocacola, alcohol, smoke or eat pork .

Attitudes and Values: Values and attitudes which are largely dictated by religion, underlie human behaviour and are very important in understanding consumer behaviour in different markets. This is because the attitudes and values in society help its members to determine what is right , what is important and what is desirable [Terpstra, 1983]. It is these differences in attitudes and values between western and non-western cultures that partly contribute to the difference in consumer behaviour.

Literature on these factors in Zambia is very scanty. However, it can be deduced from the large numbers of people still living under the minimum subsistence level that the society is not affluent.

Table 2.E; Goal of Respondents.

Most important hope	Male	Female
Economic	48.6%	42.2%
Religious	9.7	18.7
Personal	7.1	15.0
Family	3.3	13.6
Health and life	2.2	3.3
none	28.8	6.9

Source: Wiley, 1971; p134.

Further, Kaplan [1979] reports the motive for acquisition of wealth as existing in the Zambian society. However, the motivation is not in fact a selfish one as the wealth accumulated by an individual was for the use of the entire lineage.

Finally, Wiley [1971] investigated the dominance of education, occupation, prestige and income in the Zambian society. He presented these economic goals with the other goals like religious, personal, family, and health and life. His results are summarized in Table 2.E above.

Table 2.E suggests an overemphasis on economic and material goods, that is, hopes for money, pay rise, better clothing, better standard of living. While the degree might differ, the economic and material motives seem to be similar between the Less Developed Countries and the Developed Countries.

When age was brought in to shed more light, the following were observed.

Table 2.F: Goals of Respondents by Age.

Age	Economic	Religious	Personal	Family	Health	N
18-29	74	6	13	3	3	69
30-37	81	9	4	4	1	94
38-47	77	9	3	3	0	70
48-88	62	15	15	15	0	34

Source: Wiley,1971; p134.

This table indicates that though the economic motive might be the most important, it tends to decline as one ages. On the other hand the old show more concern for the family and are more concerned about religion. These goals have implications for advertising strategies as they indicate values that are central to various age groups in society.

The fourth aspect of attitude and values in Zambia relates to the predominance of traditionalism especially in the rural areas. In the urban areas there appears to be a significant influence of Western culture, made possible by exposure to foreign magazines, films and people from foreign countries. The existence of traditionalism in the rural areas in Zambia would suggest conservatism and preference for the status quo and adherence to traditional practices and in the ultimate everyday solution of consumption problems. This apprehensive attitude to risk-taking suggests that strategies aimed at risk reduction would be adopted. This study poses that brand loyalty or the familiar brand will be purchased repeatedly to reduce the consequences of buying a product which might not satisfy needs.

Role of Women: The role of women tends to decrease as one goes down the scale of economic development. The status of women in society is important because the extent of participation affects

the womens role as consumers or consumption influencers. The impact of this is seen in the developed countries where the increase in the number of working women has resulted in the emergence of the "new woman", and succesful companies have been quick to capitalize on this.

In Zambia, though slightly higher than other African countries, women assume a moderately active role in society (Ohadike, 1981). Full participation is however inhibited by retrogressive traditional practices, which still tend to relegate the role of women to that of child bearing, food preparation etc, while the men are the bread winners and usually control the money in the house [Kaplan, 1979]. [This is reinforced by evidence from the previous section in which men from the rural areas migrated to the urban areas in search of employment]. The under-privileged position of the women in society is bound to persist because of the conflict between early marriage and long years of formal education, and the tendency of young girls to look after children of working mothers [Kaplan, 1979]. In 1981, of the total number of 7 - 14 year old girls, only 79% were enrolled in school while the enrollment ratio for boys of the same age was 88% [SIDA, 1983].

Although most households are now getting double incomes [urban areas] there still exists a problem as women are expected to be different and as such the men take advantage and retain the discretionary income and spend it themselves.

The significance of this is that the woman becomes more of a purchase influencer than a customer as the husband controls the money in the household. This is despite the fact that women are usually responsible for the purchase of convenience products.

Language: Language is the most obvious cultural element that differs between countries. This difference in language is important in understanding consumer behaviour in any country, because language reflects the nature and value of culture; it is the key to its culture. This is supported by Terpstra [1983] :

> " Learning a language well means learning the culture, because the words of the language are merely concepts reflecting the culture from which it was formed"[p.93].

Zambia has about 80 dialects falling within four major tribal groupings. By implication this means that since language defines culture, Zambia has several subcultures (Kaplan, 1979).

Like most African countries without a lingua franca, English in Zambia is used for business and marketing communications. However, this competes unfavourably as only very few people in the country can speak and /or write English. For example, in a National Radio Audience survey of 1970 - 73, only 27% of Zambians listened to English radio broadcasts and only 26% of this number said they could understand and speak English. The only medium in which a local variation is possible is radio. It would seem that the country insists on English as the official language only because it is neutral and hence minimizes tribal conflicts. It is also the most useful international language,

and the most effective for modern education and development [Terpstra,1983].

Aesthetics: This is an element that is usually forgotten in international marketing until the repercussions of a mistake are felt and yet it is an element which tends to differ so much among cultures. The most relevant for marketing are colour and music.

Terpstra [1983] points out that different cultures have different meanings for colours. This suggests that attention must be paid by marketers to packaging and advertising. In Zambia for example red is not common especially in the rainy season [for superstitious reasons of attracting lightning], and black is associated with death.

Music in the less developed countries is functional [it has a meaning] and is something that is very well understood from an early age. Therefore, to most Zambians, foreign music is mostly entertaining as it differs so much from the traditional music. This has implications on the use of music in commercials, as potential consumers may concentrate solely upon the music. An example of this potential problem is the Pepsi - Cola commercial which uses Lionel Ritchie in the video. To most Zambians this commercial seems to be highly entertaining because of music by Lionel and as a result little attention is given to the advertising message.

Education: Education in this section is looked at from a broad point of view and is seen to represent the skills, ideas and attitudes being transmitted. This includes both formal and informal education which serve as a medium for passing on traditions and culture from one to the other.

Though the present objective of the country is to provide a basic nine years of education, 60% of the population is at present illiterate. This places obvious restrictions on marketing practices. Advertising messages have to be translated in the local languages and package labels and product use information would have to be translated into the numerous local languages. As Terpstra points out:

> " the nature and the quality of the marketing
> support services, such as advertising agencies
> will depend on how well the educational system
> prepares people for such occupations" [Terpstra,
> 1983;p100].

The low levels of literacy in the country will have significant implications for the nature of the communication messages and the appropriate medium to be used. Under such conditions of high illiteracy, insistence on the use of English precludes a large portion of consumers in the mass market whose mere large numbers might be important for the high volume of sales.

The Zambian Marketing System : Marketing Characteristics.

-52-

The micro-environment commonly refered to as the task environment by Cannon (1980) is very important as it provides the immediate setting for influencing consumer behaviour. This is because the marketing system in its interactions with the marketing mix variables and the situational factors influences behavioral response. Kaynak (1982;p34) similary argues that:

" a marketing system implies interactions and dependencies among participants such that inputs to the system will be associated with some kinds of outputs".

This suggests that influencing consumer behavior to get the desired response should be understood as being the result of the numerous interactions that take place in the marketing channel. This reason makes it important to understand the nature of these institutions in any behavioral study.

Kotler [1980] defines the marketing system as a:

"set of significant interacting institutions and forces in the organization's environment that affect its ability to serve its markets."

This definition includes the organizations involved in marketing, the objects of exchange, the clients, the facilitating organizations and all the macroenvironmental variables that influence the system. Kaynak [1982] argues that the marketing system of a country is very closely associated with the overall stage of socioeconomic and technological development. Since these are relatively under-developed in Zambia [from the preceeding sections], this would lead one to conclude that the Zambian marketing system can be described as traditional. This section gives a description of all the elements not previously covered.

Company.

This section describes the philosophy of companies in Zambia which governs marketing operations. Like the other African countries at this stage of socioeconomic and technological development, companies in Zambia are still preoccupied with production and less attention is paid to marketing activities. This means that items that are cheap, easy and convenient to make tend to dominate, and that marketers believe that demand is given and that it will always outstrip supply and that it is another's responsibility to get rid of the company's products (Davies, 1978; and Kaynak, 1982). To Hess and Cateora (1979) such an orientation is acceptable as it is logical for countries at this stage of development to be concerned with production rather than consumption because the vast majority of the population live at or below the minimum subsistence level.

This view however tends to be fatalistic as it ignores the potential contribution marketing can make to economic development in the less developed countries. Evidence is abundant on this vital link, for example Kinsey [1982] concluded that marketing can be a catalyst to the economic development process.

However, for the companies in Zambia to be market oriented a number of problems need to be addressed . Initially, the attitude of government planners must change . El Haddad [1980] writing on the marketing system in Egypt points out that the

government planners have no belief that improvement of the marketing system can increase real per capita income. Secondly, the attitude of marketers to the conditions of a sellers market has to change from one of self-deception that demand will remain high to ways of considering the situation in an innovative and creative light. Finally, there is a need to develop the managerial skills of marketing managers. Until these problems are solved production will dominate and the country lacking in the marketing infrastructure necessary for economic development.

Distribution Channels.

Davies (1978) points out that distribution is one problem that everyone recognizes in Zambia. He states that :

> " with a huge country, sparsely populated, physical distribution costs are enormous..... and yet depots are set up without any consideration of cost benefit analysis "[p.38].

This problem is common to most less developed countries (Kaynak, 1982).

The common distribution channels in the Less Developed Countries for industrial and consumer products is depicted by Kaynak (1982) in figure 2.B below.

Though Kaynak depicts the paths of the interactions between the various actors in the channel as simple, in reality the distribution systems in the less developed countries are usually more complex. This is due to inadequate infrastructure: poor

Figure 2.B: Distribution channel for industrial and consumer goods.

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        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
        │  Manufacturers & importers.  │──────────────┐
        └──────────────────────────────┘              │
                       │                               │
                       │                               ▼
                       │                         ┌──────────┐
                       │                         │ Brokers. │
                       │                         └──────────┘
                       ▼                               │
              ┌───────────────┐                        │
              │  Wholesalers. │                        │
              └───────────────┘                        │
                       │                               │
                       ▼                               │
              ┌───────────────┐                        │
        ┌─────│  Retailers.   │──────────────┐         │
        │     └───────────────┘              │         │
        │                                    │         │
        ▼                                    ▼         ▼
┌─────────────────────┐            ┌─────────────────────┐
│ Household markets.   │            │ Industrial markets  │
└─────────────────────┘            └─────────────────────┘
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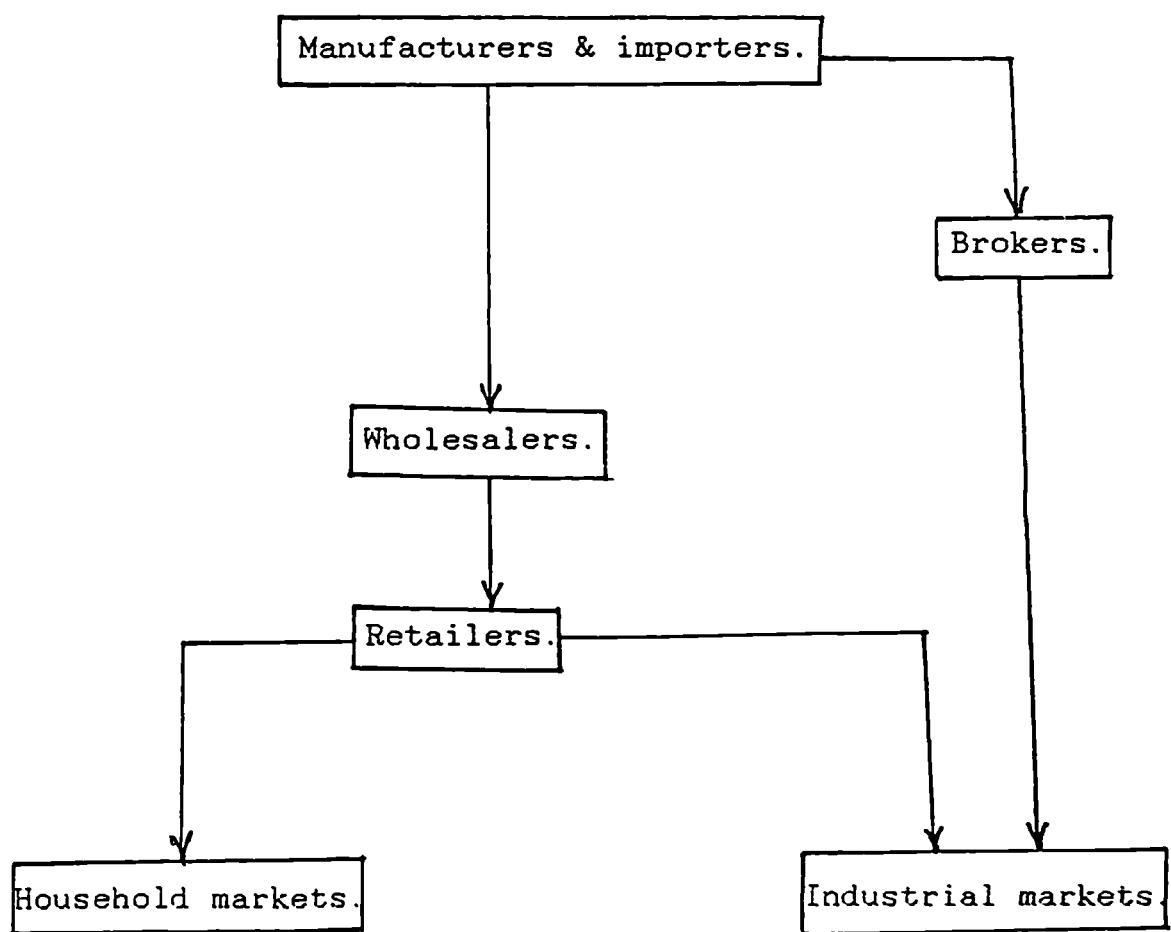
Adapted from Kaynak [1982 p.107].

roads, poor storage facilities, and inadequate communication and transportation systems. All these are considered by Kaynak [1982] to be important for efficiency and effectiveness of distribution.

Many writers like Slater [1971] have taken a viewpoint based on the Drucker school of thought which states that there are possibilities of channel structure macro strategies aiding economic development, and presents a programme based on such studies in Puerto Rico, Brazil and Bolivia. A similar theme is also found in the writing of Wadirambiratchi [1972].

The counter argument is that the presumed link does not exist. A study by Douglas [1971] in conjuction with the Marketing Science Institute, concluded that:

> " there was little evidence to support the widely
> held theory that the development of the market
> structure closely parallels that of the social ,
> economic and cultural environment."

In the next chapter it is argued that marketing and its infrastructure is necessary for economic development in the less developed countries.

Wholesalers.

In Zambia the wholesalers only numbered 494 in 1974. They are the sole suppliers of retailers and by Law cannot sell directly to consumer households.

It is their nature to be small scale businesses employing less than ten people of whom most are family members. The main ways of doing business is based on the relations established between the manufacturers and the retailers. This may be viewed as the network of relations established between parties. The wholesalers are usually located in urban centers, reflecting the concentration of retail outlets in these places. As such, the rural areas are not catered for [Kaynak, 1982] and Davies, [1978]. However, the government has established nine provincial outlets run by the National Wholesale and Marketing Company. Another company, the National Imports and Exports Corporation, has wholesale operations covering the whole country and also owns a number of retail outlets. Because of the poor development of the transport network, these wholesalers tend to be concentrated along the line of rail.

Retailers.

The retail institutions that have emerged in the less developed countries reflect the socioeconomic and the technological characteristics of the particular country [Kaynak, 1982]. Reflecting the duality of economies in the less developed countries, one finds a dichotomy in the development of the retail institutions. It is common to find a sophisticated retail structure in the urban areas and a relatively simple retail system in the rural areas. Munn (1966) points out that:

" the typical retail establishment is small in scale, meaning that turnover in these retail outlets is low, centers of operation are small and the goods they handle are limited. Many of those found in small towns and neighbourhood areas of cities are one man shops, carrying a very limited stock... and doing no promotion".

In Zambia the traditional group of retail outlets is composed of stalls in the market place, hawkers , the neighbourhood grocery and specialty stores. As in many less developed countries their size is small, and they tend to be family businesses employing family members to cut operating costs and pilferage. Their operations can be described in Table 2.G. below.

One factor that is suprising is that despite their inefficiencies and high prices these outlets are increasing in number and competing very fiercely with the more sophisticated outlets in urban areas in Zambia. This seems to be a transitional stage at which at which the low overhead outlets are challenging the high overhead high margin outlets.

At the more sophisticated level one finds the modern retail structure along the same lines as the outlets in the developed countries. The nationally owned National Import and Export Corporation operates four such retail outlets and accounts for a third of the total consumer durables. Another retail chain the Zambia Consumer Buying Corporation has five outlets in the country with the size ranging from 8,000 to 15,000 square feet. These are in the urban centers, while smaller outlets of about 100 are in rural areas, and 11 are in the suburban areas. A number of privately owned supermarkets are also found in residential areas catering for the high social classes.

Table 2.G: Nature and Functions of Retail Outlets.

Type of outlet	Assortment	Operations
Market stalls	soft drinks, canned foods, confectionary/ or fruits and vegetables	usually found in large open markets or large buildings.
Hawkers	Bread, soft drinks/or fruits and vegetables.	Limited due to mode of transport. Stock is usually highly priced because of taking goods at the doorstep.
Grocery	Large variety except fruits & vegetables.	Least specialized. sell over counter with no product inspection.
Speciality stores.	Usually only one line product eg fish, poultry fruits & vegetables	Small and owner operated

Other Middlemen.

There are only 11 manufacturers representatives in Zambia. Industrial products are usually sold through sales subsidiaries or represented by local firms through exclusive sales franchises, and these number about twenty.

The bulk of the small companies operate as commission agents. Their survival depends on their ability to establish contacts outside the country and to react to opportunities in the local market. These may often be additional businesses to other main concerns.

The other important middleman for the agricultural products is the National Marketing Board which in conjuction with the farmers Co-operative unions, acts as intermediary for the agricultural inputs and outputs. However, there is an inevitable conflict between the two, due to the imprecise definition of the responsibilities of the institutions.

Facilitators.

The facilitating institutions are those that are related to the exchanges of title and information in the marketing system. These include transportation, storage and warehousing, communication, banking , marketing research and advertising

agencies.

Transportation.

Its importance lies in the fact that the products from the suppliers have to reach the markets. In the less developed countries, Kaynak (1982) points out that transport and the basic infrastructure is inadequate. As such the urban markets benefit at the expense of the rural markets.

In Zambia the under-development of the rural transportation network is a problem inherited from colonialism, where the main priority was in linking the rich Copperbelt with the ports in the south. As a result, the road network in 1983 was 37,000 kilometers of which only 15% was tarred.

The railway system complements the road network and runs for 1,260 kilometers linking the Copperbelt in the north to the ports in the south. Another 1800 kilometer railway link to the eastern port of Dar-es-salaam is a joint effort between the Zambian and Tanzanian governments. The railway system has also been hampered by problems due to the lack of spare parts: the number of locomotive engines dropped from 117 in 1974 to 84 in 1981.

There are a total of 18 airports in the country of which three are international. The number of flights decreased from 60,000 in 1974 to 42,000 in 1981, while the passengers handled

increased by some 30%. During the same period a decrease of 40% in freight and mail handling was reported.

Communication.

Communication is important as a medium for the transmission of information between the various institutions in the marketing system. Efficiency in communication would therefore greatly facilitate the interaction between the institutions.

The posting facilities in Zambia increased considerably from 139 in 1971 to 151 in 1981. In addition to this, the postal angencies and the street posting boxes increased by 27% in the same period. Currently, the country operates an express postal system comparable to the first class mail in the UK.

In terms of telecommunications, the total number of telephone subscribers in 1981 was 28,861. However, communication by telephone is not efficient.

Newspapers in English and a few local languages are in circulation. The most widely read newspaper, The Times of Zambia, has a circulation of about 65,000. Both the Times of Zambia and the Zambia Daily Mail are controlled by the government and only widely distributed in the large cities.

The radio and television are housed by the mass media complex consisting of the Zambia Television and radio services. For the

radio, the general service transmits in English using modulated frequency. The station is on the air for 102 hours per week. The other channel is the home service and operates in six local languages for a total of 125 hours per week on a time share basis. Total radio ownership in 1977 was 140,000. There is only one television channel with transmissions in all the major provincial centers. In 1977 television ownership was 30,000. The media carries advertisements in English [Television, radio and newspapers] and the local languages [Radio].

Banks.

The banking system in Zambia consists of the government owned central bank, which controls the operations of the other commercial banks. These include Standard, Grindlays, Barclays and the National Commercial banks. Recently this area has attracted numerous other banks like the Bank of Credit and Commerce, the Meridien Bank and many others. However, the government owns all the other finacial institutions like the insurance companies and the building society.

Market Research and Advertising.

This is a very undeveloped area in Zambia. There are no known companies which provide market research services in Zambia. There are about eight advertising companies usually providing additional services to advertising.

Conclusion.

The aim of the chapter was to describe the macro and micro-environments affecting marketing and the understanding of consumer behaviour in Zambia. In this manner the chapter provides background information on the market and the marketing characteristics of the country.

Firstly, the low density of population, largely aged under 15 years and the rural - urban migration would tend to pose difficulties to distribution and communication in the rural areas. In addition to this migration draws the male labour from the rural areas making them relatively unattractive to operate in. The high dependency ratio would also seem to indicate that the purchasing power of the consumers is low. This would imply that income is an important factor in consumer behaviour.

Secondly, the nature of the economic problems of foreign exchange facing the country have had an adverse effect on the consumer spending power due to the high level of inflation. The effect of this problem on the manufacturing companies has been to cut down on production, thereby resulting in redundancies and numerous product shortages. This condition leads to the consumers being exposed to few brands on the market, with meagre incomes, and only over a long period are brand insistence and commitment possible.

Another factor that influences consumer behaviour is the traditional attitude of Zambians caused by religion and age. This makes Zambians conservative and hence they prefer the status quo. This suggests very strongly that in making purchase decisions the consumers use risk reduction methods and hence feel secure in purchasing one brand repeatedly. Over a period of time this would lead to brand loyalty.

Further, the existence of domesticity in the urban areas would suggest that the purchase decision has to be understood as a household decision process rather than an individual process in Zambia. The implications of this are that the family will exert influence on purchases, the frequency of purchases will be high, and the quantity of purchases will be large.

Finally, the country exhibits transportation and communication problems due to the inadequancies and underdevelopment of the inherited colonial transport network; the lack of a lingua franca and the low level of literacy. With the addition of and the general underdevelopment of the marketing institutions and the marketing infrastructure this helps to make the national marketing system traditional. This in itself has hindered the socio-economic development in these countries. In all, higher levels of economic development are prevented in Zambia and the other less developed countries by unsuitable or inadequate infrastructures, especially in power and transportation, social structures, institutions, and values inimical to growth, the paucity of technical knowledge, limitations imposed by the

international conditions, and inadequate supply of funds [Carson, 1967]. These barriers seem to be accentuated by: the limited demand caused by low income and growing population pressures on scarce resources, the lack of competitive vigor and individual resourcefulness and protectionist governments. The vital link between marketing and economic development is discussed in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER THREE.

THE ROLE OF MARKETING IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND DEFINING LESS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES.

AIM OF THE CHAPTER.

This chapter looks at the role of marketing in the economic development process within the framework of the "dual economic" development models. It is argued that for these models to bring about economic development in the less developed countries, marketing has a contributory role to play. It is proposed that marketing is a vital "linking pin" between the productive capacities in the capitalist sector [urban sector] and the consumption institutions in the traditional sector [rural areas]. Studies supporting this role of marketing are reviewed. The main aim of this section is to show that marketing is important in the less developed countries.

In the second part of the chapter, countries in Africa are clustered to suggest a group of countries at the same level of economic and marketing development with Zambia. Such a grouping might suggest similarities in consumer behaviour characteristics

within the group. This approach could be useful in making meaningful generalizations of the results and methodologies of the study conducted in Zambia. However, the classification that emerges should be treated as tentative and specific to the study.

The Orthodox Economic Development Models.

The need for marketing in the economic development process is seen to be vital if the contribution of some of the orthodox economic approaches of capital accumulation are examined. It is within the limitations of some of these approaches to fostering economic development that the contribution of marketing to socio-economic development is postulated to be important.

One problem that confronts most less developed countries is that of attaining economic development. In many of these countries this goal is given high priority, as failure to raise the standard of living in a country has the undesirable consequences of reduced social welfare which could lead to social unrest. Here, economic development is taken in the multidimensional sense,ie, it implies increases in per capita income and the general transformation of society. Seers [1970] and Hunter [1971] explain that this includes economic, social, cultural and political variables. In this particular sense the task of economic development would seem to indicate a process of transforming the agriculturally based rural economies into more industrially based urban economies [Kaynak, 1982].

Three salient ideas portray the characteristics of orthodox economics and these are based on the classical - neoclassical view in which:

i] Development is gradual, continouos and cumulstive with the price mechanism making the adjustments thereby promoting economic development.

ii] Growth is harmonious through the operation of automatic, equilibrating mechanisms, i.e, the rich and poor, capitalist and labourer, all work together for increased output.

iii] The development of development will spread to all groups.

" What is required for development is to create the proper incentives to perfect the markwt mechanism, and thereby to initiate the changes that lead to self propelled take-offs."[Nugent ant Yotopoulos, 1979, P.542].

This orientation to development has tended to emphasize a linear model of development where the less developed countries are expected to follow the path of the developed countries . This is fundamentally wrong as the less developed countries are said to have:

" started from a different base than the developed countries , had foreign domination for a long time leading to the creation of export enclaves in less developed countries " [Dholakia, 1984;p16].

Thus, they have followed different developmental paths to the developed countries. This seems to indicate that increasing production is important, it might not be the most appropriate way of attaining development in these countries. It is further

required that the increase in production should be of the sought that sustains economic development.

Evidence exists to support the contention that the orthodox economics approach has not by itself contributed to economic development. Nugent and Yotopoulos [1979] for example point out that:

> " the process of development in ...less developed countries is not necessarily dominated by automatic, equilibrating, and development spreading effects, as the traditional orthodox paradigm implies"[p.550].

They go on to point out that it is the blind following of such approaches which has been responsible for the unbalanced growth witnessed in most of the less developed countries. Indeed, some of these countries are becoming more frustrated and dissatisfied with the linear development models which are based on capital formation and productivity improvements, and have realized the role marketing can play in economic development [Kindra, 1984].

At this point, it needs to be emphasized that the evidence suggests that the commonly used models of development are not yielding the expected results, as marketing is by large ignored in the development effort. For example, Yotopoulos and Nugent [1979] points out that;

> " Migration has tended to set in motion a polarization
> - marginalization process that almost inevitably
> increase income inequality in the urban areas."[p.543].

These orthodox economic development models [employment or dual economy models] and the role marketing has to play in the

development process are the main issues in this chapter. First, the "dual economy" development models are discussed. Then their limited contribution to the development process will be highlighted. Marketing is then suggested as the vital missing link and the necessary facilitating role of economic planning is identified.

Dual Economy Models.

Above, Seers [1970], Hunter [1971] and Kaynak [1982] view economic development as the socio-economic transformation of society with the aim of improving living conditions. By implication any discussion of development in the less developed countries should by necessity pay attention to the models that explain the spreading of the modern money economy. " Any effort to accelerate the country's rate of development must deal with the problem of dualism" [Meier, 1970]. Dualism as used here means the existence of a wealthy minority whilst a substantial proportion of the population remains in conditions which are far from satisfying and dignifying [Kinsey,1982]. The existence of a capitalist and a traditional unmonetized sector in most less developed countries is supported by Ghatak [1978]. He points out that in some of these countries 45-90% of the total output and 60-95% of the total employment is accounted for by agriculture. With the large sectors being agriculture in most of the less developed countries, it could be proposed that economic development would have to be tied to the development of agriculture.

Unfortunately, very few less developed countries seem to have emphasized agriculture to sustain the development process. Most of these countries have embarked on import substitution policies to promote industrialization. This, for many has led to large uneconomic investment projects being embarked on, and some of these have not made any significant contribution to economic development. [In Zambia the Mwinilunga Pineapple Cannery project, the Kaleya Brick Making factory are examples of a few of such projects]. It could be suggested that the import substitution policies in these countries have not been successful because of the lack of the backward and forward linkages. For these linkages to exist there must be a developed agricultural sector to provide raw materials and a market for the capitalist sector.

The development of the agricultural sector is hence seen to be desirable as it provides what Ghosh [1983] refers to as the "wage goods" [Kalecki, 1970 calls them necessities to differentiate them from the non-essential goods by the upper class minorities], labour, a market and foreign exchange for the development of the capitalist and the traditional sector. One of the roles of marketing could play to facilitate and enhance this inter sectorial relationship which is necessary for development.

However, because marketing has been ignored in the development plans, it has not been surprising to see an "urban bias" leading to impoverishment and deprivation of the rural sector while resources are directed to the urban sector [Lipton, 1968]. As a consequence this imbalanced growth has tended to widen the gap between the capitalist sector and the traditional sector making

sectorial interrelationships necessary for development difficult. Marketing would be useful in this respect as it has the capabilities of understanding the needs of consumers, matching these needs with appropriate products and making consumers aware of the availability of these products.

Using this notion of economic dualism, which is a common feature in most less developed countries, it is posited that economic development will depend on ways of expanding the capitalist sector while the traditional sector contracts as it gets monetized. This is the gist of the "dual economy" development models. These models ie, Lewis [1954], Fei - Ranis [1964], and Jorgenson [1967], suggest that the surplus labour which exists in the traditional sector is the seed for the development of the capitalist sector. The assumption of surplus labour is based on the existence of disquised unemployment in the rural areas. This condition suggests that the marginal productivity of labour in these areas is low, making it possible to transfer labour from the traditional sector to the capitalist sector without a decrease in output.

Given the surplus labour in the less developed countries, the models suggest that economic development could be attained by merely employing the rural excess labour in the urban sector to generate a reinvestable surplus. As the surplus is reinvested, the expanded production capacities will draw on more labour from the traditional sector. This expansionary process wil continue until the wage rates in the capitalist sector start to rise resulting into a reduction in profits and consequently low investment.

As this process takes place, the expansion of the capitalist will create additional demand for "wage goods" [food grain] [Ghosh, 1983]. This has the tendency of increasing the price of the food grains. Given the limited requirements for cash dictated by the availability of industrial goods to buy, the farmers show a tendency to decrease their output [and even save in kind]. This cutback in agricultural output will lead to raw material and food shortages in the urban areas [capitalist sector] and makes the traditional sector an un attractive market for the industrial goods.

The overall effect of this is to inhibit the process of economic development as an agricultural surplus to meet demand in the industrial sector and a market for industrial goods is essential. Hence, the expansion of the agricultural sector alongside industrial development is vital. This balance has not existed in the less developed countries and could explain their underdevelopment. [However, this would vary ernomously depicting differences in the development of marketing systems]. It is later suggested that this is the balance marketing could provide and thereby playing a contributory role in the development process.

The Role of Marketing.

The role marketing could play in the economic development process is apparent from the lopsided development that has characterised many less developed countries. From this perspective it could be suggested that marketing might be the missing link in the development process. This becomes apparent by discussing the limitations of the economic development models.

Despite the highlights of the intersectioral relationships in the "dual economy" models [especially in the Lewis, [1954] model] Meier, [1970] points out that their applicability is usually circumscribed by certain special conditions. These conditions are adequately covered in Meier, [1970]. This section discusses only two of these limiting conditions of the "dual economy" models of development. The extent to which marketing can solve these will determine its ability to contribute to economic development.

First, the basic weakness of the "dual economy" models and a major obstacle to development in many less developed countries is the absence of a capitalist class to undertake productive investment. The role marketing could play in this regard was suggested by Drucker [1958]. He posited that marketing would provide the necessary entrepreneurial class which would take the necessary risks.

> "Marketing is also the most easily accessible "multiplier" of managers and entrepreneurs in an "undeveloped" growth area. And managers and entrepreneurs are the foremost need for these countries."[p.253].

Drucker's [1958] argument is based on the conviction that marketing has tools, such as marketing research which could be

used to uncover the existence of purchasing power. It is this potential which makes managers take risks as it provides an opportunity for entrepreneurs, encourages professional management and unlimited chances for those " who know how to plan, how to organize, how to lead people and how to innovate"[Drucker, 1958].

Second, and most important the dual economy models assume that there is a market which will buy whatever is produced by the capitalist sector. Elkan [1973] posits,

> "it is difficult to understand what purpose any businessman may have in producing capital or consumer goods for which no demand is generated. It assumes automatic reinvestment in an economy in which businessmen cannot have any conceivable motive to reinvest" [p.69].

Above, it was pointed, among other things, that the traditional sector should provide a market for the goods of the industrial sector. This role marketing could play in creating markets for the capitalist sector is seen from the functions of marketing outlined by Anderson [1968]. He points out that marketing has the function of

i] finding the most efficient way to match the supply of products available and consumer needs

ii] bringing new products to the market and

iii] bringing more people into the market economy.

In this way, marketing could provide a market for industrial products by researching into whether there will be demand for the products in the rural sector and researching into what needs exist and which remain unmet in these markets. Once this is known , better and more appropriate products would be developed to meet the needs. With marketing, distribution of the products to the traditional sector would improve, communication would be

more responsible [i.e by playing the role of educating consumers on how to use products, and making consumers aware of various products on the market], and the prices charged would reflect the purchasing power in these markets. The overall effect of marketing, in this respect, would be to improve the social welfare of the consumers and raise their standards of living. In turn this would increase the market potential as the latent economic energy is mobilized thereby creating conditions for a higher level of economic activity than existed before. Drucker [1958] refers to this role of marketing as one of "guiding production purposefully torward maximum consumer satisfaction and value".

Once marketing has played this role, the improved living standards would increase the cash requirements of farmers, leading them to increase agricultural output. This would partially solve the problem of raw material and food shortages in the capitalist sector and create a market for industrial products.

In as much as marketing could increase the domestic market for industrial products, it also has potential of providing the industrial sector with knowledge to exploit the export markets effectively. The foreign exchange earned could be used to purchase raw materials [which cannot be supplied by the traditional sector, and machinery for expansion].

Other studies supporting the role marketing could play in the economic development process, view the contribution through the distribution function. The studies of Slater [1970], [1971], Goldman [1976], Keegan [1980], Moyer, reed and Hollander [1968]

and Klein [1985] all argue that marketing can contribute to economic development through the distribution function. Indeed poor distribution in these countries is a serious problem identified by writers on marketing in the less developed countries [Kaynak, 1983]. It is common in these countries to find the government putting too much emphasis on "Marketing Boards". These institutions have the aim of providing agricultural inputs and buying the produce of farmers to sell in the industrial sector. However, most governments do not complete the process by establishing institutions which would provide an efficient distribution network to make available the industrial products in the traditional sector. The need for such a network is paramount " to the extent that market channel coordination fosters fuller utilization of the productive capacity of the community, ...[thereby contributing] to increased output" [Klein, 1985, p.57]. This is because a large market size is needed for economies of scale to be enjoyed in the distribution channels. Once this is achieved the real purchasing power of the consumers [especially in the rural sector] would be higher. This would increase the demand for manufactured goods thereby stimulating output from the capitalist sector.

" The development of the marketing intermediaries will aid economic development by making producers aware of market opportunities....providing transportation and linking producers with consumers"[Nason and White, 1982].

This role of marketing as a link between producers and consumers is further supported by Klein [1985].

" The development process requires the parallel development of production and consumption for which marketing provides the synchronizing mechanism..." [p. 56].

Similary, Hess and Cateora [1970] argue that marketing is an economy's arbiter between productive capacity and consumer demand [also see Mentzer and Samli, 1981]. It is in this respect that Kinsey [1982] and Klein [1985] have recently suggested marketing to be a catalyst and an engine for economic development.

From a different dimension, Preston [1970], Harper [1975] and Klein [1985], in addition, posit that marketing could also play the role of change agent to facilitate the process of societal transformation. They base their arguments from the importance of social marketing, which is defined by Kotler and Zaltman [1971] ;

> " the design implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involves considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research".

In this role social marketing is important as individuals are usually reluctant to adopt products which contribute to economic development. Such products would include better methods of farming, family planning and birth control methods. The established behaviour patterns surrounding these issues would have to be relenquished to make economic development possible [Farley and Leavitt, 197]. They point out that most countries faced with the population pressure problem attempt to solve it from a production orientation. That is, the people are forced to adopt the innovations without making them want to adopt. At present, international bodies realize the importance of being "user" oriented in introducing new technologies. For example, in introducing new farming methods, the Ministry of Agriculture in Zambia attempts to understand the circumstances that surround farmers and try to make them understand how the new methods

would improve their position. This is referred to as the adaptive method of introducing new techniques].

It is here where marketing could also contribute as marketers familiar with the problem of diffusion of innovation and can use their expertise in market research, distribution, and promotion to solve the problem.

However, the above contributions of marketing to economic development will not be significant unless economic plannin is used to solve the problems of market distortions. For example , the real income gap between modern and rural sectors has been greater than allowed for in the "dual economy" models. It is argued by Meier [1970] that the capitalist wage rates have been higher than needed to cover the cost of labour transfer and the urban costs of iving. Ironically, these wages have tended to rise inspite of open unemployment and well before the surplus labour of the rural sector has been absorbed. These high wage rates in the capitalist sector have attracted a labour inflow it cannot handle. This situation has transformed disquised unemployment in the traditional sector to visible unemployment in the urban sector, largely due to bad planning.

This problem arises from structural problems which distort the market mechanisms. First, the wage levels have risen through government wage policies [like minimum wage regulation] and trade union pressures, both of which do not reflect any increases in productivity. The consequence of the high wage rates in the capitalist sector has led to the inevitable substitution of capital for labour. This has been facilitated by other price distortions such as the low rates of interest

which do not reflect the true scarcity of capital.

Meier [1970] also observes that

" the import substitution policies also have the
consequence of distorting the price structure in most
less developed countries; too low a rate of interest in
the urban sector, too low a rate for foreign exchange
and too high a level of urban wages" [p.436].

As a result of these distortions, the product and factor markets
in most less developed countries are usually imperfect, leading
to a failure in the market forces to attain efficient allocation
of resources. This condition makes it important for state
intervention, in the form of economic planning, in order to
obtain an efficient allocation of resources as prices give the
"wrong signals" to the decision makers. In this manner,
economic planning should accept market orientation as this would
facilitate the contribution of marketing in the development
process.

In addition to this it has been argued that economic planning is
supposed to achieve the necessary institutional reforms to allow
for more rapid growth; and that since many less developed
countries have limited resources [capital, skilled manpower,
foreign exchange], it is important to utilize such resources
efficiently. This efficiency might not be possible unless the
various sectors are brought under an overall planning mechanism
[Ghatak, 1978].

Despite the rich literature on the role marketing plays in
development, few scholars have given marketing the importance in
the economic development process [Carter and Savitt, 1983].
Kaynak [1982] reports that governments in these countries have
not included marketing variables in their analyses, and have

made no attempt to consciously develop the country's marketing capabilities as they have its production and its technological capabilities [Kaynak, 1982]; Anderson,1970]. This negligence of the function that connects production and consumption has led to a situation where the marketing system does not reflect the needs of the market and does not function effectively and efficiently [Carter and Savitt, 1983]. This indeed would seem to be the problem affecting the less developed countries . This could not be the case if marketing was included in the economic development plans. If this is done, Emitad [1984] argues that there would be maximum satisfaction for the consumers, industries, or the country as a whole : production and distribution would be directed to minimizing waste and inefficiency, and would continuously reward the productive and the efficient, and punish the inefficient [Emitad, 1984].

The general failure to adopt marketing in the less developed countries is however indicative of the existence of the barriers against adoption of market orientation. To accelerate the adoption process these must be identified and solutions provided. The problems can be summarised from literature as follows:

Firstly, numerous observations are made in literature that the government planners in these countries look at marketing as being parasitic and a passive element of the economic system [Kaynak, 1982; Carter and Savitt, 1983]. In addition to this, society looks at people who are engaged in any marketing institution as undesirables [Kaynak, 1982]. Regardless of these views, it is important for economic planners and actors to be marketing oriented.

Again, marketing in the less developed countries is conceptually misunderstood, and is always confused with countries where the main problem is one of directing societies' resources into ever-changing output to satisfy a dynamic market place. However, in the less developed countries, the major problem is the allocation of resources to obvious production needs, with the main focus being on increasing the supply of goods, and not on consumer needs and wants [Kaynak, 19823, Nwokoye, 1982, Holton, 1953].

The third reason is that many less developed countries look at the inefficient marketing systems as a source of employment for those who would otherwise be unemployed. This implies that there would be no reason or incentive for the less developed country governments to adopt marketing as it would destroy a status quo which has clear benefits to society as a whole.

The final problem seems to be directly related to the marketing innovation adoption process in these countries. This is because most research on marketing in these countries tends to be too specific and individual to be of much use in other less developed countries. It is usual, for example, to find results from one less developed country being enthusiastically generalised to all the other less developed countries. It is such overgeneralizations which have not convinced market planners on the role of marketing in the development process and this has retarded the marketing adoption process. What is needed are articles that will treat countries in this group as not being homogeneous but composed of groups of countries which share similar attributes. This would inevitably make results

from research more easily generalized to the particular countries, and hence easier for less developed countries governments to evaluate their usefulness and appropriateness. In other words, researchers should start defining the group of countries to which the studies are applicable, as the present practice of overgeneralising is rather unscientific.

In this study the countries which are highly similar to Zambia to which the methodology and results will be generalized are classified and will commonly be referred to as the less developed countries. Such a classification based on economic development indicators would group countries at the same level of marketing development. This is based on the link between marketing and economic development.

Defining the Less Developed Countries.

The task of defining less developed countries is undertaken in this study, because for too long articles on the less developed countries have tended to generalize results from studies conducted in Nigeria, Turkey, India and Brazil to the entire group of less developed countries. This is not scientific, as it assumes that these countries are representative of the less developed countries, or that the group of less developed countries as a whole is very homogeneous. This is a proposition which will be examined in the remaining section of this chapter. It may be shown that in reality what is commonly referred to as the the less developed countries, is actually composed of clusters of countries with many group differences.

"The emergency of less developed countries with vastly
different marketing systems which are in the smae
geographical region and of the same level of economic
development indicates the need for a better approach"
[Leff, 1975].

To further elucidate the need for defining countries in
marketing studies, the article by Thorelli (1982) on consumer
behaviour in the less developed countries may be considered. He
points out that " in the less developed countries consumers
enjoy shopping and that bargaining is institutionalised as a way
of doing business". While these observations are important and
probably true to a certain group of countries, Thorelli like
many other writers, does not define the countries to which these
results apply, but chooses to generalize to all the less
developed countries.

Such propositions are arguable and would not hold true in Zambia
where product shortages exist. Under such conditions, shopping
no longer becomes enjoyable as the search effort, the time cost
and the psychosocial cost of standing in a queue are all high .
In a similar manner, it could be argued that bargaining is not
very common in a sellers market where the fear of shortages
compels consumers to buy almost on impulse, and where the
control of prices leaves no room for haggling.

Therefore clustering less developed countries might enable this
study to make reasonable generalizations of the methodology and
observations to a similar group of countries. Only if countries
are clustered would conclusions from this study be applicable to
a group of countries. This suggests that while generalizations

are an important requirement of theories , these only make sense for a well defined group of countries. This link between generalizations and groupings is important because groupings allow us to generalize rather than to deal with individual cases. This can only be useful if limited to homogeneous cases [Liander, 1967]. Litvak and Banting [1969], Hansz and Goodnow [19732], Samli [1964], [1977], Wadinambiaratchi [1965] and Samli and Mentzer [1981] tend to support such an approach and have considered measuring the degree of market development to enable a researcher to classify countries.

Other studies exist which have clustered the countries of the world into groups. The list of studies is exhaustive, and only a few of these studies can be briefly discussed below.

In the past, the less developed countries have been grouped differently, depending on the purpose of the study, suggesting numerous classifications in literature. The multinational companies, for example, commonly classify or divide markets in regional groupings. The main base for clustering is geographical proximity, as it is argued that countries that are grouped in this manner would ease the central management control of staff activities. An example of this is Leontieffs (1977) classification scheme in which groups are based on geographical location and factor endowments.

Liander [1967] points out the weakness of this approach as being that:

> " While there are similarities in countries classified in the same geographical group, there are usually significant differences among them as to their levels of social, political and economic development" (p.6)

These factors he explains might be unrelated to geographical location.

Meanwhile, Luqmani and Quraeshi [1983] suggest that a common major approach has been to classify countries according to their " Stage of Market Development", using GNP as the discriminating variable. This approach is largely influenced by the pioneer work of Rostow (1960) in which he considered countries to be passing through, or at different stages, in the level of economic development. He argued that countries of the world can be placed in any one of the following stages of development: the traditional society, the preconditions for take off, the take off, the drive to maturity, and the age of mass consumption. Here, Klein [1985] suggests that many of today's less developed countries are found in the second stage [preconditions for take off] in which individuals are still struggling for survival and productivity in production and distribution is low.

The problem with this approach is that the choice of the cut-off points, to separate stages , is arbitrary: " This leads to widely divergent countries being lumped together in the same group "[Luqmani and Quraeshi, 1983]. This approach has resulted in counties like Kuwait being classified in the "Post industrial" stage along with the USA. This is a very serious shortcoming as there are considerable differences in these countries in terms of the business infrastructure and the market orientations. The Rostow model has similarily been criticized as being too descriptive, and rather deterministic in assuming linearity in economic development [Chisholm and McCarty, 1978]. It assumes that economic development is irreversible and that

all countries have to pass through these predetermined levels to attain development. In addition to this, the model does not show the mechanisms that work systems from one stage to the other. Finally, historical development tends to be continuous, while the stages in the model imply discontinuities, and there is thus no way of determining when the stages start or end.

While this might be so, some writers like Arensberg and Niehoff [1964] supported this kind of classification scheme. They argued that the less developed countries grouped under such schemmes have notable similarities, in terms of the nature of the economy, the colonial past, nationalism, plurarity of society, dichotomy between the urban elite and the lower classes rising expectations etc. Following this line of argument Robinson [1961] was led to conclude that :

> " a good bit of management theory developed out of the American experience may not be valid at all in reference to non western cultures."

He further went on to point out that in the less developed countries:

> " there should be an awareness of the need to modify or redesign products so as to make them really appropriate to the markets into which they are are moving".

This suggests that marketing phenomenon in less developed countries should be understood from purely empirical terms of their own.

The Ditcher model is another approach that has been proposed for grouping countries. The aim of Ditcher's study in 1962 was to identify the consumer for automobiles at different levels of development. He attempted to measure these levels by size of the middle class, arguing that it was the size of the middle

class which differentiates a backward country from a modern country. He operationalized this variable by the number of automobiles, as this was regarded as a symbol of the middle class. The result was a division of the world into six groups. These groups were the almost classless contented society, the affluent countries, countries in transition, revolutionary countries, the primitive countries and the new class countries.

This model seems only to be appropriate for analysing automobile purchase behaviour in world markets as it is so limited in scope. Secondly, the number of automobiles as an indicator of the size of the middle class could be criticized on grounds of validity. In all, the model has not aroused any interest among marketing practioners and academics.

Models for classifying countries are too numerous to review in this paper. The number is large because, depending on the area of inquiry, (as pointed above), various classifications have emerged. An example of this is the work of Harbison and Myers [1964] who grouped countries to reflect management development. Elsewhere some political scientists have grouped countries based on political risk in foreign markets. Other notable studies are those of Sethi [1971], Berry [1964] and Sherbini [1967].

In all, these classifications are not very different from each other and hence represent an interesting way of clustering countries. Differences are large due to the number of clusters chosen. However, it is notable that at the individual group level, there do not seem to have been any studies conducted to find out whether countries for example grouped as less developed

countries are homogeneous or not. In his work, Sethi [1971] intimated this when he concluded that "in future there is a need to find out if meaningful classifications could be developed within each cluster" [p.354]. The clustering methodology similar to that used by Sethi [1971], is used here to classify countries that are silmilar to Zambia in respect of marketing and consumer behaviour.

Methodology.

The first thing to consider when clustering countries is to identify the framework within which the countries will be classifed. Once this framework is identified it simplifies the choice of variables to be used in classifying countries. In this study the area of inquiry is consumer behaviour in the less developed countries. Given that this is affected by the level of marketing sophistication dictated by the level of marketing development, it can be argued that the general level of economic development could be used in grouping less developed countries. [This is made possible by the link between marketing and economic development that has been established]. This has been successfully used by Sherbini [1967] in his work on the developmental approach to clustering countries. This approach and that of Sethi will be adopted as the methodology in clustering the less developed countries. The result of this should be a group of countries at the same level of economic development.

Choice of Variables.

The variables used by Sherbini were adopted, subject to a few changes to suit the framework chosen. These were thought to be appropriate because they represented the various aspects of a country's marketing system. He modelled the marketing system by considering environmental characteristics that have a significant bearing on the marketing system of any given country. Figure 3.A shows how the variables are relevant to the marketing system. This figure is similar to the discussion of the national marketing system in chapter 2, in which three institutions were identified: the production and the consumption institutions, and the marketing institution which brings the first two into the marketing arena where exchanges take place. It is from the first two and the environmental factors, that the twenty variables for clustering were chosen. The underlying assumption is that the composite of these factors will affect the interaction environment on the market, the way companies allocate their scarce resources and the way in which the consumers make the purchase decisions. (the list of variables is given in Appendix 2).

Data Collection.

The most recent available data was collected on the twenty variables on a total of 44 African countries. These countries were chosen because they were mostly grouped as less developed countries, (see for example the classifications of Berry [1961], Leontieff [1977], and Sherbini [1967] and the World Bank, [1984]) and Zambia belonged to this African group of less
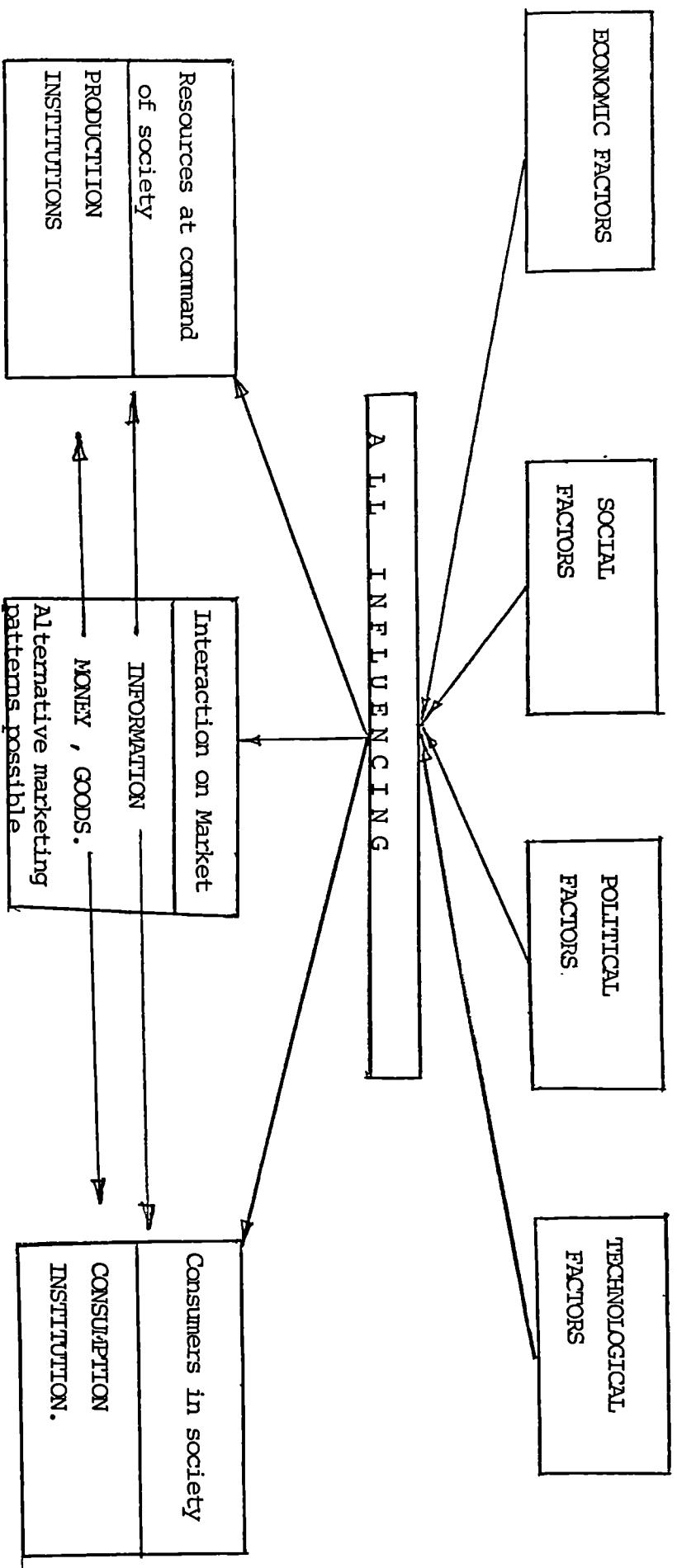
FIGURE.**34**'   The marketing system and the factors that influence the societal mechanisms.

ECONOMIC FACTORS

SOCIAL FACTORS

POLITICAL FACTORS

TECHNOLOGICAL FACTORS

A L L   I N F L U E N C I N G

Resources at command of society

PRODUCTION INSTITUTIONS

Interaction on Market

INFORMATION

MONEY , GOODS.

Alternative marketing patterns possible

Consumers in society

CONSUMPTION INSTITUTION.

developed countries. This data was collected from the ' World Development report' compiled by the World Bank [1984]. The other source for qualitative data was the ' The World in Figures' compiled by The Economist. A typical problem in such studies is the lack of information in certain countries, and this was not an exception in this study. As a result three countries were rejected by the clustering model. The other problem is related to the use of qualitative variables. The categories developed by Sherbini were adopted and varied slightly to allow for more discrimination among the African countries.

Data Analysis and Results.

After collecting the data, the first step was to conduct a value analysis (V - Analysis). This was done to form factors or definers. This is considered to be a very important step because:

> " if the variables are related to each other as well as a more basic underlying construct (or factor), that factor will make a disproportionate contribution to the measure of similarity" [Sethi, 1971;p341].

For this the V - analysis using a principal components analysis (P-C Analysis) was performed to eliminate the redundancy among the twenty variables. This transformed the interrelated variables into a set of unrelated linear combinations. The advantage of doing this is to produce a maximum discrimination among the countries. This is desirable as the operational taxonomic units are relatively homogeneous. The use of the P-C analysis is supported by Myers and Nicosia (1968) when they state that the higher the correlation of any variable to others,

the more general is its way of grouping countries, or technically the more general is its communality. This is also supported by Aldenderfer and Blashfield (1984) when they state that:

" this is done to reduce dimensionality of the data, thereby creating new, uncorrelated variables that can be used as raw data for calculating the similarity between cases" [p.21].

However , there is some controversy surrounding this as Rolf [1970] for example argues that:

" Principal components analysis tends to maintain the representation of widely separated clusters in a reduced space but also minimizes - and this blurs - the distance between clusters or groups that are not widely separated".

Since the objective is to maximize discrimination, P-C analysis was considered to be vital in this study.

Table 3.B shows the results of the principal components analysis. It shows that there are seven linear combinations of variables (factors) which account for 75% of the total variation in the twenty variables. Given that the group of countries are relatively homogeneous this percentage is quite high. Also important to note is the eigenvalue which measures the relative importance of the factors. These values are below 1.00 after the seventh factor.

To facilitate the isolation and identification of variables in each of the clustered factors, an orthogonal rotation using the varimax criterion was used. The use of this criterion is supported by general consensus and evidence as being better than quartimax, equimax or oblique rotation [Churchill, 1979]. Tables 3.C and 3.D show an expanded factor structure obtained by varimax rotation and naming of factors.

TABLE 3. B.

EXTRACTION 1 FOR ANALYSIS 1, PRINCIPAL-COMPONENTS ANALYSIS (PC)

INITIAL STATISTICS:

VARIABLE	COMMUNALITY		FACTOR	EIGENVALUE	PCT OF VAR	CUM PCT
POP	1.00000		1	3.96560	19.8	19.8
PDEN	1.00000		2	3.03774	15.2	35.0
RIPOP	1.00000		3	2.29984	11.5	46.5
POPWA	1.00000		4	1.97375	9.9	56.4
LITP15	1.00000		5	1.45251	7.3	63.6
AGPOPT	1.00000		6	1.41216	7.1	70.7
URBAN	1.00000		7	1.04279	5.2	75.9
RELHOM	1.00000		8	.94200	4.7	80.6
RACIHOM	1.00000		9	.83220	4.2	84.8
LINGHOM	1.00000		10	.72203	3.6	88.4
MOTV	1.00000		11	.56404	2.8	91.2
ROADDEN	1.00000		12	.40586	2.0	93.3
RAILDEN	1.00000		13	.35100	1.8	95.0
RADIO	1.00000		14	.33380	1.7	96.7
TELE	1.00000		15	.21398	1.1	97.7
TVS	1.00000		16	.16889	.8	98.6
NEWSP	1.00000		17	.12008	.6	99.2
GNPCAP	1.00000		18	.09492	.5	99.7
ENERGCO	1.00000		19	.04880	.2	99.9
INTERNRE	1.00000		20	.01803	.1	100.0

PC EXTRACTED 7 FACTORS.

VARIMAX CONVERGED IN 9 ITERATIONS.

Table 3.C

ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX:

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5	FACTOR 6	FACTOR 7
LITP15	84587						
MOTV	83125						
NEWSP	76054						
TELE	55328				.38072	.31380	
ROADDEN		.93628					
PDEN		.91022					
URBAN	.31663	.46875				.45171	
AGPOPT			-.80753		.40255		
INTERNRE			.74179	.40954			
POP			.70969				
ENERGCO				.83572			
GNPCAP				.81741			
RACIHOM				.70645			30060
RIPOP					-.75782		
POPWA		.54919			.70366		
TVS			-.40260		64187		
RELHOM						.79943	
LINGHOM				-.41233		.64932	
RAILDEN		.31195					84146
RADIO			.48915				51533

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Table 3.9 : Expanded Factor Structure.

Factor 1
Literacy
Newspapers   Consumer Sophistication
Telephones

Factor 2.
Road Density
Population Density   Distribution
Urbanization

Factor 3.
Agricultural Population   Monetization of economy
International Reserves

Factor 4.
Energy Consumption
GNP Per Capita   Industrialization
Racial Homogeneity

Factor 5.
Population Increase
Working Age   Productive Population
Television sets

Factor 6.
Religious Homogeneity
Linguistic Homogeneity   Culture

Factor 7.
Rail Density
Radio   Communication

The seven factors extracted by the principal components analysis were then used to group the countries using clustering. Sethi refers to this stage as the object analysis (O -Analysis). In this exercise hierachical clustering was used for the analysis. Hierarchical clustering is a general procedure which:

" forms clusters which are progressively nested with each other, ie, a cluster of two countries formed at a higher level of similarity will stay together in any form of cluster containing a large number of countries which have been added at a lower level of similarity"[Day and Heeler, 1971 ; p342].

In hierachical clustering approach BEVERAGE ie, between group average of linkage of squared Euclidean distance between cases was used. This method merely computes distances of every point from every other point. The first cluster is then formed by finding the smallest distance between any two points. A mid point of the two points is then calculated. The distance of all the other points from this average are computed and the point closest to this average would be added to the cluster. The process continues until all the operational taxonomic units are analysed. This method which is an antidote to the extremes of the single and the complete linkage, is reported by Alderndefer and Blashfield [1984] to be widely used in biological sciences and has begun to be widely adopted in the social sciences.

This method gives a table of cluster membership of countries see [Table 3.E]. This table shows that from 9 to 14 clusters , Zambia is consistently grouped in cluster 4 (note that 9 to 14 clusters are chosen to maximize similarities within clusters). This implies that the countries in group 4 are highly similar to each other. It is this group of countries to which the results and observations from the Zambian market will be relevant and

TABLE   3.E

Cluster Membership of Cases using Average Linkage (Between Groups)

Number of Clusters

Label	Case	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5
ANGOLA	1	1	1	1·	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
ALGERI	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1
BENINN	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1
BURUND	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	1	1
CHADDD	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
CONGOO	6	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
EGGUIN	7	6	5	5	5	5	5	4	3	1	1
ETHIOP	8	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
EGYPTT	9	7	6	6	6	6	4	3	1	1	1
GAMBIA	10	8	7	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
GHANAA	11	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
GUINEA	12	8	7	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
IVCOAS	13	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
KENYAA	14	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
LESOTH	15	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
LIBERI	16	9	8	8	7	7	6	5	4	3	2
LIBYAA	17	10	9	5	5	5	5	4	3	1	1
MADAGA	18	11	10	9	8	8	7	6	5	4	3
MALAWI	19	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
MALIII	20	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
MAURIT	21	12	11	10	9	9	8	7	6	5	4
MAUNIA	22	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
MOROCC	23	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
MOZAMB	24	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
NIGERR	25	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
NIGERI	26	7	6	6	6	6	4	3	1	1	1
RWANDA	27	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
SENEGA	28	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
SUDANN	29	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
SOMALI	30	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
SLEONE	31	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
SWAZIL	32	13	12	11	10	10	9	8	7	6	5
SAFRIC	33	14	13	12	11	2	2	2	2	2	1
TOGOOO	34	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
TUNISI	35	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
TANZAN	36	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
UGANDA	37	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
UVOLTA	38	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
ZAIREE	39	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
ZAMBIA	40	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1
ZIMBAM	41	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1

meaningful. Therefore, whenever generalizations are made to less developed countries , it is to this group of countries. This group is also revealed by the dendrogram using a cophenetic value of five. The various clusters are very clear (see Figure 3.B below. Appendix 3 gives a list of members in each cluster).

However, the methodology used here would have yielded much more interesting results if the total population of the less developed countries was used, instead of only the African countries. This suggests an area that calls for further study. As such, the model is at best a microcosm of the bigger model. Secondly, there were clear problems of obtaining data on some countries in Africa. It was either that data was too old or was not available. In the case of qualitative variables categorical data was used. This combination of nominal and categorical data makes the clustering technique less efficient. Thirdly, the number of clusters was arrived at heuristically. A suggestion here would be to determine this by taking the number of clusters against the fusion or the amalgamation coefficient [this is the numerical value at which various cases merge to form a cluster]. Finally, it should be noted that depending on the clustering method used, different groupings would have emerged using the same data. This suggests that the results should be understood within the context for which they are intended.

Description of the " Less Developed Countries".

Luqmani and Quraeshi [1984] suggests a grid for classifying countries based on the market orientation and the business infrastructure.

Figure 3.8.

CENDROGRAM USING AVERAGE LINKAGE (BETWEEN GROUPS)

                        RESCALED DISTANCE CLUSTER COMBINE

      C A S E   0   5   10   15   ·20   25
      LABEL   SEQ   +---------+---------+---------+---------+---------+

      MALIII   20   -I
      NIGERR   25   -I
      CHADDD   5   -I-I
      MALAWI   19   -I I
      UVOLTA   38   -I I
      SLEONE   31   ---I
      SENEGA   28   -I I
      SUDANN   29   -I-I-I
      TANZAN   36   -I I I
      MAUNIA   22   ---I I
      MOROCC   23   -I-I I
      SOMALI   30   -I I-I-I
      TUNISI   35   ---I I I
      LESOTH   15   -----I I
      UGANDA   37   -I-I   I

      ZAIREE   39   -I I   I
      ETHIOP   8   ---I---I
      ZAMBIA   40   ---I   I
      KENYAA   14   -I   I------I
      MOZAMB   24   -I   I   I
      TOGOOO   34   -I-I   I   I
      IVCOAS   13   -I I-I I   I
      CONGOO   6   -I I I I   I
      ZIMBAM   41   -I-I I-I   I
      GHANAA   11   -I   I   I
      RWANDA   27   -----I   I-I
      EGYPTT   9   -----I------I I
      NIGERI   26   -----I   I I----------I
      BURUND   4   -------------I I   I
      ANGOLA   1   ---I------- I   I   I
      BENINN   3   ---I   I---I   I-I
      GAMBIA   10   -----I----I   I I
      GUINEA   12   -----I   I I
      EQGUIN   7   -----------I-------------I I
      LIBYAA   17   ------------I   I--------------I
      ALGERI   2   ------------I-------------I   I
      SAFRIC   33   ------------I   I   I
      SWAZIL   32   ----------------------------I   I-------]
      MADAGA   18   ---I   ]
      LIBERI   16   ---I   ‌
      MAURIT   21   --‌

Figure 3.C: Grid for classifying the less developed countries.

	Business Infrastracture.	
	Relatively Weak	Relatively Strong.
Highly Traditional	Inert	Bridled
Less Traditional	Restive	Threshold

Marketing Orientation

Using the knowledge of Zambia provided in the previous chapter, and the data collected in classifying the less developed countries, the group of less developed countries defined here can be classified in the "Restive" category. This group of less developed countries can be described as having less traditional markets and as more prone to change but constrained in their market development effort because of a weak business infrastructure. For example, the physical and institutional resources such as facilitative financial institutions, distribution channels, and communication media systems are undeveloped . These markets are usually characterized by demand exceeding the supply for most goods. The revealed macro and micro characteristics suggests the following customer, supply, channel, communication and product related characteristics.

Table 3.F : Market characteristics and their implications in the less developed countries.

Marketing Characteristic.	Level of Characteristic.	Marketing Implications.
Customer Related. a. Acceptance of new products.	Moderate	Product availability Investments in plant & marketing vital.
b. Purchasing Knowledge	High	Will respond to brand /company information Source of information word of mouth & family.
c. Frequency of convenience product purchases.	Lower	Need to touch & feel Packages opened to see level of contents.
d. Frequency of high value items.	Low	High need for repair and maintenance services.
e. Credit perceptions	Favour credit but no facilities	Possibility of offering credit facilities through

Cont../

		company resources.
Supply Related. a. Price negotiations.	Moderate	Coordinate prices supply. Protect consumers through price ceilings for essentials.
b. Competition.	Low government monopolies.	Plan for increased competition with regional trade-SADCC
Channel Related. a. Channel length.	Long	Good protective packaging to avoid shrinkage & spoilage
b. Channel control.	Medium	Difficulty to develop national distribution.
c. Size and operations	Medium	Autonomous family oriented units. Personal linkages important.
Communication Related. a. Mode of	Formal/informal	Personal selling

communication.		important because of word of mouth messages must identify primary/ social groups.
b. Literacy rate	Low	Use simple messages illustrations, repetitive advertising. Build brand loyalty and company image.
c. Media availability	Radio, Television print and Cinema	Reach urban are through multimedia exposures, rural areas through broad cast and print.
Product Related. a. Product line	Some	Limited because of supply constraints.
b. Product Life Cycle depth.	Long duration	Growth stage crucial Need to expand supply to meet increased selective demand.

Cont.../

c. Product branding	Brand recognition/ preference	Potential for family branding. Build loyalty.

Adapted from Luqmani and Quraeshi [1983; p.264].

Summary and Conclusions.

This chapter has reviewed literature on the role of marketing in the economic development process, and has classified the less developed countries that show similarities with Zambia in terms of the level of market sophistication and economic development. This can be regarded as a conceptual extension of Sethi's (1971) work. From this chapter two important points can be drawn.

First, copious literature shows the link between marketing and economic development. The task that should now concern marketing scholars is how to convince government planners , in practical terms, about the contribution marketing could make to the economic development process. The normative studies that have inundated marketing journals have merely served to make planners in these countries aware of the importance of marketing. Unfortunately, only the early adopters have heeded this revelation. Unless other measures are taken to show the benefits of marketing to the late adopters and the laggards, marketing will still remain undeveloped in the less developed countries. Consequently, this will deny these countries the supporting marketing infrastructure necessary for the economic

development process. The problem as posed in this chapter, is purely one of diffusing innovation in societies that have been concerned for too long with the supply side rather than the manipulation of the demand variables. In this way it is hoped to foster economic development.

The second point that emerges from this paper, is that marketing researchers in less developed countries need to be more exacting by defining the group of homogeneous countries to which their studies could be generalised . This has been proved to be very important because the implicit assumption in many marketing studies which states that the less developed countries are homogeneous, has been shown in this chapter to be true only in exceptional cases. Otherwise depending on the area of inquiry, different groupings of countries could be found to exist.

In this study, a group of countries with similar attributes to Zambia have been identified, and these are the countries which will be referred to as the less developed countries for the purposes of the study. Though there might be differences among countries in this group, to a large extent this has been minimized to a level, in order that reasonable inferences of similarities in consumer behaviour can be made. This would seem to be acceptable, as even at the individual country level further segmentation based on differences in consumer behaviour could be made. In the next chapter the nature of consumer behaviour in these countries, which are at the same level of development, is reviewed and analysed.

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CHAPTER FOUR.

UNDERSTANDING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN THE LESS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES.

Aim of The Chapter.

In chapter four, the less developed countries were defined and the role marketing plays in economic development discussed . This chapter will review current literature on consumer behaviour in the less developed countries. The main aim will be is to demonstrate the paucity of empirical consumer behaviour research in the less developed countries, and reflect the difference in consumer behaviour between these and the developed countries. It is argued that these differences reveal the difficulties involved in simply extrapolating existing consumer behaviour models to the less developed countries. The second part of the chapter considers the influence of culture and environmental factors on consumer behaviour as additional factors which make it difficult to use models developed in Western countries. The final part of the chapter gives a critique on the use of the comprehensive models in the less developed countries. The chapter concludes with clear pointers of the need to provide empirical consumer behaviour data in the less developed countries.

Consumer Behaviour in the Less Developed Countries.

To review consumer behaviour in the less developed countries is a daunting, task as literature in this field is scanty and usually impressionistic. This review is organized around the stages in the purchase decision process, starting with information gathering and moving to post-purchase activities. The aim of the section is to show how consumer behaviour in the less developed countries tends to differ from that of developed countries, hence calling for the need to investigate and model consumer behaviour in these countries from a different perspective. The purchase decision making model around which the discussion will be based is depicted in Figure 4.A.

Sources of Information and Information Processing Behaviour.

In general information theory , consumers are usually depicted as depending on previous experience and current information to solve purchase problems. Engel, Warshaw and Kinnear [1979] suggest that depending on the purchase situation, different sources of information will be used: routine purchases call for the use of previous experience and novel purchases require external sources of information. However, if internal search fails in routine purchases, external searching behaviour is usually engaged in. The external sources ordinarily include personal, general mass communication and the marketer dominated sources such as advertising and personal selling.

FIGURE 4-A
Stages in the consumer
decision process
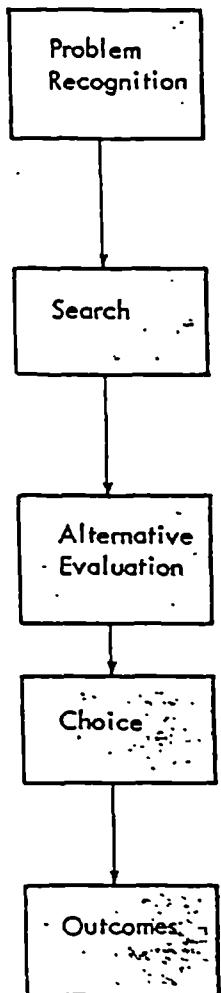
Source: James F. Engel, Roger D. Blackwell, and
David T. Kollat, Consumer Behavior, 3d ed. (Hinsdale,
Ill.: The Dryden Press, 1978), p. 22.

A good source of the most used sources of information in the less developed countries is media studies. In this area various reports exist. For example, Swarn [1976] in Zambia and Axinn and Axinn [1966] in Nigeria , report that in the villages radios were not regarded as a source of information, for they had a different significance for the various sex and age groups. To the men a radio was regarded as a symbol of status and not as a source of information! This suggests that the radio would, for instance, only be turned on when there are visitors.

In Kenya , a study by Marco Surveys [1976] found that newspaper readership was related to income and social class, with the high class consumers reading newspapers more frequently than the lower classes. Radio listening was common to both, while television tended to be mostly among high class and males. A possible explanation for this is accessibility, as the poor could not afford televisions but only radios. However, the work of Waruingi [1981] in the same country shows that personal sources rather than marketer-dominated sources were more important . This work [which is based on empirical observations] seems to make sense, as in these countries the literacy rate and incomes are low, suggesting a greater emphasis on sources that do not require formal education [as newspapers , and magazines would]. In this instance, store information was found to be important, as consumers engaged mostly in price comparison, which also reflects the low incomes.

In spite of these sources of information, Thorelli [1968] and Munn [1966] report that in Nigeria and Kenya, information was poor, scarce and badly distributed. As such, information in these countries is intensely valued by sellers and buyers. This is important because in bargaining, the party with an advantage over the other in terms of information, has more chance of making a better deal [Hakanson, 1982]. This had earlier led Thorelli [1982] to conclude that information search behavior was " laborious, uncertain, complex and irregular" in the less developed countries. However, he suggests that this is mainly a function of the marketing system, which is fraught with high risk caused by market structural problems in these countries. These structural problems tend to reflect the lack of quality control in the local manufacturing companies, the predatory practices of the sellers, and the malpractices [short weights and adulteration] prevalent in these markets [Swarn, 1976; Hawkins,1966; Westfall and Boyd,1960; Fazal,1975 ; and Thorelli, 1981].

In addition, the activity of information gathering is reported to be very important in these countries, as it has the function of reducing market risks. This also tends to be important as the marginal utility of income for the consumers in less developed countries is high [Baker, 1965; Omana, 1965]. As Engels Law suggests, these households spend a high proportion of their income on food [Gillis, Perkins, Roemer and Snodgrass, 1983]. As such, Omana [1965] points out that, "each foray in the market is done with deliberation and conscious intent. Shopping is done seriously and planned". He explains this as important because the mistake of buying a product at a higher

price or at a lower quality than desired, could have serious consequences for a family living below minimum subsistence levels. Consumers in less developed countries hence tend to substitute time to save money and treat any product as a search good [Munn,1966; Fayerweather,1965; and Thorelli and Sentell, 1982]. This tends to be contrary to the contention by Wind [1967] that, regardless of the culture, consumers tend to behave as information systems.

The Purchase Process.

The purchase process involves the decision stages that a consumer goes through in making a purchase. Reports that sketch the decision stages are scarce in the less developed countries. The common aspects mentioned usually involve the purchase patterns and the act of purchase. For example, in many reports on consumer behaviour in less developed countries, it is often reported that consumers make frequent trips to shops [refer to Thorelli,1965; Thorelli and Sentell,1982]. Yavas, Kaynak and Borak [1981] report that:

> " previous studies have shown that consumers in developing countries shop for food products rather frequently and that they divide their food purchases among several store types"[p.370].

However, this tends to be more true for frequently purchased products and at times when product shortages do not exist. Waruingi found the frequency of purchases to be once per week in Kenya. The reasons given for this high frequency are the lack of refridgeration, the hand - to - mouth consumption patterns dictated by low levels of income, and significance of the

shopping centers as places of excitement and meeting places where gossip and news are exchanged. This makes the consumers hasten back regularly [Thorelli and Sentell, 1982].

This would seem to suggest that in these countries frequent purchases imply small quantities bought each time, so this would require breaking up the bulk of most products in order to sell in appropriate quantities [Still and Hill, 1984].

Another aspect of purchase behaviour, usually mentioned in most consumer behaviour literature on less developed countries is the existence of haggling in these markets. The practice of haggling over prices is said to be widespread in retail outlets and open markets, and plays an important function in these markets [Geertz, 1978]. Waruingi suggests that haggling exists because of the flexible pricing policies , the non-standardization of weights and measures, and the lack of effective media to provide information to buyers and sellers about the demand and supply situations.

This suggests that purchases in the less developed countries are made on an interpersonal basis, and that it would be advantageous if this personal interaction was encouraged in the retail setting. This could be nurtured and allowed to develop into long term relationships, which would eventually result in the emergency of store loyalty [which is a related factor of brand loyalty].

Finally, Waruingi reports the following factors in order of importance, influence where a person shops: price, friendly service, choice of goods available, reputation of the store owner, availability of credit, trust in sellers, and the location of the shop. This indicates that price is not only a major determinant of purchases, [as will be discussed in the next paragraph], but is also an equally important attribute in determining where purchases are made. Therefore, the most popular shops would seem to be those that charge low prices like the state-owned shops.

Determinants of Consumer Behaviour.

Wind [1967], suggests that this component of consumer behaviour is culture sensitive, that is, it is expected to be greatly influenced by common traditional practices which have evolved in society in order to solve the problems related with consumption. The following determinants are usually identified in literature.

Firstly, income is widely documented as the most important determinant of purchases in the less developed countries. This is based on Engels Law that at low income levels, consumer households tend to spend a high proportion of their income on food, leaving only a very small portion as discretionary income. As a result, this tends to make them very sensitive to prices. This would seem to make sense because by definition the less developed countries are poor and their limited consumption will be mainly directed torwards necessities, and this may exhaust their buying power completely [Parkinson, 1985]. This suggests

that in terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs , the average consumer in these countries is at level one, trying to satisfy the physiological needs of survival [see Table 4.A]. Support for the existence of this was found among black consumers in South Africa by Thorelli [1968], who discovered that consumption by South African blacks was a function of income. Hence Gillis et al [1983] concluded that:

> " very poor households devote more than half of their incomes to food and have relatively high income elasticities of demand for food.... At higher levels of income the share of income devoted to food falls to one quarter or less, and the income elasticity of food becomes quite low. Thus income is an important determinant of food consumption levels, particulary at low levels of household income".

With substitution effects this would suggest that even if there were strong preferences for particular brands, large price differences can cause substantial substitution of expensive products for cheaper ones, especially among the very poor [Gillis et al, 1983]. It could be postulated that at low levels of income, loyalty behaviour is very spurious in Zambia. Other instances where the importance of income was found to be significant are reviewed below.

Studies in Bangladeshi, Malaysia, and Kenya by Baron and Ginneken [1982] revealed the same importance of the influence of income on consumer behaviour . In Bangladeshi, the study showed that the total volume of purchases of soap tended to increase with income. The demand for soap tended to be higher for the high income [in urban areas] than the low income groups [in the rural areas]. The consumers in the rural areas, for example, ranked washing ability, and resistance to breakage [all economic attributes] as the most important attributes in a

Table 4.A: Distribution of Household Living Expenditure in Selected Countries.

	Food Drink	Housing	Fuel Power	Clothing & Footwear	Others
U.S.A	20.9	24.5	4.6	8.5	41.5
U.K.	29.9	20.5	5.5	9.0	35.1
West Germany	26.7	16.5	5.3	10.2	41.3
Uganda	60.3	6.3	3.1	7.8	23.5
Nigeria	49.5	6.8	7.0	11.3	25.4
Zambia	39.7	12.7	0.9	11.5	35.2

soap.

In the same report, the Malaysians attached more importance on economic considerations in the purchase of bicycles. For example, low price, and low maintenance costs were the most salient attributes valued in purchasing a bicycle. This was further reflected in the actual purchases, where the low income consumers bought fairly reliable and reasonably priced bicycles while the high income consumers purchased highly reliable and expensive bicycles.

The second determinant of purchases in the less developed countries is the desire for social status. It is reported in many articles on consumer behaviour in the less developed countries that the low class consumers in these countries usually emulate Western consumption patterns [Baker, 1965; Hawkins, 1970; Hollander, 1970; and Thorelli, 1968]. In South Africa the Blacks were reported to emulate whites in their purchases. In Zambia and Uganda, Bled [1969] and Kilbridge [1972] respectively, report that the consumers regard a radio as a symbol of status; that is a product that enhances social identity and desirability. In Nigeria, Baker [1965] reported that:

> " the Nigerian consumer may limit his food consumption
> to what is merely filling...[but] will almost certainly
> own at best a very expensive dress for special
> occassions, and while he may live in a simple mud hut,
> he might at the same time be a proud owner of a fine
> imported radio".

A similar comment is made by Harper [1975] in his work in Kenya where he studied spending patterns and the impact of the promotion of consumer goods. He reports that:

" It is not unusual to see a large new car parked outside a mud hut with grass roof, or to find people whose clothes are so ragged as to be scarcely decent spending their money on an expensive portable radio. Consumers are perhaps feeling their way towards a socially accepted pattern of expenditure" [p.219].

The same observations were made in Ghana, where contrary to expectations that low income consumers would buy low priced and durable shoes, it was found that expensive and high fashion imported shoes were bought more by low income groups than high income groups. The simple reason for this was that in all income groups shoes were mainly used for ceremonial occassions, and hence to maintain social desirability, expensive shoes were preferred [Barron and Ginneken, 1982].

These studies indicate that in the backward societies where incomes and the standards of living are low , the need to imitate the rest, or " keep up with the Joneses" is desirable. This motive for attaining a desirable level of social status is an important determinant of consumer behaviour in the less developed countries. This is an aspect which could be exploited in persuasive communications. Evidence for this is provided by Harper [1975] when he reports that the hypothesis that poorer people would have simpler needs could not be supported as the results showed a great diversity of needs. The results show the Kenyan respondents as having:

> " a desire for self-improvement as reflected in the choice of books, or investment in a business or farming enterprise, and expenditure on clothing... as the no-less-genuine desire for self-adornment" [p.218].

Again, in the work of Waruingi, information on the buying criteria of consumers was gathered. It was discovered that 90% of consumers felt that price was important, while 80% indicated the importance of brand reputation. The first criterion merely

emphasizes the importance of income as has already been noted. The second criterion gives an additional dimension of brand reputation as a determinant of purchases. Suggestions of the existence of this phenomenon seem to point to the low levels of education, and the lack of useful information in the evaluation of the attributes of products. As a result of this, consumers use brand name reputation as a cue for performance and quality [Waruingi,1981].

This suggests that consumers in these countries would tend to insist on one brand, in order to reduce the risk of buying a product that does not adequately meet their needs. Over a period of time this would become loyalty behaviour [Omana, 1965; Simon-Miller, 1983; and Hill and Still, 1984]. However, more work of an empirical nature is needed, as others like Munn [1966] have argued that " in Nigeria, brand insistence was as incongruous as it is meaningless when one is poor".

Observations from the exploratory study conducted in the U.K, tends to support the proposition that brand loyalty exists in the less developed countries because of low incomes, low education, under-development of the retailing institutions and the impact of culture. One of the objectives of this study is to empirically explore the existence of this construct in the less developed countries, and discover how individual, social and market structure variables influence it.

Finally, Blair [1965] gives occupation, income and education as the three most important variables associated with consumer behaviour in Africa. He argues that, in a complex but related

way, increased opportunities for well paid jobs and education have their consequent effects on buying habits.

Post - Purchase Behaviour.

The possible outcomes of behaviour are satisfaction or dissatisafaction. If the former is the case, the information is stored for future decisions, and after some time this would lead to what Engel, and Blackwell [1982] and Howard and Sheth [1969] refer to as routinized purchase behaviour. Under routinized purchase behaviour, the consumer is said to have learned to respond in a particular manner. This is made possible as the stored information from satisfactory purchases is used to revise the beliefs and attitudes towards the product hence affecting the chances of a repeat purchase. On the other hand, the possibility of dissonance, which is the negative motivation a consumer goes through after purchasing a product, suggests that the consumer would work to reduce it . They would do this by buying a product which they know would satisfactorily meet their needs, hence minimizing the anxiety that the product might not work as expected.

In a study by Aire [1971] in Nigeria, consumers were asked to indicate satisfaction or disatisfaction with various products and their probable intentions for repeat purchases. This study discovered that in general consumers were satisfied with their purchases, but indicated low satisfaction for textiles, electric bulbs and safety matches, [which tended to be technically backward, imitative and unsafe] and consequently these had low

repeat purchase potential.

In Kenya, Waruingi described the complaining consumer as the educated, high income, young and male persons. These were the groups which had high expectations of product quality and performance. Otherwise, with product shortages, dissonance would be low as the consumers have no choice.

In this section, the various aspects of consumer behaviour in the less developed countries have been discussed. These aspects clearly indicate that empirical consumer research is needed, and that behaviour in the less developed countries cannot be easily modelled by using the Western models of consumer behaviour. This problem is further complicated by the influence of culture, the socio - economic factors on consumer behaviour, and the various conceptual problems associated with the models. These are discussed in the remainder of the chapter.

Limitations on the Usefulness of Comprehensive Models in The Less Developed Countries.

Impact of Culture and Socio-economic factors on consumer behaviour .

To take a geocentric view that the consumers of the world are basically the same, is to suggest that consumer behaviour models developed in the Western countries can be used to describe, explain, and perhaps predict consumer behaviour in the less

developed countries. This approach would be valid if the less developed countries and the developed countries had similar cultures and socio - economic factors, or if these had no influence on consumer behaviour. However, an examination of a statistical compilation such as the World Development Report [1985], shows that the less developed differ greatly from the developed countries differ greatly on cultural and socio - economic dimensions. As evidence exists to support these differences,[refer to Hill and Still, 1984 and Buzzell, 1969] this section will concentrate on highlighting the influence of the environmental factors on consumer behaviour. It will then be suggested that these differences would also result in differences in consumer behaviour between the less developed and developed countries.

An appropriate starting point is the assertion by Wind [1967], that if consumer behaviour is divided into the buying process and the determinants of the buying decision, then it can be said that;

> " the act of purchasing is affected by the environment
> and the existing marketing institutions while the
> decision process is culture free, as people regardless
> of their cultural origin behave as information
> processing systems and have quite similar decision
> processes."

This suggests that ;

a] the decision process of consumers in the developed countries and the less developed countries is the same.

b] the determinants of consumer behaviour will differ between the developed countries and the less developed countries.

c] the act of purchasing will depend on the environment and the development of the marketing institutions.

The overall implication is that while the decision process might be the same in developed countries and less developed countries, the determinants of purchases and the purchase patterns would differ. Hence the Western consumer behaviour theories would be inappropriate in describing, explaining and predicting the behaviour of consumers in the less developed countries. Harper, [1975] cautions on " the apparent ease with which models of consumer behaviour and techniques of market analysis have been applied in environments so different from those in which they were developed" [216]. Walters and Paul [1970] earlier believed that their integrated framework of consumer behaviour would be of little significance for the under-developed countries. However, it should be pointed out that this would be more true for consumer packaged products such as foods, cosmetics and pharmerceuticals, which are extremely sensitive to cultural differences. This is different from the industrial products which are least affected by culture [Hill and Still, 1984].

The influence of culture on consumer behaviour can be identified from the definition of culture itself. Slightly different from Hobels definition given earlier, Wind [1967] looks at culture as:

> " the pattern of all those arrangements , material or behavioural, which have been learned and shared by the society as the traditional ways of solving the problems of its members".

Since consumption is an important activity in society, it could be suggested that different societies would develop different approaches in solving problems related to consumption, simply because of the cultural differences. However, it should not be taken to mean that consumer behaviour in a culture is homogeneous, as a culture usually has subcultures. This creates

into subgroups which might manifest differences in behaviour. For example, people in different age groups, racial groups etc, might portray distinct behavioral tendencies.

Various authors have argued on the determinance of culture on consumer behaviour. Kotler [1984] points out that:

> " Culture is the most fundamental determinant of a person's wants and that it provides patterns of perceptions, values and behaviour that have been found effective in helping his society adapt to its environment"[p.   ].

This suggests that culture is important in consumer behaviour as it determines the way people in society look at different consumption problems. In other words it provides the general framework within which decisions take place.

The influence of culture on consumer behaviour is also expounded by Boyd and Massy [1969]; Engel , Kollat and Blackwell [1978]; Engel and Blackwell [1982] and Warshaw and Kinnear [1978]. The central argument of these writers is that patterns of recurring experiences are learned and passed on through generations and shared by people in society. It is held that these beliefs and learned behaviours influence the individual's day to day interpersonal experiences, and by necessity affect their behaviour as consumers [Walters, 1976].

In their Theory of Buyer Behaviour, Howard and Sheth [1969] attempt to integrate the relationship by investigating how culture affects buyer behaviour through several intervening variables. They argued that:

" the values implicit in a culture are said to affect consumption motives which in turn partially set the choice criteria used by individual consumers."

This implies that since values affect the choice criteria then attitudes and brand comprehension are similarly affected as these are determined by values a consumer holds. Another suggestion that can be drawn from the work of Howard and Sheth [1969], is that culture can act as an intention inhibitor for the purchase of specific products.

The link between culture and consumer behaviour was largely conceptual until Walter [1976] tested it empirically. His study, undertken in the USA, was based on a generalised set of value dimensions, and the specific categories of a generic product [cars]. He concluded that the proposition that culture is an underlying determinant of consumer behaviour, holds true. This suggests that different cultures needed different models or adaptations if possible. This might explain some of the blunders reported by David Ricks in multinational companies. It would seem that some of these were caused by marketing managers, who failed to understand the tremendous variability in consumer purchasing experience and behaviour in developing countries [Hill and Still, 1984].

Secondly, the proposition that consumer behaviour would be influenced by socio - economic factors, is supported by the work of Hill and Still [1984]. Their work investigated how foreign companies modified products transferred to less developed countries, and why these adaptations were carried out. [This implicitly suggests the factors that influence consumer behaviour]. They found that the nature of the socio - economic

differences between developed countries and less developed countries required mandatory and optional product changes, and most of these referred to behavioral patterns of consumers.

For example, they argued that it was a mandatory product change to alter the size of the package when selling in less developed countries. The rationale for this was that consumer products in these countries were sold in smaller packages in order to suit consumers with limited discretionary incomes. Additionally, the existence of extended families in the less developed countries [see Ohadike, 1981], required larger serving sizes of about six to eight people. Also, the low consumer sophistication led to restrictions on different package sizes to avoid confusion. For example, Kenya, Malaysia and Singapore are reported to have legislated standard package sizes [Hill and Still, 1984].

Among the optional changes, which are mainly for improving market positioning, Hill and Still [1984] argue that product features have to be reconsidered when selling in the less developed countries:

> " because in these countries some of the features might be too advanced for less developed countries, marketing managers might have to look back to earlier stages of a product's life cycle for guidance"[p. 98].

To illustrate this point an example using detergents is given:

> " Low suds detergents designed for US washing machines are unsuitable for the less developed country markets, where hand washing is still common and consumers associate high suds with superior efficiency" [Hill and Still, 1984; p.98].

Another optional change they suggest is due to thesocial and political changes brought about by independence in the less developed countries. It is reported that in Central Africa, with the emergence of new social attitudes since independence,

complexion creams were no longer sold as " skin lighteners" but as " skin conditioning creams".

In addition to this, because of illiteracy and backwardness of the society, consumers in rural Africa were reported to totally ignore advertising product features:

> " In Africa the skin protection features of petroleum jelly are subordinate to its cosmetic appeal. Because they find it beautiful, rural Africans apply petroleum jelly all over the body except the face" [Hill and Still, 1984; p.100].

More significantly, the low levels of literacy also meant that usage instructions had to be changed. This is important as :

> " Rural Africans had trouble understanding that Vaseline care lotion is " absorbed" into the skin. The manufacturer Chesebrough Ponds, settled on the verb " soaks" as the nearest, most comprehensive meaning".

However, the existence of low literacy and low purchasing power in rural African areas, should not be a deterrent for entering these markets. This is because companies who invest in these areas are given an opportunity for cultivating brand loyalty. The reason for this is that as these areas get monetized, the low class consumers are unlikely to experiment with unknown brands; " multinational companies that work to build consumer loyalties early have more advantages than their competitors later on " [Hill and Still, 1984; p.100].

In conclusion, consumer preferences in the work of Hill and Still [1984] accounted for about a third of the total product changes needed when selling in the less developed countries [the other important factors being low income and literacy]. These factors suggest differences in socio - economic factors between developed and less developed countries, which have to be

considered in consumer behaviour theory transfer. However, to fully understand these empirical findings from Hill and Still [1984], the nature of their methodology has to be kept in mind . They gathered information from managers of multinational companies at subsdiaries and head quarters. However, it is usually very rare for these companies to conduct any marketing research [this was found to be the case in the exploratory study carried out in UK]. Therefore, most of these observations on consumer aspects represent the mere impressions of the multinational managers. However , these observations do serve to indicate the shortcomings one might face in adopting a geocentric approach to understanding the behaviour of consumers in the international markets, and in particular the less developed countries. This implies that to represent consumer behaviour by using models from Western countries would be inappropriate. The one option open to companies willing to understand LDC consumer behaviour, is to adapt these models to the less developed countries. This option nevertheless is a tremendous task as most of the consumer behaviour models have inherent conceptual problems. The various models, and their advantages and disadvantages are discussed below. The limitations of space only allows the discussions of Nicosia's l [1966], Howard and Sheth's [1969], Engel, Kollat and Blackwell's [1978] and the Fishbein [1980] models. These models are in no way embracing, but are merely indicative of the progress and the direction that marketing research on buyer behaviour is taking.

The Nicosia Model.

Nicosia [1966], made one of the early attempts at introducing order to the disparate theories of consumer behaviour. His model evolves around the sequences that consumers follow, after becoming aware that a particular product exists. Using previous theories in the behavioural sciences relevant to consumer behaviour, he synthesised this knowledge into a set of variables, forming a model that looked at the consumer and the selling firm as being in a dyad. In this manner he emphasizes the decision process that preceeds the purchase act, and the feedback that follows. This is depicted in Figure 4.C.

Figure 4.C; Dyadic Relationship between Sellers and Consum ers.
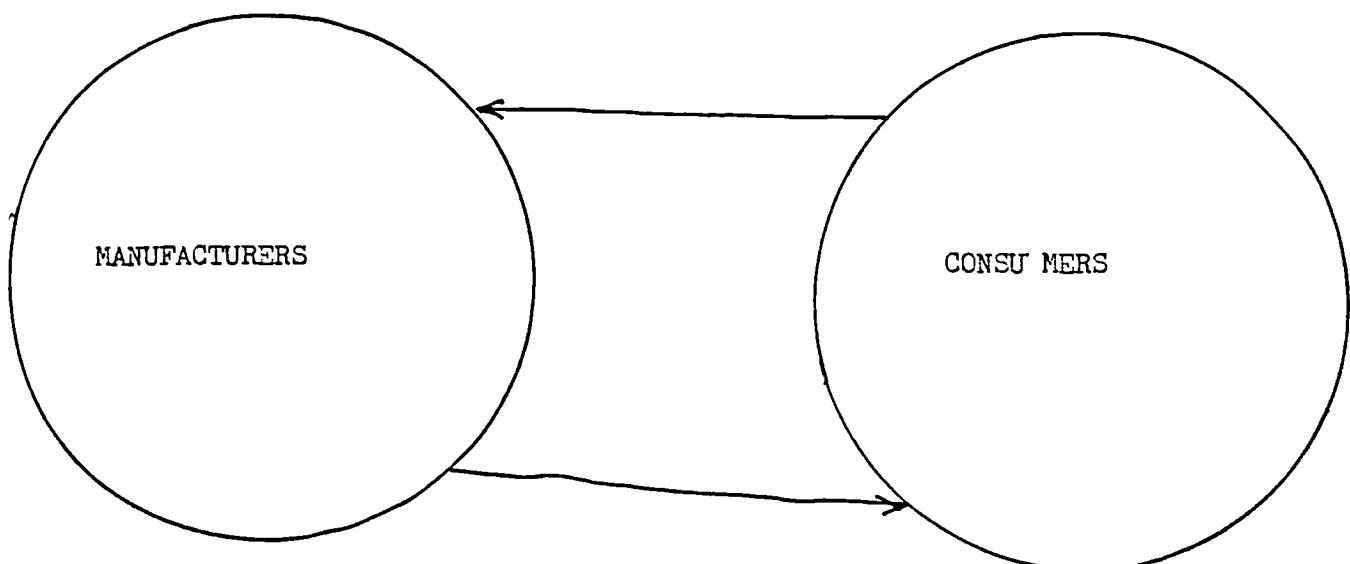
Nicosia conceptualised his model as consisting of four, fields or stages, that a consumer goes through. In the first field, the consumer receives the message of a product with which he has no previous experience. At this stage, the consumers attributes and that of the firm interact to form an attitude towards the product. If the attitude is positive, field two is entered, and there the consumer is said to engage in problem solving activities. These usually include searching and evaluating means and ends relationships. This stage leads to a heightened state of motivation in which the consumer decides whether to make a purchase or not [field three]. Field four is the feedback to the consumer and to the firm. The Nicosia model is depicted in Figure 4 .D.

This model suggests that the act of purchasing is only a component of a complex, on going process of decision making [Lunn, 1974]. Secondly, the feedback points to the importance of experiential information to the consumers for future purchases as it directly impacts on predispositions towards the product. To the firm the feedback has implications for future communications to consumers.

FIGURE 4.D : **Summary Flowchart of the Nicosia Model of Consumer Decision Processes** Source: Francesco M. Nicosia, *Consumer Decision Processes* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966), 156.

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

Field two: Search for and evaluation of means end(s) relation(s) (preaction field)

Search evaluation

Experience

Motivation

Field four Feedback

Consumption storage

Decision (action)

Field three: Act of purchase

Purchasing behavior

However, the Nicosia model has problems related to its conceptualization. Firstly, the model makes an explicit portrayal of the consumer going through various decision stages, in attempts to approximate an optimum solution. It is the assumption that the consumer tends to be unfamiliar with the product, that places limitations on the broad applicability of the model. The model only seems to be applicable to newly introduced products, or high value items on the market [Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1973; Walters, 1974; and Lunn, 1974]. In this manner it fails to cater for consumer behaviour for frequently purchased products.

The second problem is that Nicosia makes use of familiar phenomenon from the behavioural sciences, but does not explain how these interact. Williams [1976], concludes that this renders the model descriptive rather than explanatory. This means that the model is of less pragmatic value for marketing managers.

Thirdly, variables like attitudes and motivation are poorly defined [Lunn, 1974; Walter, 1974], and the influence of culture, and socio - economic factors, important because they influence behaviour, are not considered in the model [Walter, 1974]. This makes the model country specific, and of little value in other environments. Ehrenberg, also suggests that the formulation of the model is overly ambitious.

Though the Nicosia model has been at best described as a single brand choice model, and hence fails to grapple with the multi - brand and multi - purpose situations, it is felt that the

revelation of the interaction between the firm and the consumer is a relationship that calls for further attention in consumer behaviour research.

The Engel, Kollat and Blackwell Model.

Engel, Kollat and Blackwell originally proposed their model of consumer behaviour in 1968, and have since revised it in 1973, 1978 and the recent 1982 version is a slightly distinct Engel and Blackwell model. This constant revision of the model has increased its comprehensiveness, as the new developments in the field of consumer behaviour have been incorporated in the model.

In their earlier model, Engel, Kollat and Blackwell [1973] portrayed the consumer as a decision making unit, engaged in the ongoing process of searching, evaluating and purchasing the product [Lunn, 1974]. The main features of the model are information processing, the decision process, environmental influences and the central control unit [see the model in Figure 4.E].

In essence, the model postulates that from adequate arousal a consumer recognizes the existence of a problem. Information to assist is received from external stimuli, enters the consumer's central processing unit [the consumer's mind], and is processed. The interactions that occur between the new information, attitudes, personality, beliefs, past experience and the influence of environmental factors leads to an intention and a purchase [for high involvement situations].

Figure 4.E: The Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Model of Consumer Behaviour.

Information processing

Information input

Stimuli,
Mass
Personal
General
Narketer-
dom nated

Exposure → Attention → Reception

A C T I V E
M E M O R Y

Search

Decision process stages

Information and experience → Problem recognition → Search → Alternative evaluation → Choice → Outcomes

Dissonance / Satisfaction

Product brand evaluations

Evaluative criteria

Beliefs → Attitudes → Intention

General motivating influences

Motives

Personality life style

Normative compliance

Internalized environmental influences

Cultural norms and values

Reference group, family

Anticipated circumstances

Unanticipated circumstances

The advantages with the model are that, like the Nicosia model, it emphasizes decision making. Secondly, a form of their model was developed for routine shopping behaviour, which also implicitly includes loyal behaviour. They called this behaviour habituation.

The disadvantages of this model is that it is overly mechanical and rational in its conceptualization of the decision process consumers go through. It depicts the consumer as a rational animal [Daubek, 1981]. Secondly, it is unclear from the linkages of the construct if or how the environment is related to the central control unit, or to the external stimuli entering the system. In addition it seems that the internal needs and motivations are not specified in the model. Lunn [1974] also points out that the relationships in the model were not expressed in a mathematical form, suggesting the need for a simulation of the model to be formulated [Walter, 1974].

In their later models in 1978 and 1982 most of these disadvantages have been eliminated. For example in the Engel and Blackwell model [1982], an attempt at quantifying and mathematically expressing the model is made. One also finds that the concepts which were grouped have been specified in more detail and the various linkages in the model have been clarified. In this model, loyal behaviour is discussed under choice. The authors imply that loyalty influences intention or behaviour. However, the construct of loyalty is not explicitly included in the model, its location is not stated [Daubek, 1981] and its correlates are largely unknown.

The Howard and Sheth Model.

The Howard and Sheth model [1969] which is largely an extension of the Howard model, is in many respects similar to the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model. For example the model is individual and represents the consumer as a decision making unit, and both of them are based on the stimulus - response learning theory. The Howard and Sheth model however tends to be more explicit on the learning theory. They hold that the buying process in which most consumers engage in, is more or less repetitive brand choice behaviour. They support this by pointing out the numerous purchase cycles that consumers go through over time for various products. Therefore, the theory they put forward incorporates this dynamism over time, suggesting that with repetitive brand choice decisions, the consumers will learn to simplify the task by routinizing the decision process. This implies that over time there are possibilities of brand insistence resulting in the emergence of loyal behaviour. They explain the consumer decision process as follows [see Figure 4.F for the model]: when the consumer is buying a brand for the first time he has no previous knowledge, and does not know the other alternative brands in the evoked set, and therefore has no well defined choice criteria. The only thing possible is for the consumer to generalize from similar past experiences, physical similarities, or when a common umbrella brand name is used or when the brand mark is similar.

FIGURE 4-F : Simplified Version of the Howard-Sheth Model of Buyer Behavior   Source: John A. Howard and Jagdish N. Sheth, *The Theory of Buyer Behavior* (New York: John Wiley, 1969), 30.
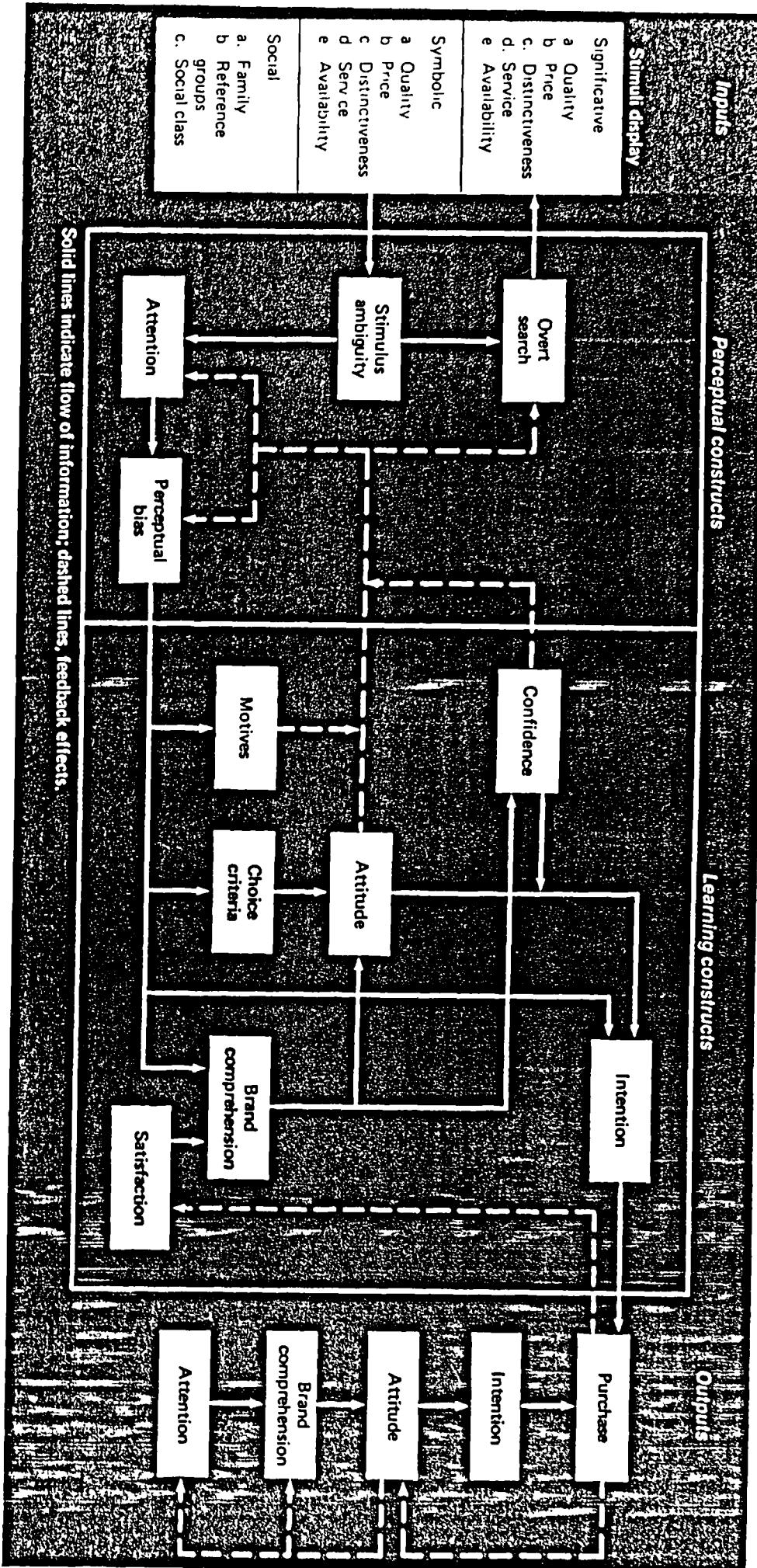
The result of this is to enable the consumer to develop an ad-hoc choice criteria in order to choose a brand that has some potential of satisfying some motive. If the chosen brand is satisfying its potential of being purchased in later periods is increased. As the brand is repetitively purchased, the consumer tends to learn about buying in that situation. This leads to a routinized decision process under which, once a motive is triggered, purchase automatically follows. This implies the development of choice criteria, which leads the consumer to have strong brand preferences. In this case, Howard and Sheth [1969] tend to look at loyal behaviour as the result of the routinized decision process.

A unique feature of the Howard and Sheth model [1969] is the method by which the type of purchase behaviour is determined, based on the extent of the problem solving required. They distinguish extended problem solving, limited problem solving and routinized response behaviour [Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1973].[these are discussed in detail in the next chapter]. In addition to this Engel, Kollat and Blackwell [1973], observed that the comprehensiveness and the diversity of the Howard and Sheth [1969] model, provides a multiplicity of variables linked in a precise way to form a hypothesized relationship, which approaches the rigor of a formal theory. The last advantage is that this model has a more comprehensive set of constructs, with a more precise and testable linkage, than the Nicosia and Engel, Kollat and Blackwell models. This is supported from the quantifications of the model by Farley and Ring [1974], and Grazin [1979], while no similar attempts have been made on the

other models.

On the other hand Daubek [1981] points out that some constructs are inadequately explained. He specifically illustrates the distinction between the hypothetical and the measurable constructs is perplexing, that the complexity of the model causes quantification problems, and that some constructs could be added or improved [also see Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1973; and Walters, 1974].

Another model that deserves mention is the theory of reasoned action [Fishbein, 1980]. This theory is an improvement of Fishbein and Ajzen's [1975] attitude - toward - object and behaviour models. The theory of reasoned action is based on the tricomponent attitude model [see model in Figure 4.G]. The only difference here is that the theory arranges these components into a model which is supposed to allow for better explanation and prediction of behaviour. This model is represented in Figure 4.H.

This model suggests that the best predictor of consumer behaviour [purchase], is the intention to buy. These intentions are revealed from a consumer's attitude towards behaviour and the subjective norm. Subjective norm is defined as the consumer's feelings as to what relevant others, such as family and friends, would think of the contemplated behaviour. In turn, these attitudes are usually a result of beliefs that certain behaviour will result in certain desired consequences, and the evaluations of the outcomes. On the other hand, the subjective norms can be traced back to the normative beliefs the

FIGURE 4.6 : **A Modified Single-Component Attitude Model** Source: Adapted from Richard J. Lutz, "The Role of Attitude Theory in Marketing," in Harold H. Kassarjian and Thomas S. Robertson, eds., *Perspectives in Consumer Behavior*, 3rd ed. (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1981), 235.
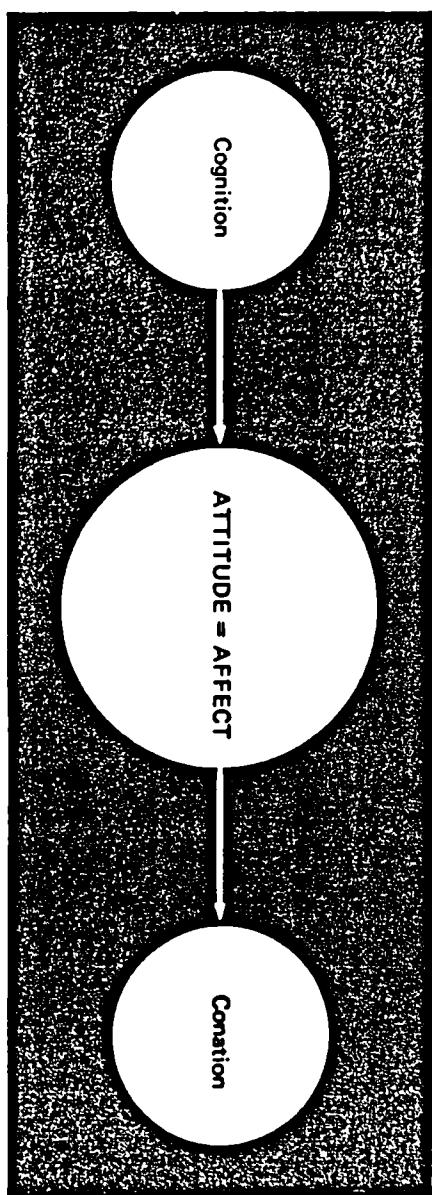
FIGURE 4-H: A Simplified Version of the Theory of Reasoned Action
Source Adapted from Icek Ajzen and Martin Fisnbein *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior* (Englewood Cliffs, N J Prentice-Holl, 1980), 84.

Beliefs that the behavior leads to certain outcomes

Evaluation of the outcomes

Attitude toward the behavior

Beliefs that specific referents think I should or should not perform the behavior

Motivation to comply with the specific referents

Subjective norm

Intention
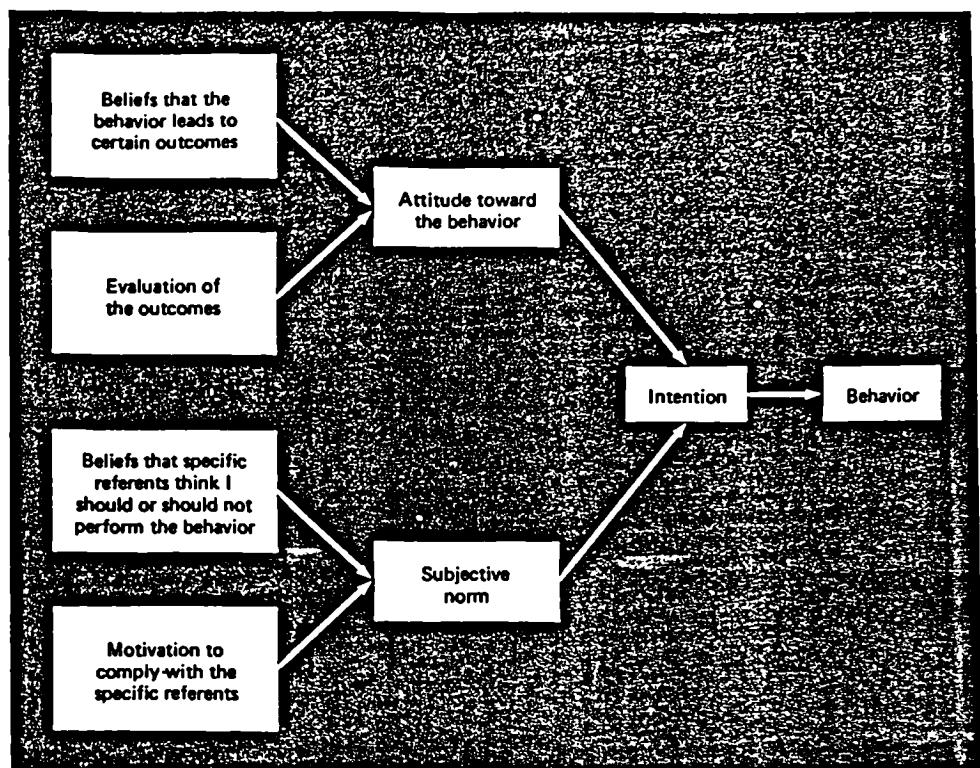
Behavior

individual attributes to the relevant others, as well as his willingness to comply with them.

The capability of predicting consumer behaviour is not common to the other comprehensive models. However, it is this which makes the model weak, as it tends to be only appropriate to the high involvement situations. This is because it is only under these conditions that beliefs about a brand lead to attitudes, intentions and purchase. When the purchase decision is routinized, as would be the case for frequently purchased products, this model becomes inappropriate and too rational. Besides, it could be argued that, in the less developed countries, this model would have serious shortcomings. This is because even if a consumer develops a high attitude and intention for a particular brand, purchase would not automatically follow as this would depend on availability of the product. This would suggest brand switching behaviour in these countries, curtailing the predictive capabilities of the model.

Overall evaluation of the comprehensive models.

This section evaluates the comprehensive models in a holistic manner and provides further evidence of the problems with these models. It is these problems which make theory transfer very difficult.

Firstly, the comprehensive models have been criticised for using an ecclectic approach in building the models. This is because the method builds on the knowledge from the behavioural

sciences, as a basis for modelling behaviour of the consumers on the market. To Foxall [1984], this approach is daunting as the level of analysis, conceptual understandings, methodologies and objectives of the psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, and economists are at different levels. For example, concepts like behaviour or action are used to fit the theoretical, conceptual, and methodological aims of the user [Foxall, 1984; and Williams, 1976]. This suggests that the constructs borrowed from different fields are bound to bring confusion, as they tend to be remote from the area of consumer behaviour. Foxall cautions that, in most cases, these concepts are not known to the behavioural scientists in the parent discipline, let alone in marketing. A good example of this can be seen from the Howard and Sheth model in which variables from the behavioural sciences are used without any thought as to how they are related.

Despite these criticisms, it seems that the eclectic approach typifies the level of development of the theories of consumer behaviour. As the criticisms would seem to show, time is ripe for the constructs in the various models to be given close attention and rigorously investigated to establish consistences in their linkages. Time is also ripe for taking the models in other environments for universal applications.

Cannon [1973] arguing, from a Popperian point of view, points out that " any scientific inquiry should have law - like relations among variables from which predictions can be made". He further posits that these hypothesized relationships must be testable, by comparing them to corresponding relations among empirical facts. This requires the variables to be specified in

such a way as to permit their operationalization, thus testing the models on the principle of falsifiability [also see Foxall, 1984; and Howard and Sheth, 1969].

Contrary to this, it is common to find that in the comprehensive models no attempts have been made to operationalize the variables. Tuck [1976], for example, points out that the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model [1978] introduces personality variables and culture,[and also in the Howard and Sheth model 1969], but one searches in vain to find out how the variables could be measured for empirical testing of the models. This common problem of including variables in the models without any explicit suggestions as to how they can be operationalized, has rendered testing of these models difficult, and any attempts at adaptations likely to meet the same fatal consequences. Consider, for example, the abortive attempts of Farley and Ring [1974] to test the Howard and Sheth model [1969]. They reported that:

> " the relationship involving the informational, exogeneous variables were universally unsatisfactory, probably that section of the model involving the attention variables should be respecified, and that better measures of exogeneous variables are needed".

In another attempt at testing the models, Baron [1975] found it exceedingly difficult to obtain estimates for many of the implied relationships. Foxall [1984] observes that the data from such attempts did not fit the models.

Further, the comprehensive models have been criticised for not being as comprehensive as the term would imply. In this respect, the Nicosia model [1966] may be considered. This limits itself to describing the relationships between the

marketer-dominated communications related to the introduction of novel product, the narrow emphasis placed on brand choice by the Howard and Sheth model [1969], and the high involvement orientation of the Fishbein, Ajzen model [1980]. This suggests that the models are not best suited for understanding purchase behaviour of unbranded products like houses, commodities, or when the consumer does not consider brand to be an important attribute in the purchase decision [Tuck, 1976]. As a consequence, this makes the comprehensive models fall short on one of the conditions of a good theory: that a high level of information content is essential for the power of the theory to be able to explain a large set of events. Consequently this makes the comprehensive models weak on explanatory power.

Again, Williams [1976], in his work on individual information theory, criticizes the comprehensive models because they tend to study behaviour at aggregate levels. He argued that this has tended to dilute the individual differences, and does not hold true on an individual or a case by case basis, and therefore cannot be said to be a characteristic of the individual. He maintained that this was a result of the personification of aggregate properties, by attributing them to a hypothetical " statistical individual". It is this spurious attribution of the aggregate empirically demonstrated analysis of consumer behaviour to the individual level, which poses problems when builders of comprehensive models state that these representations of descriptions of the purchase decision, are of individual buyers.

Though Williams identifies this to be a potential epistemological problem arising from taking averages, he does not explain the magnitude of the problem. This is important because the statistical individual might show no significant differences with the real individual. Moreover, looking at consumer behaviour from a purely micro perspective would introduce too many models due to individual differences. As such, an approach that uses aggregates and hypothesizes on individual buyer behaviour, is considered to be more comprehensive.

In all, it would seem that the comprehensive models have a distinct contribution to make to the field of consumer behaviour, but in their approach tend to take a holistic approach in understanding consumer behaviour, and this has posed serious problems. The problems associated with the comprehensive models, makes any efforts at testing or adapting them to the less developed countries beyond the scope allowed by this study.

In the light of these problems inherent in the models of consumer behaviour, this study will investigate loyal purchase behaviour, and attempt to provide insights into the nature of the construct, and the factors closely related to it in the less developed countries. This attempt at modelling loyalty behaviour in the less developed countries, is seen to be a more desirable approach than directly testing the applicability, or adapting the models. This is because these models have problems in their specifications. Besides, modelling loyal behaviour is

considered important, because brand choice behaviour forms the core of most of the comprehensive models, where the consumer is depicted as going through a learning process, the end result of which might be brand insistence. Overtime this purchase process becomes routinized, and brand loyalty emerges [see Howard and Sheth, 1969]. Therefore, examining the existence of brand loyalty behaviour, also tests the existence of brand choice behaviour on which the comprehensive models are based.

Conclusion.

This chapter discussed the nature of consumer behaviour in the less developed countries, and the problems faced by any attempts to use models from the Western countries to understand behaviour in these countries. A number of conclusions can be drawn from this chapter.

First, from the literature review, the consumers in the less developed countries tend to value personal sources of information [word - of - mouth], more than marketer dominated sources [probably due to low education levels]. Because of the haggling over prices, practiced especially in the open markets, such information is valued tremendously. Additionally, this information acts as a safeguard against buying the wrong product. Another conclusion that can be made, is on the determinants of purchase behaviour in these countries. Income, and social status seem to be the main determinants of purchases. From this review, it could be concluded that the decision process of less developed and developed country consumers might

be similar, while the influences on the purchase decision might differ to reflect the situational variables.

However, if any adaptations have to be considered, attention must be paid to the cultural and socio - economic differences between the less developed and the developed countries, as these have a significant impact on consumer behaviour. Most important is that prudence is vital in such adaptations, as most of these models have not been tested as consumer behaviour models. Most of these models still need respecifications to allow for testability, and until then attempts at adaptations would not be warranted. This shortcoming provided impetus for this study, which aims to take a consumer behaviour construct [brand loyalty], and examine its existence and correlates under conditions prevailing in a less developed country: Zambia. It is felt that such an approach would greatly contribute to consumer behaviour knowledge in the less developed countries.

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Chapter FIVE.

Brand Loyalty : State of the Art.

The Aim of the Chapter.

The main aim of this chapter is initially to show that brand loyalty is an underlying concept of the comprehensive models, because these models are based on the stimulus - response learning approach. To demonstrate how brand loyalty exists under the particular framework of routinized response behaviour, the types of problem solving behaviour are discussed .

The second part of the chapter aims to define the way brand loyalty will be understood, thereby giving indications of how it can be measured. This is considered to be very important as the construct has been defined differently by various authors. This is followed by a discussion of the various studies on the factors that influence brand loyalty, with suggestions of possible variables to use in the model, and the testable hypotheses for the study. The final part of the chapter reviews the brand loyalty models and suggests an appropriate model using the knowledge from the previous sections. The need for a model which begins by measuring brand loyalty [in the less developed countries], and establishes some functional dependence between the construct and a number of explanatory variables, is seen by Engel and Blackwell [1982] as desirable.

The review aims to give a critical conceptual, and methodological critique of the literature on brand loyalty. This will enable the identification of the gap in the literature this study intends to fill.

Types of Problem Solving Behaviour and Decision Processes.

It was noted in chapter five that loyalty behaviour seems to be central to the comprehensive models. This is because these models are conceptually based on the premise that, over time the consumer learns how to make purchases from the consequent outcomes of the decisions. This suggests that for frequently purchased products, the consumer learns to routinize the decision process, and the end result becomes an insistence on one or a few of the brands which give satisfaction. Here, emphasis is placed on the time dimension in which the consumer learns to respond in a particular manner, thereby simplifying the purchase decision [see Figure 5.A on Learning curve]. Following the suggestion of a consumer actively learning to simplify his decision, Howard and Sheth [1969] suggested a typology of buyer behaviour in which the consumer is perceived to be performing problem solving at three levels. These are extended problem solving, limited problem solving and routinized response behaviour . The existence of this phenomenon in the real world is supported by the work of Pitcher [1985], when he states that consumers are not usually in the habit of weighing all the merits of products but rather, " most people quickly short list (possibly on quite inade uate evidence down to a

FIGURE 5.A : Complexity of task Vs. Time -
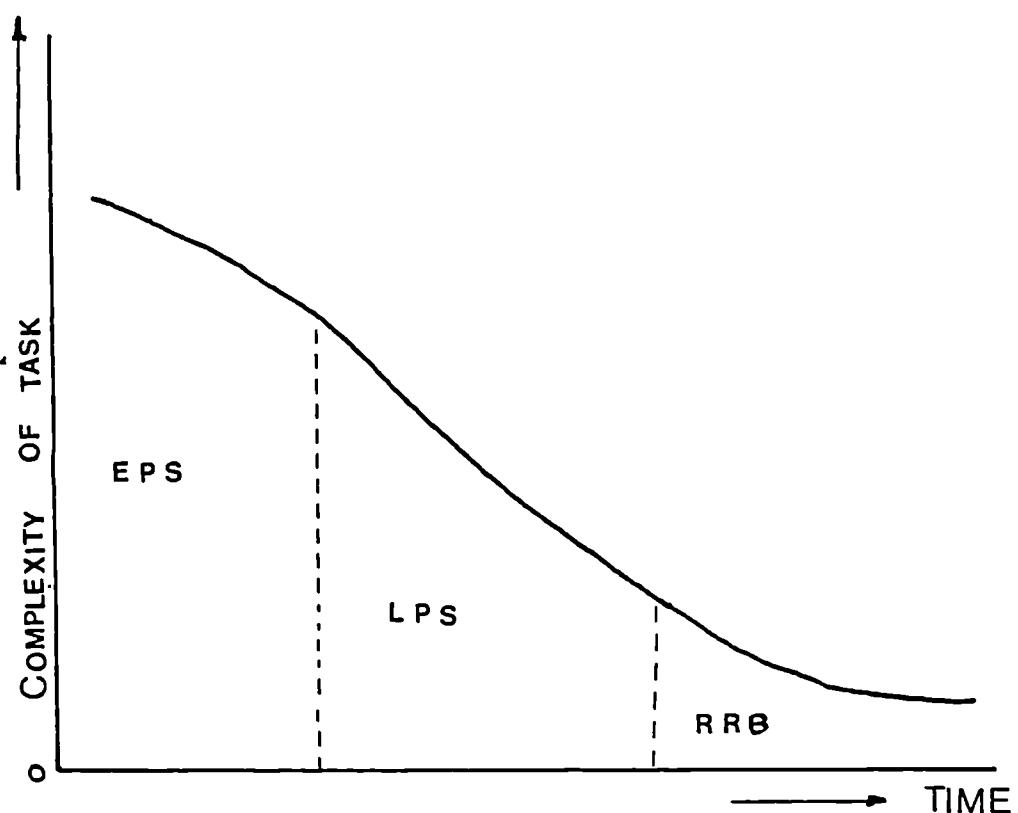
EPS : Extended Problem Solving
LPS : Limited Problem Solving
RRB : Routinized Response Behaviour

repetoire of a few of the brands available... [p.241]. "

These three types of consumer behaviour are very closely related to the strengths of attitudes towards the brands, and the amount of information needed to make a decision [Howard and Sheth, 1969] and Howard [1974]. This implies that at the level of extended problem solving behaviour, the consumer has a heightened information search, and builds a strong attitude towards a brand. The opposite is true at the level of routinized response behaviour. A similar model is given by Engel Kollat and Blackwell [1978] and Engel and Blackwell [1982] in their treatment of high and low involvement decision processes. Even if loyalty behaviour occurs under routinized response behaviour, all three theories are discussed as they interact with each other. This review provides the necessary framework with which to consider brand loyalty in this study.

Extended Problem Solving.

In the product cycle model of Engel, Kollat and Blackwell[1968], extended problem solving represents the behaviour typical for a new product or brand. Under such circumstances, the consumer exhibits the following: first, he lacks experience in the purchase situation as the product is unfamiliar. The buyer also fails to discriminate among brands, and this leads to brand ambiguity. These two points suggest that preference or loyal behaviour would be low under extended problem solving. This follows logically, as at this stage the product concept is not yet formed, hence predisposition is low and the consumer has

very limited preference or attitude for any one brand [Howard and Ostlund, 1973; Howard, 1974; Howard and sheth [1969]; and Lunn, 1974].

This lack of· experience, and the failure to differentiate between the brands, leads consumers to actively seek information to reduce the brand ambiquity [brand ambiquity here refers to the lack of clarity on the descriptive and the evaluative cognitions related to a brand]. The consequence of this is seen as high deliberation and reasoning before a purchase is made.

Petty and Capicoppo [1981] add another dimension, when they suggest the treatment of high involvement and extended problem solving as synonymous. This is derived from their definition of involvement , which they define as:

> " ... the activation of extended problem solving behaviour when the act of purchase or consumption is seen by the decision maker as having high personal importance or relevance" [in Engel, and Blackwell, 1982;p.24].

Usually, extended problem solving will be activated when,

a.   the product is considered to reflect on ones self image [Vaughn, Lastovicka and Gardner ,1979],

b.   the product is costly and the risks of making a mistake are being minimized [Vaughn and Rothschild, 1979]

c.   reference group pressure exists and this puts pressure on the consumer to comply [Houston and Rothschild, 1978].

In addition to these, the complexity of the product, limited past experience with the brand, and similarity of the brands, are possible factors to trigger extended problem solving. These suggest that the consumer would be rational, and use a problem solving approach in purchase decision making. However Engel,

and Blackwell [1982] point out that this is too idealistic, and only happens for radical innovations like computers, VCRs, micro-waves etc. Otherwise a routine process decision occurs under high involvement where the consumer learns from earlier purchases, thereby reinforcing future purchase decisions [Engel, and Blackwell, 1982]. Under such:

> " ... problem recognition is followed by an internal search which immediately reveals well formed purchase intention. This intention, in turn, leads directly to choice " [p.33].

Problem ──────→Intention ──────→Choice ──────→Satisfaction

Recognition.

Loyalty behaviour that occurs from reinforcements of satisfaction is very strong as centrality exists, and this leads to enduring beliefs and attitudes. This makes brand switching unlikely [Engel, and Blackwell, 1982]. Centrality in this context refers to the purchase decisions which have personal relevance or importance [Engel and Blackwell, 1982].

The description of the extended problem solving situation would suggest that unfamiliarity with brands in the less developed countries due to low consumer sophistication, would lead to insistence on brands which meet needs. However, with low centrality this brand loyalty would be weak.

Limited problem solving is typically a decision process which occurs when a consumer encounters a new brand in a known product class. The difference with extended problem solving is that the consumer in this situation has already formed a concept of the product class, however, brand ambiguity still exists because the brand is unfamiliar in the product category. Alternatively, brand ambiguity would exist if the consumer fails to discriminate between products in the product class [Howard and Sheth,1969; Lunn, 1974; and Daubek, 1981].

As such, the brands in the evoked set tend to be substitutable, and have roughly the same degree of preference [Howard and Sheth, 1973]. Preference for any particular brand starts to develop when a purchase of a brand is satisfactory. Foxall [1984] refers to this as behaviour being reinforced by its consequences. In this case, purchase is seen to be related to the learning subsystem through motives, brand comprehension, attitudes, intentions, confidence and satisfaction [Howard and Sheth,1969]. This tends to make behaviour become instrumental in shaping future behaviour. Ehrenberg [1969] comments that " it is however also accepted that people's attitudes towards a consumer good or a service are themselves influenced by their usage behaviour"[p.326].

Routinized Response Behaviour.

This decision process exists when consumers can distinguish between brands, and have formed a brand concept. That is, the consumer knows the quality of the brand and can evaluate its value in terms of price with other products. This decision process does not call for any additional information to make a decision [Lunn, 1974]. Since the consumer is familiar with the brand and has sufficient information;

a. he has an unambiguous set of personal and situational attitudes [Howard, 1974].

b . the evoked set is reduced in size.

c. a favourable attitude exists towards the brand(s), and the consumer is considered to be loyal [Howard, 1974].

d. the consumer has definite preference for one brand over other brands in his evoked set [Howard and Sheth, 1969].

This suggests that little time is spent,if any, on information search, as by definition at this stage the consumer would have acquired information and experience to discriminate between brands. This is supported by the work of Williams et al [1975] who discovered that the store loyal shoppers read advertisements less [Howard and Ostlund, 1973; and Howard and Sheth, 1969]. Sheth,1969].

However, this occurs with time, as the consumer develops a distinct choice criteria leading to a preference for one brand. With strong brand preference there are two possible outcomes: in one an alternate brand is bought within the evoked set. Howard [1974] describes the consumer as being in a preference equilibrium similar to multi-brand loyalty. Alternatively, purchase equilibrium might occur in which the evoked sey is reduced to one most preferred brand [single brand loyalty].

Engel and Blackwell [1982] explain that brand loyalty under low involvement exists despite the lack of centrality and anxiety over the outcome. As such, the purchase process reverts to one of trial and error, in which the result of the purchase provides information to the consumer on whether the brand is good or bad. In this manner, behaviour is seen to influence the cognitive structure which influences attitudes. In classical operant conditioning, Skinner [1973] refers to this phenomenon as behaviour being shaped and maintained by its consequences. Engel and Blackwell [1982] suggest that in cases where positive satisfaction from purchases lead to repeat purchases, this behaviour can be considered as brand loyalty. However, such brand loyalty tends to be low and the propensity to switch high. This is so because commitment to any brand is low, due the absence of an evaluative process.

The implication of this is that repeat satisfaction would lead to a form of brand loyalty and routinized behaviour. The low involvement decision process that brings about this phenomenon is depicted as in Figure 5.B.

The main difference in brand loyalty between high and low involvement is that under low involvement brand loyalty is lower, as products have low personal relevance, and the differences between alternatives is not large. As a result of this, there is a high propensity for brand switching [Howard, 1974; Jacoby and Kyner 1973]. As aresult the level of loyalty behaviour in this study is not expected to be relatively high.

Figure 5.6:
The Low-Involvement Decision Process

Input   Information Processing   Decision Process
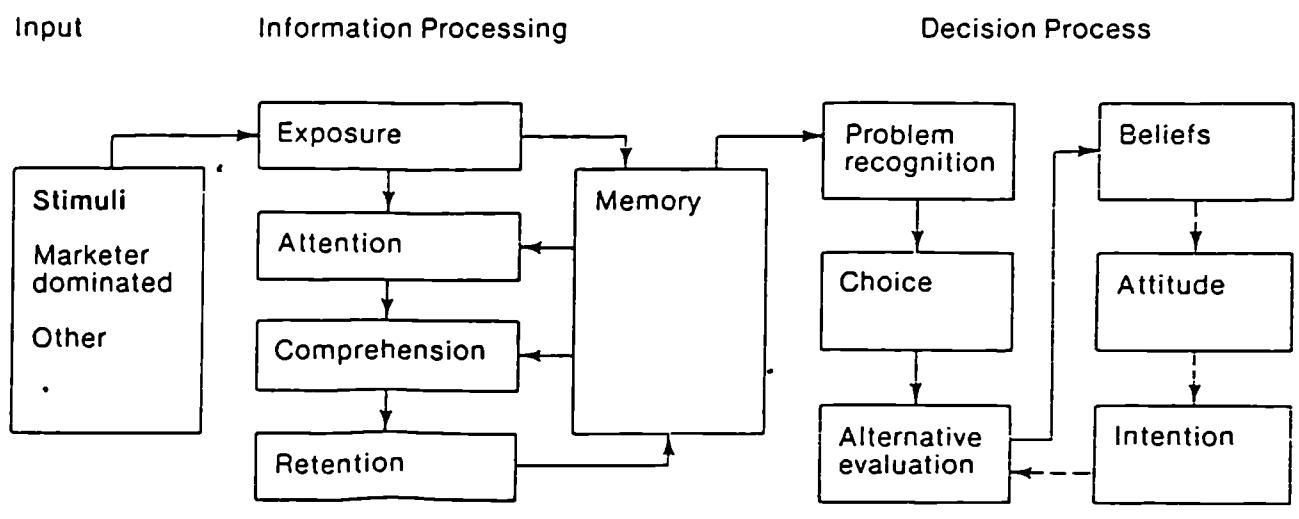
Source: Engel and Blackwell [1982]. p.543.

However, after some time, the consumer may get bored with the brand and to break this monotony he will complicate the purchase situation, and actively search for information. Howard and Sheth [1969] calls this the psychology of complication :

> "... he [consumer] may consider all existing alternatives including the preferred brand to be unacceptable...the new situation causes him to search for identity with a new brand" [p.28].

The appropriate framework for studying loyalty behaviour in the less developed countries, is therefore the routinized response behaviour under low involvement, in which attitudes are formed after the outcome of the purchase. This differs greatly from the comprehensive models of consumer behaviour, which are based on a high involvement decision process.

The low involvement framework is particulary preferred , because it does not assume a high level of consumer sophistication. This indicates that it does not consider the consumer as being capable of using the information available on the market in order to arrive at a choice: instead experiential knowledge is emphasized. This seems to fit the low consumer sophistication [due to illiteracy and low incomes] in the less developed countries, and information is also poor and badly distributed in these countries [Thorelli, 1982]. Ray [1974], suggests that where product differentiation exists, a learning approach under high involvement can be assumed. If this were not so brand choice would be made using the dissonance reduction model, which typifies choice when there is little product differentiation. This seems to be the case in the less developed countries where literacy is low and information is poor, thus making it very

difficult for various brands to be distinguished. This suggests that consumers in the less developed countries would fail to appreciate the significant differences among alternatives, that is, they would not discern the attributes which are most important for them, and above all would fail to choose a brand based on the saliency of the attributes [Wortzel, 1983]. This situation would favour dissonance attribution paths, in which consumers would prefer well established brand names [Wortzel, 1983]. This is used merely to reduce the risk of buying the wrong product. For example, it would be very likely to find brand loyalty for Colgate toothpaste and Coca - Cola in Zambia. This point is further exemplified in Figure 5.C. In this figure, the developed countries are seen to have higher advertising expenditures per capita than the less developed countries. This high level of advertising in the developed countries has a tendency to improve information on the market. On the other hand, the low levels of advertising expenditure in the less developed countries, has resulted in situations where consumers can distinguish Dettol from Savlon but cannot differentiate their usage [Still and Hill, 1984; and exploratory study].

An important point to note, is that this brand loyalty is not as strong as the one under high involvement. Despande et al [1983] and Bettman [1979] suggest that brand loyalty is low under low involvement, because loyalty behaviour is not to a brand but to a choice tactic or a rule of thumb. These choice tactics are described as well thought out consumer strategies, designed to reduce the cognitive effort, and hence simplifying the brand choice decision [Despande et al, 1983]

Advertising Exp. as a % of GNP

3

2

1

0

● Egypt

● Taiwan

● Brazil

● Mexico

● Argentina

● Venezuela

● India

● Bangladesh

● Zambia

● Turkey

● Spain

● Italy

● UK

● Canada

● USA

● Denmark

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10   11   12

GNP per Capita (us $)

('000)

Figure: **5.c**   Advertising Effort in LDCs and DCs. (1981)

·145 A
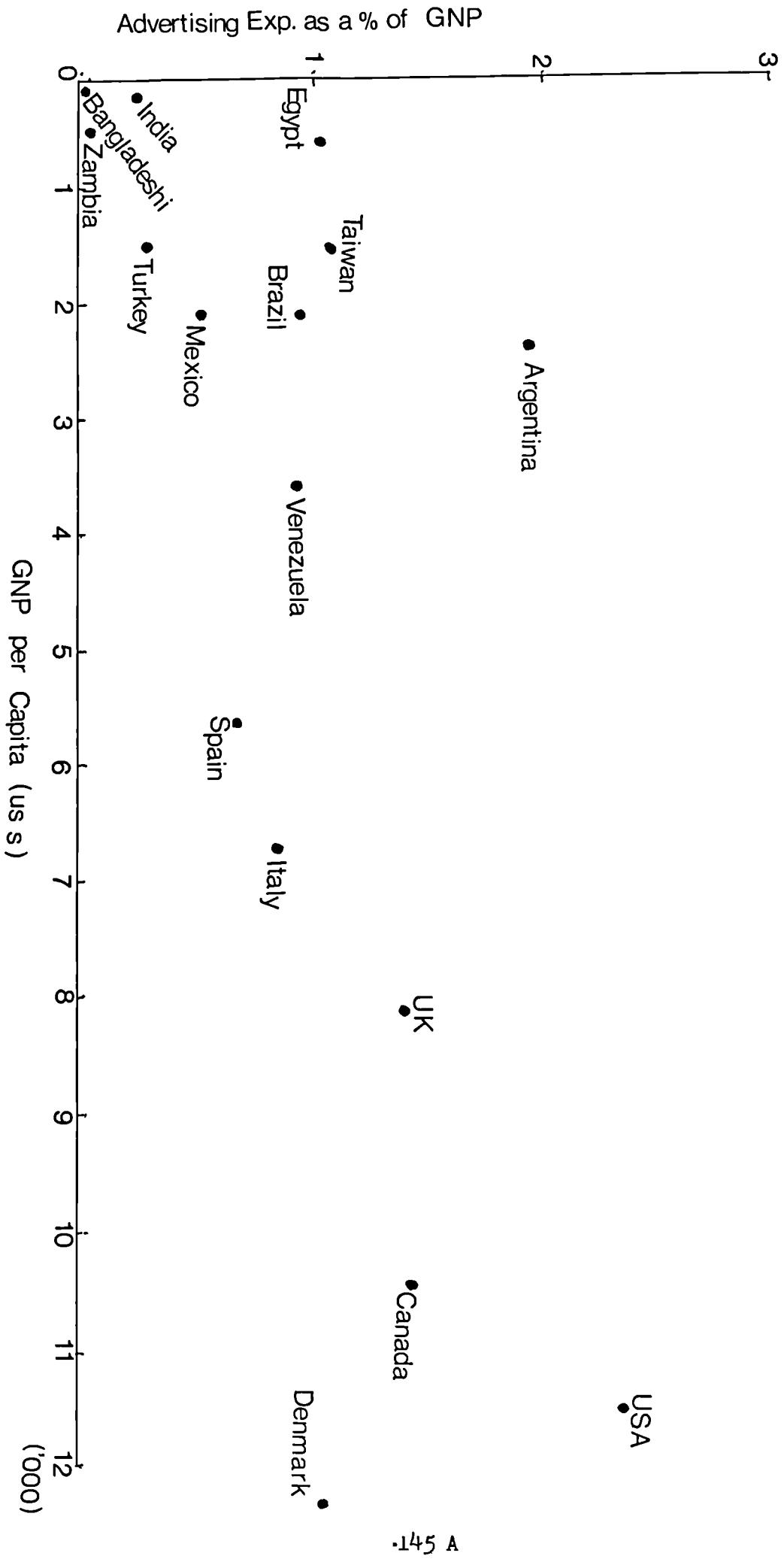
Bettman [1979] provides a taxonomy of the tactics . He divides them between those related to the product and those related to extrinsic factors.. The dichotomy is given below:

Product Related   Extrinsic Factors.

Buy cheapest brand   Buy what family uses

Buy brand on sale   Buy what friend has

Buy familiar brand   Buy what a responsible source

Buy brand prominent in display   advises

Buy national brand

Buy brand bought last

[or buy whatever is available].

However, to posit that consumers are loyal to choice tactics and not to the brand, suggests that a particular brand would be bought on different occasions so long as it is selected by the same choice tactic. This happens without the consumer having a strong prior attitude towards the brand. With the shortage conditions in the less developed countries, consumers might be forced to " buy whatever is available " in repeat purchases.

This suggests brand switching or multi brand buying and implies that brands bought can change while using the same choice tactic. Rothschild [1979], suggests that loyalty exists as the choice tactics which result in acceptable purchases, in terms of fulfilling the consumers minimum needs, will be used again in

the following purchase occasions. Hoyer [1983] also makes a similar point in his work. He concludes that:

> " Consumers employ very simple choice heuristics or tactics when making repeat decisions which are relatively low in importance or involvement. These tactics are rules of thumb which allow consumers to make a very quick and effortless decision."

These rules of thumb would seem to be widely used in the less developed countries and developed countries to simplify the decision process. The difference between the two would be in the type of decision heuristics used. MacNeal [1971], would seem to suggest that it is these decision heuristics which are passed through culture from one generation to the other. He bases his argument on the fact that children's learning of shopping behaviour is through observing the parents behaviour, participation and other interpersonal processes, rather than purposive consumer training.

Conclusions that may be drawn from this review, are that , the most appropriate framework for studying frequently purchased products in the less developed countries, is limited problem solving decision process. This is due to the nature of the products and also because some environmental conditions in the less developed countries favour this type of decision process. It is also emphasized that the use of choice tactics would be an important aspect in the purchase of frequently purchased products in the less developed countries. Both factors point to the existence of loyalty, though this is relatively lower than when there is some commitment.

Prior Research on Brand loyalty.

Conceptual definition of Brand Loyalty.

Though it is easy to delimit the construct loyalty, within the framework of low involvement and routinized response behaviour, there is confusion over the definition of the construct. Jacoby and Chestnut [1978], suggest that this has been caused by an over emphasis on empiricism in brand loyalty research. As Woodside and Cloky [1975] observe, " The concept of brand loyalty has been defined by most researchers empirically instead of theoretically...''[p.175].

This implies that for most researchers the empirical definition of the construct has been treated as the theoretical definition. This study chooses to separate the two definitions, preferring to begin with the conceptual definition to provide a basis for the measurement of the construct.

This tends to be in line with the argument that a clear distinction exists between conceptual and operational definitions. Jacoby and Chestnut [1978] describe conceptual as :
"... abstractions... representing attempts to encompass in some symbolic form the essence of what we mean when we speak of a particular item, phenomenon or event ''[p.70].

On the other hand, the operational definitions refer to the

instrument or processes used to measure a concept.

In addition to this logical distinction of the two, scientific research which requires that findings of one study be related to others, is made difficult in the absence of a conceptual definition. Relating findings among studies, requires that there is a consensus , clarity and precision on how concepts are defined. Hartigan [1975] observes :

> " It is not necessary that a naming scheme be best,but for effective communication, it is necessary that different people give the same name to the same objective" [p.1].

This could explain the controversy in studies on brand loyalty. In line with this reasoning, Jacoby and Chestnut [1978] suggest an explicit, clear and precise definition of brand loyalty using six necessary and sufficient conditions, hence leaving very little room for confusion and ambiguity. They defined brand loyalty as:

a] the biased [non random]

b] behavioural response [i.e purchase]

c] expressed over time

d] by some decision making unit

e] with respect to one or more alternative brands out of

a set of such brands and

f] a function of psychological [decision - making,

evaluative processes. [Jacoby and Olson, 1970].

This conceptual definition is adopted in this study as it is comprehensive, and has influenced latter definitions of the construct. [refer to studies of Sheth and Park, 1974; Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1978; Engel and Blackwell, 1982]. The definition also seems to be the only one with empirical

substantiation [Jacoby and Chestnut,1978]. The conditions of the construct are discussed below.

By stating that brand loyalty is biased and not random, this implies that the concept should be looked at from a deterministic philosophy. This emphasizes that repeat purchase behaviour does not just happen, but that it is a direct consequence of something underlying the consumer's behaviour. The advantage of this condition is that it postulates that the underlying causes can be identified, making it possible for the marketing manager to control repeat purchase behaviour, hence taking brand loyalty from the realm of chance.

Secondly, defining brand loyalty would be insufficient if only a verbal statement of preference or intention to buy is used, so these statements must be accompanied by actual purchase behaviour. This means that consumers who report to like " Choice" bath soap and intend to buy it, could only be considered loyal to the brand if it is actually bought. They could not be said to be loyal if they bought another brand.

Again, the definition does not only require that the preferred brand be bought, but also that this behavioural act be observed at two or more different points in time. This suggests that brand loyalty is a time dimension [Daubek, 1981]. This condition has led to the emphasis on the use of panel data, collected over long periods of time in studying brand loyalty[See for example the studies of Cannon and Ehrenberg,1970; Ehrenberg, 1968, 1969, 1972]. Even though this has been the tradition, others like Raj [1985] have used recall data in

studying brand loyalty.

The fourth condition requires that the decision maker need not be the user or the purchaser of the brand, but rather that the decision making unit is taken in a broad context, in order to identify a group of individuals: the family household. This condition solves the numerous problems of identifying the source of the data. However, more important is the fact that the decision making unit as a household, is taken as the important unit of analysis in understanding the psychodynamics involved in brand loyalty. This is particulary so when the purchase decision represents a compromise within the family. This suggests that consumer behaviour is not necessarily individual, and hence has to be reflected as reflecting the influences of the other members. The importance of this is to indicate the possible influence of family pressures on brand loyalty.

A further condition states that, for brand loyalty to exist, there should be a repertoire of brands from which one or a few brands are selected. This condition requires that the consumer can only be said to be brand loyal if he has a chance of being disloyal, and implies that brand loyalty is a relational phenomenon. The existence of many brands also indicates that there is the possibility of a consumer being loyal to more than one brand. The existence of multi-brand loyalty is explored in the work of Ehrenberg and Goodhart [1981], Jacoby [1969,1970, 1971]. The concept of the evoked set by Howard and Sheth [1969], is also indicative of the same phenomenon. The few brands available in the less developed countries would seem to deny the consumers any choice. As such, it would be interesting

to find out whether this factor has significant influences on brand loyalty, and the nature of loyalty .

This condition requires that the product classes chosen for the study have a number of alternative brands available. Otherwise, it becomes meaningless to speak of brand loyalty in the less developed countries where product shortages exist. This calls for the selection of product classes in the study which would have a number of brand alternatives.

The final condition depicts brand loyalty as a result of purposeful evaluative processes. This means that the preferred brand is arrived at, after the brands in the evoked set have been psychologically evaluated on the various salient attributes, which consumers believe are important for the product. It is this psychological process underlying brand loyalty, and the requisite evaluative criteria, which the manufacturers should aim to understand in efforts aimed at building brand reputation.

Another important dimension in conceptualizing brand loyalty is provided by Jacoby [1971]. He suggests that there is a distinction between repeat purchase behaviour and brand loyalty. This distinction has not been made earlier, because both concepts represent a biased behaviour over time. Therefore, the only difference is that repeat purchase behaviour is considered more of a generic construct , meaning that it can occur without the existence of brand insistence. On the other hand, brand loyal behaviour implies that:

" the purchase decision is the result of a process in which various alternative brands are psychologically compared and evaluated on certain criteria and the optimal brand or brands is selected " [Jacoby ,1971;p.26].

Jacoby [1971] used optimal to imply the selection of a brand that is most rewarding.

What these distinctions reflect is that repeat purchase behaviour is a necessary, but not a sufficient condition for brand loyalty. For brand loyalty to exist, there must some commitment to the brand based on an evaluative process. Jacoby [1971] concluded that brand loyalty can be seen to have two very important aspects: brand loyal behaviour and brand loyal attitudes. He defined brand loyal behaviour as, " The overt act of selective repeat purchasing based on evaluative psychological decision processes"[p.26]. The latter, brand loyal attitudes, refer to " the underlying predispositions to behave in such a selective fashion"[p.26].

Due to the failure to first theoretically define the construct loyalty , operationalizing the concept has created much confusion. Jacoby and Chestnut [1978], have identified 50 different operational definitions.

The conclusion that may be drawn from this section, is that any meaningful brand loyalty research should first attempt to conceptually define the construct in very clear terms, in order to avoid confusion. In this respect, brand loyalty has been defined in six neccessary and sufficient conditions, and has been differentiated from repeat purchase behaviour. This has definite implications for the measurement of the construct, as

will be discussed in the later sections.

The section that follows, discusses the various approaches that have been used to measure brand loyalty. Limitations of the study only makes it possible to discuss a few of these measures, under the groupings of behavioural, attitudinal and composite measures.

Operational Definitions of Brand Loyalty.

Behavioural Measures.

This is one of the most commonly used approaches in studying brand loyalty. For example 60% of the measures reviewed by Jacoby and Chestnut [1978] are behavioural.

The behavioural orientation in measuring brand loyalty, emphasizes the overt act of consistent repurchase of a brand over time. Five approaches have commonly been used to measure brand loyalty based on behaviour.

The first approach looks at the proportion of purchases devoted to the most preferred brand, as a measure of brand loyalty. For example, Charlton and Ehrenberg [1976] in their study on the simulation of brand choice, defined loyal users as those buying a brand four or more times in a six week period in which there was no marketing activity. This two thirds criterion was also used by Cunningham [1956]. Engel and Blackwell [1982] suggest that other research use this as the conceptual and the

operational definition of brand loyalty. One apparent advantage of this measure is that it is easy to quantify.

The second approach to understanding brand loyalty, has been to look at the sequences of purchasing a particular brand over a period of time. Massy and Lodahl [1968], expanding on the earlier work of Brown [1956], suggest that brand loyalty should be understood to exist in degrees. Following this ,

a] undivided loyalty was defined as the sequence AAAAAA.

b] divided loyalty was the sequence ABABAB,

c] unstable loyalty was defined as the sequence AAABBB,

d] and no loyalty was defined as the sequence ABCDEF [Engel and Blackwell, 1982].

Charlton and Ehrenberg [1976], point out the practical problems of this measure. They posit that this approach does not allow comparisons between consumers and brands to lead to generalizable results, because consumers buy at different rates and the sequences are usually out of phase with each other.

The third behavioural group measures fall under the probability of purchase measures, which were popularized by Lipstein in the early fifties. This was the introduction of the stochastic process in the study of brand loyalty, suggesting that predictions of consumer behaviour could be made. An example of one of these measures is the "repeat purchase probability", and the "probability" developed by Frank [1962]. This measures brand loyalty from the relative frequency of purchases devoted to a specific brand during a set of previous purchases.

Jacoby and Chestnut [1978], criticize Frank for putting too much emphasis on repeat purchase probability, instead of conceptualizing loyalty. Ehrenberg [1964], pointed out that these measures were simplistic but useful. Kuehn and Day [1964] also supported this, when they stated that using probabilities made the concept of brand loyalty more flexible.

The fourth group of behavioural measures, include the measures which combine a number of behavioural criteria and the miscellaneous measures. Examples of these measures are Sheth's [1968] factor scores, and Frank and Lodahl's [1966] scores in which the proportion of purchases was combined with the average length of the brand run.

Limitations of the Behavioural Measures.

The first problem with the behavioural measures is that they adopt an empirical approach in defining brand loyalty, and as such have no conceptual basis. This has made it difficult to know what is being measured, and hence difficult to answer any questions on the validity of these measures. The other problems emanate from this major weakness.

The second problem, is that these measures have ignored the lack of brand loyalty. Jacoby and Chestnut [1978] state that:

> "... attempts to study and understand a given phenomenon are usually enhanced if one also studies the opposite or negative case. With respect to brand loyalty this means studying the factors underlying disloyalty " [Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978].

None of the behavioural measures reflects this perspective. In addition to this, the measures ignore the fact that consumers can be loyal to more than two or more brands in a product category. This makes the measures rather limited in their scope.

The third problem is that the measures are too simple to be adequate for measuring a complex phenomenon like brand loyalty. From the conceptual definition of brand loyalty given above, the behavioural measures only seem to be meeting the first condition, while the multi-faceted nature of brand loyalty calls for a multi-dimensional approach.

Further, the behavioural measures have been said to be arbitrary, and often appear unreasonable, as they do not usually relate well among themselves. This is observed from the fact that given a brand run for a period of: AABAABAABA, the percent of purchases definition of brand loyalty would define the consumer as brand loyal, as 70% of purchases are devoted to brand A. However, on the same brand run, using three-in-a-row sequence, categorizes the consumer as not being loyal [Engel and Blackwell, 1982 and Jacoby and Chestnut 1978]. Such inconsistencies makes it difficult to synethesize and compare findings from various studies.

The behavioural measures have also been criticised for not specifying the unit of measurement. This poses problems as to whether the data should be collected from the purchaser, user, or the family. This has led to studies using this approach to have meaningless relationships [Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978].

Another, problem is concerned with the reliability, validity and sensitivity of the measures. Reliability refers to the need for a measurement instrument to generate an observed score as close as possible to the true score.[ie at two different times the measures should give the same observations] [Kidder et al, 1981]. On this requirement, only three of the behavioural measures were proved to have significant test-retest correlations.

Validity refers to the extent to which the measure taps the intended construct [Kidder et al, 1981]. That is: is the measure intended to measure what it is supposed to measure? Does it encompass all aspects of brand loyalty, or is it only a unibrand measure? Olson and Jacoby [1970], provide limited evidence on only three of the behaviour measures.

Sensitivity is the capability of a measure to discriminate between the existence, or nonexistence, of the phenomenon. The behavioural measures perform poorly on this requirement [Jacoby and Chestnut,1978].

The final problem is summarised by Jacoby and Chestnut [1978] as follows:

> " ...none of the measures thus far seeks to understand the factors underlying and leading to b and-loyal purchasing; they make no attempt to explain the ausative factors that determine how and especially why brand loyalty develops or is modified "[p.43].

This problem is solved in this study, which aims at modelling loyalty behaviour in the less developed countries, hence providing the factors that determine or influence brand loyalty .

The Attitudinal Measures.

Jacoby [1970], regards attitudes just as important in studying brand loyalty as behaviour. He defined brand loyal attitudes, as " the underlying predispositions to behave in such a selective fashion "[p.20].

This close link of attitudes to brand loyalty, has led some writers to define brand loyalty solely on statements of preference or intentions to behave. This has been partly due to the realization that actual purchase behaviour might be inadequate, providing an incomplete understanding of the factors underlying the existence of brand loyalty. In this case, attitudes have been considered to be the psychological construct most capable of providing such explanation. Jacoby [1970] comments that:

> " it would be wortnwnile to study the underlying brand
> loyal attitudes not as an adjunct to behaviour, but in
> their own right because they were most likely the
> causative link capable of providing an understanding of
> the reasons for and strength of behavioural brand
> loyalty"[p.20].

Under this approach, Guest [1942] as one of the early writers measured brand loyalty if a consumer named it in response to the question: Which brand do you prefer? Monroe and Guiltman [1975], used a slightly different measure by using a trade - off between price and brand commitment, he defined a loyal consumer as one who chooses to purchase a product regardless of price.

Jacoby [1970], borrowed the attitudinal - change model of assimilation and contrast from the early work of Sheriff and Hovland [1961]. Using this model, he identified different intensities of brand loyalty depending on the region the product was placed. This included, the region of acceptance, neutrality, and rejection.

Improving on the work of Jacoby [1970], Jarvis and Wilcox [1976], suggested an index of " cognitive loyalty". In this measure awareness of a brand is thought to be closely related to the number of brands available in the community, and is added to enrich the understanding of brand loyalty.

Limitations of the Attitude Measures.

However, most of the problems given under the behavioural measures, are also applicable to the attitudinal measures. The assessment of the reliability of the measures, has only been significant for three of these measures. Evidence on the validity of the measures however, have been discouraging [Jacoby, Olson and Szybillo, 1971].

Preference - Purchase Approach.

This approach in measuring brand loyalty is merely an integration of the behavioural and the attitude measures. This measurement approach would seem to meet the need, for measuring a complex phenomenon like brand loyalty, with a multidimensional

measure. For example, the work of Day [1969], is a challenge to the purely behavioural or attitudinal measures of brand loyalty. In his work he operationally defined the loyal consumer, as one who was consistent both in behaviour and attitude. Using this definition, he found that, of the 148 consumers, 108 devoted their product purchases to one brand, and of these only 76 had a favourable attitude to the brand; these were the only ones who could be defined as brand loyal [Day,1969]. Day therefore, concluded that ordinarily the behavioural measures over-emphasised the existence of brand loyalty. He proposed a loyalty index which was a function of both the proportion of purchases and attitude.

Lutz and Winn [1974], improved on the work of Day to present what they referred to as the Bayesian loyalty measure. The Bayesian multivariate analysis was used to provide a solution for the weighting and scaling problems in Day's work. As will be discussed later, this measure also suffers from using arbitrary scaling constants, as before.

Another important measure, is the stated brand commitment used by Cunningham [1967] . In his approach, he asked consumers what they would do if, on a purchase occassion, they found that their favourite brand was out of stock. He concluded that the brand loyal consumer is the one who consistently buys one particular brand, and would search for it in another store or be prepared to wait until the next purchase occassion.

Another measure which deserves mention, is the one by Martin and Towle [1976], based on the direction of search. They posited that brand loyalty existed, if there was a tendency by consumers to use the manufacturer's name in brand selection. They held that this implied an attitudinal predisposition towards the manufacturers name. Other composite measures includes Newman and Werbel's [1973] information search, and Bellenger, Steinberg and Stanton's [1976] composite store loyalty.

Limitations of the Attitude - Behaviour Measures.

One weakness of the composite measures, is that the collection of information on the behavioural component depends on laboratory experimentation. " Such a restriction may as well be undesirable in the applied context of marketing "[Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978: p.57].

Contrary to this opinion, Aronson and Carlsmith [1968], tend to favour the behavioroid measures as they involve the subjects by using a hypothetical shopping situation. [Behavioroid here refers to surrogates of real world behavioral measures].

The second weakness of the composite measures, is the use of many measures to represent one construct, and this allows for the collection of ambiguous data. For example, using Day's index, a consumer might devote a small proportion of purchases, but show that he has a strong attitude towards the brand. This problem was faced in attempts to use Day's [1969] measure.

[This point will be discussed later].

Further, the study of Jacoby and Olson [1970] only proved significant test-retest reliabity for Pessimiers's [1959] " "price until switching", and Cunningham's [1967] " stated brand commitment".

Despite these criticisms of the composite measures, the associated merits make them more attractive than the single measures. This is largely because they use a multidimensional approach in measuring a multi-faceted phenomenon. This is exemplified in Day's study, in which he discovered that the inclusion of attitudes made it possible to screen out the spuriously loyal consumers, and hence this added more sensitivity to the measure.

Besides this,the measurement of brand loyalty by using behaviour and attitudes, complies with the conceptual definition of the construct, and this tends to improve construct validity [Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978]. This study therefore adopts Day's approach, by including behaviour and attitude in measuring brand loyalty in the less developed countries. Cunningham's [1967] brand commitment measure is used to approximate attitude, and Charlton and Ehrensberg's [1976] two - thirds criterion measure is used to indicate the proportion of purchases. [these are discussed in more detail in chapter seven on methodolgy].

For studies in brand loyalty to be of pragmatic value, authors have attempted to go further than the mere measurement of the construct and also provide the factors that seem to influence the construct loyalty. The section below reviews literature on

the correlates of brand loyalty.

Correlates of Brand Loyalty.

The body of knowledge which looks at the correlates of brand loyalty, is important to a study which has the objective of building a brand loyalty model for frequently purchased products in the less developed countries. The contribution that this study makes is limited to examining the the contributory factors of brand loyalty, rather than the causative factors. What this implies is that it is only able to look at the factors that exert influence on brand loyalty, but do not determine behaviour by themselves. Although determining the causative factors would have been more favourable, this would require sophisticated methodologies, and large data banks which are usually very expensive. Even if the contributory factors have been explored in the various studies shown below, have failed to establish strong functional relationships between brand loyalty and the contributory factors. This is expected, as only a few of these studies have defined brand loyalty using valid measures. Jacoby and Chestnut [1978], concluded that " a basic reason for the lack of any solid contribution is the exceedingly naive approach to brand loyalty measurement" [p.119].

There is therefore a great need to determine the contributory factors, and assess their impact by using multidimensional measures of brand loyalty, through adequate model building.

The various studies have attempted to relate consumer characteristics, social and family influences, and the market structure variables with brand loyalty, however this was defined.

Consumer Characteristics.

The variables that have been of interest are the personality, and socio-economic characteristics of the consumers. Early studies of the Advertising Research Foundation investigated toilet tissue purchasing behaviour from 3,026 members of J. Walter Thompson panel. They found that there was no association between personality variables and brand loyalty.

However, other studies concluded to the contrary. For example, Frank, Massy and Lodahl [1966], used the same data as the ARF to investigate a similar relationship with beer, coffee, and tea brand loyal consumers. They found modest relationships between brand loyalty and certain personality measures. Using the Edwards test, they also found out that women who were brand loyal showed need for autonomy and change, while some husbands showed some need for affiliation. These characteristics however, failed to discriminate between high and low brand loyalty as the consumer profiles were the same. This suggests that the link between brand loyalty and personality is brand specific.

Another study that found a relationship was Day's [1969]. Using the two dimension measure of brand loyalty, he describes the true brand loyal as:

"very conscious of the need to economise when buying, confident of brand judgement, heavy buyer of the product, older housewife in small household and less influenced by day - to day price fluctuations"[p.34].

French and Chance [1972], supported this relationship in their studies, when they concluded that income and education have an effect on brand loyalty. An interesting observation they made, was that switching behaviour occured at both extremes of the income scale. They suggested that this was because the poor people were very sensitive to prices, and could be influenced by significant differences in these. The high income consumers tended to show brand switching, because they were not prepared to search for their preferred brand if it was not found in the first shop. This usually resulted in the purchase of a substitute brand, as they had no time to search around [Shmuel , 1974]. Similar results were found by Coulson [1966]; Stafford [1966]; and Carman [1970].

In this study, income and education are hypothesized to have an influence on brand loyalty, and will be empirically tested to find their influence. This is based on the fact that low education levels make the consumers lack marketing sophistication, and the low levels of income make them have a high marginal utility on income, and therefore unable to afford to make mistakes. These two factors would tend to encourage concetration upon the familiar brand, in efforts to minimize the chances of buying a wrong product. This aspect suggests some brand loyalty for frequently purchased products in the less developed countries.

Shopping Characteristics.

The second group of factors which have been investigated as contributory to brand loyalty, is the set of shopping pattern characteristics. Engel and Blackwell [1982], outline these as store loyalty, shopping proneness, amount of purchase, the brand last purchased and interpurchase time.

Carman [1976], used data from the Berkley food panel, with data collected from a 15 week period on coffee, canned fruit and frozen orange juice. The results were that store loyalty had an overwhelming influence on brand loyalty for all the three products. The number of stores visited during the period [as the measure of store loyalty], accounted for an average of 64% of all the total variance observed in brand loyalty. The reason suggested for this, was that the consumers who restrict the number of stores visited also restricted the range of choice or the opportunity to be disloyal to specific food products. This suggestion implies that store loyalty could be regarded as the regulator of brand loyalty, and a neccessary link in explaining the relationship between shopping characteristics and brand loyalty.

Secondly, shopping proneness, which is the predisposition of a consumer to invest time and effort in the search of brands or products which give maximum value, was found to be related to brand loyalty. The rationale for this, is that consumers who

are not shopping prone will generally shop only a few stores. As a result, within these stores they tend to remain loyal to a small number of brands, rather than make careful choices between the values being offered by the stores.

The third shopping characteristic is the amount of purchases of a brand. The studies conducted in this area have been on to discover whether the heavy users were more loyal to brands than light users. The results of these studies are inconclusive. For example Cunningham [56] in his study of soap, cleansers, coffee, pears, orange juice, margarine and headache remedies, discovered very little correlation between activity [amount purchased] and brand loyalty. The studies by Massy, Frank and Lodahl [1966], had similar findings except for tea, which showed a tendency for the heavy users to be more brand loyal.

On the other hand, a few studies have shown a certain degree of correlation between the amount purchased and brand loyalty. In one such study, Kuehn [1962], found that brand loyalty for frozen orange juice, was higher for heavy users than for light users. Day supported this in his study when he concluded that, " brand loyal buyers are also heavy users of the product "[p.35]. He explained this on the basis that heavy users gained from a habitual pattern, which permitted them to economize on the effort of repeated decisions. This was proved in Day's study because the true brand loyal shoppers also tended to be older, and could afford to maintain habitual purchases due to their smaller households.

Closely related to the amount of purchases, is their frequency.
. Kuehn [1962], found it to be related to brand loyalty. He suggested that the probability of a consumer buying the same brand on two consecutive purchases, decreased exponentially with an increase in the time spent between purchases. This suggests that the higher the frequency of purchases, the more consistently will a brand be bought. This is supported by the studies of Fry et al [1973], though his studies were on bank services. However, the high frequency of purchases for food products, would seem to suggest that brand loyalty could exist in the less developed countries.

The final shopping characteristics that have been related to brand loyalty, are variables like percieved risk and dissonance. In a laboratory study by Sheth and Venkatesan [1968], perceived risk was found to be a necessary condition for the development of brand loyalty, assuming high involvement. Under such conditions, the consumer relies on choosing a well known brand to reduce any risk. This suggests that selecting the most familiar brand was used as a method of reducing risks, and in turn supports the observation that consumers were loyal to choice tactics.

In another study Miltelstaedt [1969], investigated the effect of cognitive dissonance on brand loyalty. He concluded that brand loyalty was probably a function of dissonance experienced at the time of purchase.

The importance of the shopping characteristics, lie in the influence that they have on the environment in which behaviour takes place. The existence and development of the retail sector would have a significant impact on brand loyalty, as these variables influence the degree of awareness consumers have of the brand offerings.

Market Structure Characteristics.

The market - structure characteristics that are considered to affect consumer brand loyalty include the availability of brands , price fluctuations and dealing activity [Engel and Blackwell, 1982].

Evidence of the influences of these is found in the work of Farley [1964]. In his study Farley, used data covering 199 families in the Chicago Metropolitan area provided by the Market Research Corporation of America. The products included 16 cleaning and food items. His findings were that brand loyalty was low for products, with many available brands [assuming that the products were frequently used, expenditures per buyer were high, and that the consumers were expected to simultaneously use a number of brands of the product]. Wienberg [1973] provided support for this when he concluded that a wide range of competing brands lead to disloyalty, due to information gained through experience with these brands. In a slightly different argument, Ehrenberg and Goodhart [1968] observed that :

" there is little difference in the degree of loyaltv
which most brands attract, such differences as occur
inly reflect differences in market share " [p.1].

Other studies like Anderson et al [1966], challenged this
relationship, pointing out that the greater the number of
alternative available, the greater the concentration on the most
frequently chosen alternatives.

However, Farley concluded that:

" ... much of the apparent differences over products in
some important aspects of brand choice can apparently
be explained on the basis of structural variables
describing the markets in which the products are sold
and does not depend on specific characteristics of the
products, or on the attitudes of consumers towards
roducts '[p.464].

These correlates of brand loyalty comply with some of the
observations from the exploratory study, in which it was
observed that brand loyalty was related to level of income and
education, culture, and development of the retail outlets.
Literature on these correlates as discussed in this section will
be used as the theoretical support of the hypotheses in the next
chapter. Any review on brand loyalty would however be
incomplete without a look at the brand choice models, which is
the ultimate purpose of this study.

Brand Choice Modelling.

Modelling in consumer behaviour has been, and continues to be,
an important aspect in understanding consumer behaviour. This
is revealed by the comprehensive models of consumer behaviour
developed by Nicosia [1966]; Howard and Sheth [1969]; Engel,
Kollat and Blackwell [1978] and Engel and Blackwell [1982].
These models are deterministic, that is , they seek to explain

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consumer behaviour from a limited number of causes, or suggest that consumer behaviour is a direct consequence of some underlying causes. This philosophy makes it possible for marketing managers to influence the existence of marketing phenomenon such as repeat purchase behaviour [Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978]. In regard to their success , the authors point out that:

"... determinism has met with little generalizable success in its attempts to fully explain repeat purchase behaviour"[p.4].

On the other hand, Bass [1974] held the opinion that :

" The presence of a stochastic element in consumer behaviour makes it impossible to construct deterministic marketing theory... en if behaviour is caused, the bulk of the explanation lies in the multitude of variables which occur with unpredictable frequency, thus, in practice, the process is stochastic" [p.3].

Jacoby and Chestnut [1978], suggest that repeat purchase behaviour is one such stochastic behaviour. However, even if determinism can be applied in the modelling of brand loyalty, the construct has largely been studied using the stochastic approach [Jacoby and Kyner 1970]. The intuitive appeal of this approach is that such models imply that many factors determine the outcome of the behaviour, even if not all can be measured or explicitly included in the models. Hence, Montgomery and Urban [1969] concluded that:

" This procedure is parsimonious in that consumer behaviour may often be described by relatively simple stochastic models, whereas the adoption of a deterministic approach would require exceedingly complex models "[p.579].

Secondly, Engel and Blackwell [1982] argue that stochastic models are used in consumer behaviour, because there is a stochastic element in the brain that influences choice.

Though Bass [1973] suggests that proving that behaviour is stochastic or deterministic is impossible because of difficulties in measuring all the variables which influence choice, it would seem to be more reasonable to use an approach that initially assumes that not all factors that influence behaviour can be included in any model. The stochastic orientation will hence be used in this study in order to establish a functional relationship between brand loyalty and a number of explanatory variables. The need for this is emphasized by Engel and Blackwell, 1982], when they state that:

"... also needed is a model [or set of models] that starts with the determinants of brand loyalty and then attempts to relate these to a valid measure of brand loyalty "[p.596].

In following this approach, this study advances knowledge by providing a methodology for studying factors that influence brand loyalty not only in the less developed but also in the developed countries.

At this juncture, a distinction is drawn between brand choice, and purchase incidence stochastic models . The main difference between the two is that the former deals with the probability of choosing a brand on a given purchase occassion, while the latter deals with the purchase timing and amount of purchases. The latter typify the extensive work of Ehrenberg, and marks the point of departure with his studies as his models do not have the needed behavioural detail [Naert and Leeflang, 1978]. Ehrenberg and Goodhart concur with this fact, in their observation that their work just " escribes the brand choice atterns of the individual consumer , but [does] not explain why

he behaves that way "[in Jacoby, 1971;p.25].

The section that follows concentrates on a few of the many brand choice models, and also takes an orientation that leaves out the sophisticated mathematics. Interested readers are referred to Wierenga [1974], Massy , Montgomery, and Morrison [1970] and Leeflang [1974] for more detailed work than is given in this section.

Bernoulli Models.

These models seek to describe consumer behaviour as a Bernoulli process, in which the consumer has a constant probability " P " of purchasing the brand under study [Brown,1952 ; and Cunningham, 19 56]. The " P " is calculated from aggregate brand choice data of a particular brand A and all others, and is taken to be independent of all external influences [Engel and Blackwell,1982].

The Bernoulli models therefore assume no feedback from the previous purchase events, but incorporate circumstances such as the number of brands available, and also out of stock conditions. This is termed as the zero-order process, in which the past history has no effect on the present or future purchase probabilities. As can be observed, this is a major weakness in this group of models which has tended to limit their usefulness in marketing. Other models that use this assumption, are the probability Diffusion Model and the New Trier Model [Engel and

Blackwell, 1982].

Markov Models.

The Markovian process assumes that the probability and choice of a particular brand at time "t" is influenced by past purchases. In this manner, orders are included in the model to reflect the number of previous purchases assumed to influence current purchses. The mechanics of these models are based on transitional probabilities of moving from one state to another in any two consecutive time periods.

A number of criticisms of the Markov models are summarized as follows;

a] the first order model is criticized by Howard and Sheth [1969] as being too restrictive as brand choice is influenced by many past purchases. This led to the second - order Markov models and these require large data, which makes them unmanageable.

b] Ehrenberg [1965] and Massy [1966] challenge the stationarity assumption, suggesting that it is the exception rather than the rule. Lipstein [1965] attempted to address this problem by developing a brand loyalty model with non - stationary probabilities.

c] The assumption that all consumers have the same transitional probabilities, has been challenged by Frank [1966]. Morrison [1966] attempted to solve this problem

by dividing the consumers into hard core and potential switchers. This led to the compound Markov models.

d] The fourth weakness of the markov models is that they tend to assume that consumers have a homogeneous or prespecified interpurchase time. Howard and Sheth [63] suggest semi - Markov models in which time is treated as a random variable.

e] Finally, the Markov models do not suggest how multiple brand purchases should be treated . No appropriate solution to this problem has yet been suggested.

Naert and Leeflang [1978] conclude that:

" Markov models have often been applied because of their good performance as predictors of dynamic aggregate market ehaviour, rather than as a way of describing how individual consumers behave " p.189].

Linear Learning Models.

Kuehn [1962] suggested these models from the learning theory constructs of Bush and Mostelle [1955]. This model is the extreme of the zero order model, as in the learning models the whole history is taken into account. Learning, as used here, is defined as " hange in behavio which res lts from experience or practice in similar situations " [Rewoldt, Scott and Warshaw, 1969;p.53].

Though work has been done in testing the models on branded nondurables, the learning models have been less popular than the Markov models among practioners [Engel and Blackwell,1982].

In summary, Engel and Blackwell [1982] give a number of problems pertinent to the brand loyalty models. Of these, two are important: first, the models have been said to be weak because they do not take multibrand loyalty into account. This occurs amid overwhelming evidence that consumers are not always loyal to one brand [Sheth, 1969; and Ehrenberg and Goodhart, 1970].

Secondly, most of the stochastic models tend to ignore the attitudinal component, or have implicitly assumed that preference and purchase probabilities are equivalent. Engel and Blackwell [1982], suggest that this has tended to introduce some artificiality in the models. This particular criticism led to the emergence of another group of models.

Other Brand Loyalty Models.

This group of models include the studies that have attempted to establish relationships between brand loyalty and some marketing variables. The difference with previous studies is that these models first start with some measure of brand loyalty and then seek to establish its determinants.

Jarvis [1972] identified the problem of neglecting brand preference or attitude in the brand loyalty models. He developed a cognitive brand loyalty model and emphasised on this as he earlier found out brand loyal behaviour had little relationship with the marketing variables.

Although the study by Jarvis suggested a strong relationship between cognitive brand loyalty and marketing related variables, this study has poor construct validity as it emphasizes attitude at the expense of the other component: behaviour.

The study of Day [1969] differed sharply from these early attempts, in that the measure of brand loyalty used was multidimensional. This measure of brand loyalty was then related to 20 variables covering the socio - economic and demographic variables: demand, price and store response variables, exposure to information and the determinants of buying style.

In his study, Day observed that the combination of attitude and behaviour in measuring brand loyalty, contributed significantly to improving the explanation of individual variability in brand loyalty. He also discovered that the correlation of determination increased from .068 to .270, with an increase in the number of explanatory variables.

The first problem with Day's work, is that he could only manage to describe the brand loyal consumers using the ranking of the explanatory variables. He does not point to the predictive abilities of the model, and this is where its weakness lies. The second problem is related to the weights he used to combine the attitude and behaviour measures. Lutz and Winn [1974] conclude: " It is not obvious what weights should be assigned to the overt behaviour and attitude measures " [p.105].

The third problem with Day's work is that he measures sequential purchase behaviour, while brand preference is measured only at one point in time.Lutz and Winn [1974] point out that:

" This may have caused his loyalty index to be less than the consumers true brand loyalty to the brand over the entire sequence of purchases "[p.105].

More recent work at modelling consumer behaviour is found in the work of Jones and Zufryden [1980, 1984], which concentrates on improveming the estimation methods in stochastic models. They introduce logistic regression analysis to improve the predictability of market behaviour phenomenon, such as brand loyalty. The logit model, which is merely a non linear regression model, expresses market behaviour such as brand loyalty as a fuction of alternative settings of a number of socioeconomic and purchase explanatory variables. The superiority of the model inter alia, is in its ability to handle as many as 200 independent variables to explain a criterion variable. This provides a significant improvement from the earlier attempts of Zufryden [1973], Prasad [1974], Shoemaker and Shoaf [1977] and Doodson et al [1978] which looked at variables like, media exposure or store loyalty as influence variables of brand loyalty. Hence, the work by Jones and Zufryden therefore aimed to show the possibility and desirability of using a richer set of independent variables, [either categorical or continuous], and to demonstrate the method for parameter estimation using log linear techniques. In their study, they demonstrate how this modelling approach can be used to show how repeat purchase probability is related to past purchases, and deal histories as well as a few consumer characteristics.

The significance of their work, lies in the construction of a model which makes it possible to explain repeat purchase probability, as a function of relevant potential explanatory variables. Secondly, it is possible to predict the brand loyalty and brand switching estimates from the logit results.

This study uses the approach of Day [1969], and Jacoby and Chestnut [1978], in conceptualizing and measuring brand loyalty. To supplement this methodology, the more sophisticated modelling techniques developed by Jones and Zufryden [1980, 1984], to explore the probability of the existence of brand loyalty, given contingent situations of the explanatory variables, is used.

Conclusion.

Three points are made in this chapter: first, the most appropriate decision framework for studying the construct loyalty in the less developed countries has been identified to be routinized response hehaviour. Although this does not imply strong brand loyalty, the existence of low incomes, low educational standards, and poor retail institutions strongly suggests routinization of decisions for frequently purchased products.

Second, the multifaceted nature of brand loyalty as it is conceptually defined, calls for the use of a similar multidimensional measuring approach. This is considered important, as the apparent lack of consensus in brand loyalty

research could be attributed to the lack of a common conceptual and operational definition.

The third point deals with the correlation of factors influencing brand loyalty. Very few studies in this area have been conclusive, largely because of the way the construct has been defined ,the relatively small number of explanatory variables used, and the use of superficial models in establishing the relationship.

This study therefore accepts first the multidimensionality of the construct brand loyalty, and uses an appropriate measure to tap the true nature of the construct. This true measure of brand loyalty is then used to identify the factors that influence brand loyalty, through the use of a more powerful `log-linear' modelling technique. The predictive nature of this modelling technique has important implications for companies in their competitive marketing strategy. The companies would, for example, know who their loyal consumers were, the nature of brand loyalty they exhibit, and the factors that influence the existence or absence of brand loyalty. This information would enable a company to predict the likelihood of consumers switching brands when faced with a new competitive product.

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CHAPTER SIX.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

AIM OF THE CHAPTER.

This chapter aims at outlining the methods to be used in conducting the research. The chapter opens with the broad research context and its major characteristics, to help guide the selection of the research design. The research design discusses proportionate sampling method used, how the sample was selected , and the training of the interviewers. The second half of the chapter looks at the variables in the study how they were measured and the data on them collected. Finally, the methods used for data analysis, [the modelling techniques], are discussed, and suggestions made for testing the model. Then the problems faced in conducting the research are outlined.

Research Context.

This study investigates the validity of western consumer behaviour models in the non - western, less developed countries. It attempts to do this by taking the construct of brand loyalty under the general frameworks of routinized purchase behaviour and low involvement, and explores whether it is a viable concept for use in the less developed countries. A number of factors that influence this construct are investigated.

The research conducted in Zambia, is taken as indicative of a number of less developed, countries with their peculiar low levels of economic and marketing development. The Zambian environment can be characterized as having a high illiteracy rate, low standards of living, and the existence of shortages for essential products. This implies that the research will have to include all the different social classes in the country, and consider that influences of inflation which have a tendency of depressing the buying power of consumers. Product shortages which affect consumer behaviour, as they directly impact on the choice process, should also be reflected in the research design.

With this research framework and its various characteristics , the study is limited to four product groups, namely: toothpaste, soft drinks, soap and detergents. These products were chosen because they were frequently purchased products, items bought at least once every month, and hence fitting very well with the framework for low involvement and repeat purchases. Secondly, the product classes have numerous brands thus giving the consumers a chance of being disloyal. Further, these products are classified as essential products which are being bought by and familiar to, people in different social classes. These products have also been commonly used in previous brand loyalty studies in the developed countries.

Finally, there will be a focus upon individual purchase behaviour, and the exogeneous factors that influence it, therefore attention will be paid to the customers who might also be the users of the products. This differs greatly from

industrial buyer behaviour, where the buyer and the user are distinct [Cunningham and Turnbull, 1972]. From this context, the research design is derived.

Research Hypotheses.

This study investigates the existence of brand choice based consumer behaviour in the less developed countries, and identifies the contributory factors that are related to the construct loyalty. These hypothesized factors are summarized in Figure 6.A. The general form of the study can therefore be represented as:

Brand loyalty = f{ consumer characteristics, social and

peer group influences, and market

structure variables}.

In line with this formulation, four hypotheses were investigated.

Hypothesis H1.

The first hypothesis speculates on the existence of brand loyalty behaviour in the less developed countries. A few scattered papers have reported the existence of brand loyalty in in these areas. [Omana 1965; Blair 1965; Waruingi 1981; Simon-Miller 1984; and Hill and Still 1984]. Evidence from the pilot study among British Business Executives who have operations in the less developed countries, also tends to

Figure 6.A: Correlates of Brand Loyalty.
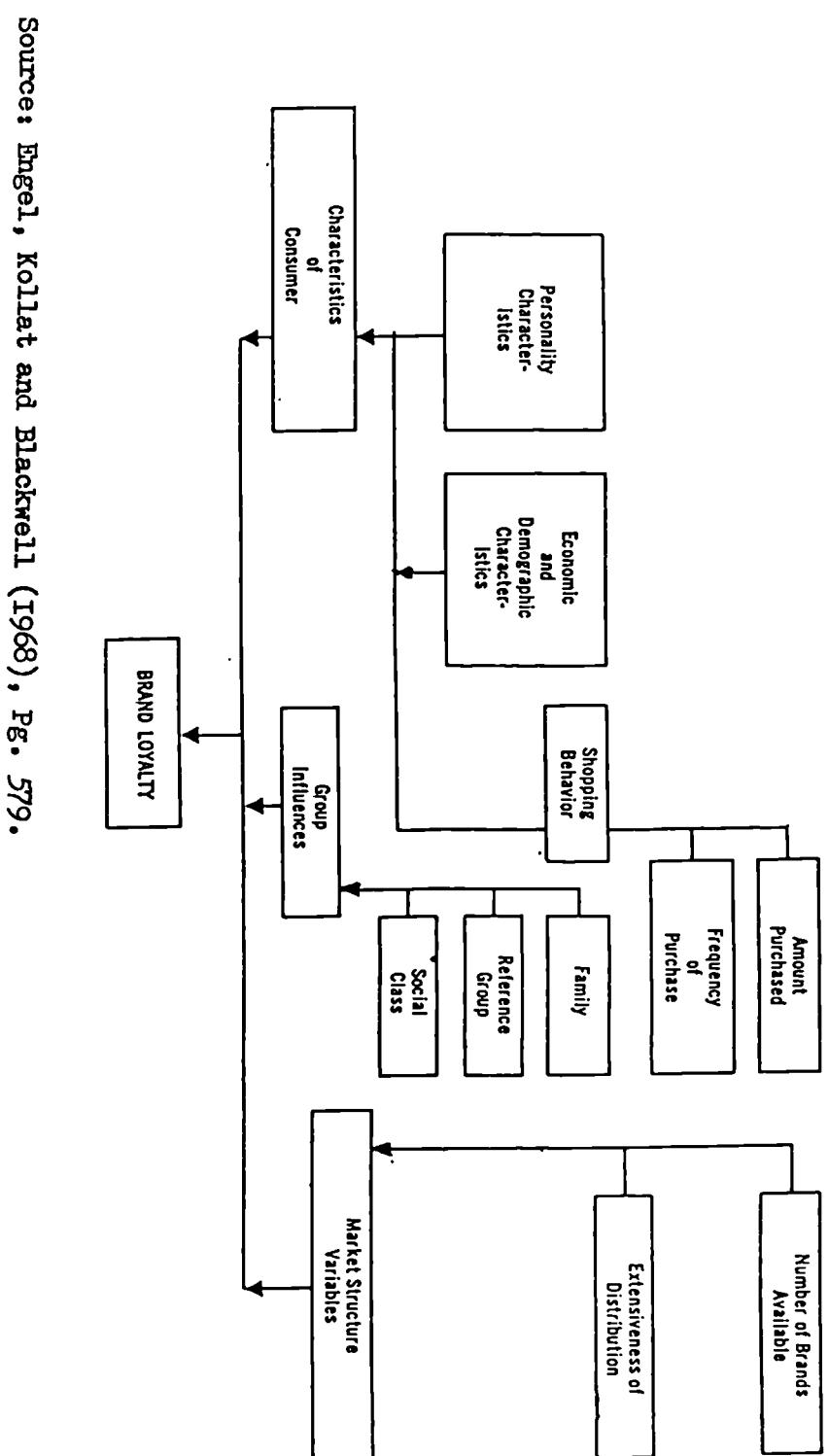
Source: Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1968), Pg. 579.

support the existence of brand loyalty behaviour in these countries. However, empirical evidence, is required for Munn [1966] previously found that in the less developed countries " brand insistence was as incongruous as it is meaningless when one is poor". The formal hypothesis concerning the dependent variable can be stated as follows:

" Brand loyalty behaviour exists among consumers in the less developed countries".

Hypothesis H2.

The second hypothesis set focuses on the relationship between brand loyalty and the characteristics of the consumers. It would seem reasonable to assume that low education levels, low incomes, high price sensitivity, high frequency of purchases, small quantity of purchases and the existence of large extended families, will all result in consumers insisting on the familiar brands in repeat purchases. Significantly, in the developed countries, Kuehn [1962]; Frank and Boyd [1965]; Massy, Frank and Lodahl [1969]; Day [1969]; and Carman [1970] report some association between brand loyalty and usage, frequency, socioeconomic and demographic variables, and store loyalty. Hypothesis H2 can therefore be formally stated as follows:

"Brand loyal behaviour of consumers in less developed countries will differ on the basis of consumer characteristics ".

Hypotheses H3a and H3b.

The third hypotheses H3a and H3b , focuses on the relationship between brand loyalty and group influence. Firstly, it is hypothesized that when a purchase decision takes place in a large family context, the outcome of any purchase is a reflection of the composite of family preferences [H3a]. Secondly, it is hypothesized that the consumers lack of sophistication in less developed countries may result in group compliance, and lead to the buying of whatever friends purchase [H3b].

Studies of Stafford and Carman [1970] in the developed countries, provide some evidence of an association between brand loyalty and the extent of association with neighbours.

The formal statement of hypothesis H3a reads as follows:

" Brand loyal behaviour of consumers in less developed countries, will differ with respect to family influences";

and H3b as;

"Brand loyal behaviour of consumers in the less developed countries will differ with respect to group influences".

Hypotheses H4a and H4b.

The market structure variables which affect the choice of brands available to the consumer, is the focus of hypotheses H4a and H4b. It is generally held that the number of brands available, and the extent of distribution, influences the brand choice

decision of consumers.

Farley [1970], provides support for the correlation between brand loyalty and market structure variables, finding that consumers tended to be less loyal towards products with many available brands, and in markets where brands were widely distributed. The existence of product shortages and poor distribution would suggest brand loyalty behaviour in the less developed countries. Hypotheses H4a is, hence, formally stated as follows:

" Brand loyalty of consumers in less developed
countries, will differ with respect to the number of
brands available".

And H4b can be formally stated as:

" Brand loyalty of consumers in the less developed
countries will differ with respect to the extent of
distribution".

However, care should be taken in interpreting the correlates of brand loyalty, for evidence exists suggesting that brand loyalty should be treated as " a product - specific rather than a general attribute" [Engel and Blackwell 1982,p.578]. Therefore studies based on certain products showing that a relationship exists between brand loyalty and some characteristics, may not necessarily contradict another study which finds that the same characteristics are not related to brand loyalty: " As some characteristics of consumers who are brand loyal across all product categories are confounded by inherent product differences"[Engel and Blackwell,1982,p.578].

Research Design.

The research design provides a general framework for specifying the type of information to be collected , the sources of data, and the data collection procedures [Kinnear and Taylor, 1979]. The importance of a good research design lies in the fact that the information gathered will be accurate and consistent with the research objectives and collected using the most economical procedures. Problems at this stage are usually encountered because there is no standard or idealized research design [Wentz, 1979 ; Kinnear and Taylor, 1979]. As such, the major guide for an appropriate research design is the objective of the research. To Kinnear and Taylor [1979], research designs can be classified according to the nature of objectives, or types of research.

There are three types of research: exploratory, descriptive and causal research. Given the objectives of this study, to measure brand loyalty in the less developed countries and establish a functional relationship with a number of contributory factors, it may be considered a piece of descriptive research. This complies with Churchill's [1983] argument that, " escriptive study is typically concerned with determining ... the relationship between two variables "[p.57].

In the same line of argument, Kinnear and Taylor [1979] suggest that descriptive research involves portraying the characteristics of a marketing phenomenon [brand loyalty], and determining the degree to which marketing variables are associated. It should ne noted that descriptive research

assumes only predictive capabilities, and is not adequate for establishing causality. Also it is not always necessary to understand causality in order to make accurate predictive statements [Kinnear and Taylor, 1979].

On the other hand, causal research seeks to establish cause - and - effect relationships. This study is limited only to investigating contributory and not causal factors of brand loyalty. In addition, the causal research designs are too complex and costly, hence they are not suitable for the time and budget allocated to the study.

Descriptive studies can be conducted using either cross sectional, or longitudinal research designs. The cross sectional designs usually involve field studies, while the field survey and longitudinal designs use true and omnibus panels [Churchill, 1983]. The major difference between these is that the true panel relies on repeated measurements of the same variables, while the omnibus panel maintains the same sample but varies the information collected.

Brand loyalty has traditionally been studied by longitudinal analysis using panels. The advantages of using panel data are that, they can be comprehensive as the respondent is compensated for the effort, and is more willing to undertake time-consuming consuming surveys. Secondly, less reliance on memory makes panels more accurate in reporting past behaviour. Further, panel data is seen as relatively free from interviewer bias. This led Wind and Lerner [1979] to criticize the use of recall data when they found discrepancies between this and panel diary

data, in individual level analysis. However, they found the two data collection methods to be the same at the aggregate level.

Although the advantages of panel diary data are very important, the reality in Zambia, and indeed in many other less developed countries, is that panel data does not exist. This is so because of the underdevelopment of the supporting marketing infrastructure [as discussed in chapter two], for there are no market research companies in Zambia. However, this may not be as serious a problem as previously considered, the use of recall data is found in recent studies by Stanton and Tucci [1982]. In their work, they found that the recall of food consumption behaviour over a short period, was consistent with diary data. The work of Raj [1985], on brand loyalty and brand popularity, uses data from the Target Group Index Report for 1976, which was obtained from annual interviews for 900 products in 20,000 households chosen as a probability sample. [See also the work of Blattberg and Golantry ,1978].

In the case of building market behaviour models, Jones and Zufryden [1980] concluded:

> "...panel data completely exclude other marketing mix variables, such as advertising or distribution. Suffice it to say that, although panel data are an excellent partial data source , they cannot provide good measures of marketing mix variables to include in [models]. Other sources of data must be used for that purpose " [p.327].

This suggests that panel data is not necessarily the best way of studying brand loyalty. With a good research design, a cross sectional study is equally good, though it takes a snapshot of the variables of interest at one point in time.. Ehrenberg refers to this approach as the dip-stick measure of brand

loyalty. The use of the survey research design in studying brand loyalty, is methodologically supported by Churchill [1984], and he argues that a field survey has greater scope [though less depth than the field study], and is more representative:

> " The survey research attempts to be representative
> of some known universe, both in terms of the number of
> cases included and in the manner of their selection"
> ⌈p.74].

Data Collection.

The identification of the cross-sectional [survey research] design, suggests the use of certain methods of collecting the survey data. The commonly used methods are observation and inquiry [communication]. Wentz [1979] describes observation as the direct examination of behaviour, with the operand' being watching consumer behaviour. However, the usefulness of this approach is limited, as it is expensive, time consuming and restrictive in its application, and is hence not suitable to collect explanatory data.

The study uses the inquiry method to collect the data. This method can be administered in three ways: personal and telephone interviews and mail questionnaires. Tull and Hawkins [1984], provide criteria for the selection of a survey method, when they suggested that selection should be based on: complexity, required amount of data, desired accuracy, sample control, time requirements, and an acceptable level of nonresponse and cost.

The interview technique, is favoured over the other two methods for the following reasons: The nature of the study itself

assumed the use of a relatively complex and highly structured questionnaire.

Further, the questionnaire and the nature of the study required a large amount of data, making it inappropriate to use mail or telephone survey. This meets the versatility criterion proposed by Kinnear and Taylor [1983]: the ability of the method to collect data on a wide range of information needs.

Also, the personal interview offers the most potential for control over the sample, as telephone interviews, for example, are limited, because very few people in less developed countries own telephones. It is difficult to satisfy the requirements of a mail survey, and provide a sampling frame with respondents' addresses, as these are usually unavailable or scanty in the less developed countries.

Again, the desirability of a high response rate favours personal interview, as call-backs are easy to make and communication is personal. Another advantage is that it generates the most accurate data given the restrictions on time and budget available for the research. Otherwise the Consumer Response Corporation uses the lockbox technique which is a combination of the three data collection methods.

The shortcomings of this method can be summarized as follows: the respondents could be unwilling to provide the answers, or may be unable to recall the facts in question. A further reservation is that this method introduces the undesired influence of the questioning process on the responses. This can

be caused either by the interviewer, or by the respondents, giving socially respectable answers, or just trying to impress the interviewer. These limitations could seriously reduce the validity of the interview method. As such, close attention was paid to the data collection instrument.

The personal interview method used to collect data was a structured - direct [survey questionnaire]. This method was preferred over the unstructured [direct focused group], structured - indirect [performance of objective tasks], and the unstructured indirect [role playing, word association, sentence completion].

The mechanics of the structured direct method are that it seeks to ask the questions in exactly the same wording, and the same sequence, across all the respondents. The advantages this brings to the method are that it controls the response bias, hence increasing the reliability of the data. This was highly desirable given the large number of interviewers used for the study. The other advantages are related to administrative simplicity, and the ease accorded in data processing , analysis and interpretation [Kinnear and Taylor, 1983].

This method could however be inappropriate if the questionnaire has fixed response alternatives, while the data to be collected is not clear cut, is not limited in scope and not well known. Attempts to use structured questions and fixed responses, might result in the loss of validity of the data [the pilot was used to mitigate this shortcoming].

<u>The</u> <u>Sampling</u> <u>Process.</u>

Population definition.

Population is defined by Wentz [1979] as " plete set of elements having a given chara⁻ istic[s] in common" [p.207]. In this study the population includes all the consumers in Zambia who purchase toothpaste, soft drinks, soap, and detergents on a regular basis, or at least in the last two months prior to the study being conducted. Using Tull and Hawkin's [1984], and Kinnear and Taylor's [1979, 1983], population definition criteria, the following can be identified:

Element ----------------- Customers in

Sampling unit----------- Households who

Extent------------------- Bought the four products

Time--------------------- On a regular or in the last two months.

This definition of the population therefore excludes the consumers, or users of the products, unless they are also purchasers. This means that the wife [or the husband in exceptional cases] were the elementary sampling units. A priori it was determined that the criteria of extent and time would not be met in the rural areas, as some products like soft drinks and toothpaste were infrequently purchased. This implies lack of penetration of these products in these areas. Measurement of this factor, is important as it would influence the existence of brand loyalty.

The Sampling Process.

A good sampling frame is desirable as the study aims to generate a probability sample, to meet the requirements of the statistical techniques to be used. The commonly used sampling frames, like the voters register, could not be used because of the secrecy surrounding such records in Zambia. Neither could telephone directories be used, as these reflected only a small fraction of consumers and mainly those in the high income group.

As an alternative, political party organization records were used. In Zambia these seem to be the best sampling frame in consumer surveys, as the party is well organized from the national level to the grass root level. The party organization is as follows:

Section level------consists of twenty five households or less

Branch level------consists of at least ten sections

Ward -------------usually has three branches

District level-----varies to population

Provincial level---varies to number of districts

National level-----related to last two.

The advantage of this sampling frame is that the errors of the frame are kept to a minimum, because each section leader keeps an up to date list of members in his section. This makes the records up to date from the section upwards. Contact was made at the ward level, after permission was obtained from officials at the district level. Sample letters introducing the

researcher to the district political officials and the ward chairmen are in Appendix 4. These letters were very important, as bureaucracy and fear of making decisions is a common problem among Zambian public officers.

Overall, this sampling frame seems to be adequate when evaluated on the five criteria provided by Chisnall [1973]. It is favoured because, it covers the entire population to be surveyed, and includes all the relevant units of the population that should be included, so is complete. It does not allow any duplication of the elementary sampling units, and it is also accurate as section leaders are required to keep up - to - date membership records of people in their sections. Further, it is convenient, as it is easily accessible once permission is obtained from the district political officials, and entries are by name of the head of household and house number.

Sampling Procedure.

There are two main methods that a researcher can use in selecting the sample. These are the judgement sample [also called non-random samples], and the random or probability samples.

The non - probability samples include convenience, judgement and quota samples. In these methods the elements of the population do not have a known probability of being selected. The probability samples include simple random, stratified and cluster samples.

The probability sampling methods are chosen as being more appropriate for the following reasons. First, the population of the study is relatively heterogeneous, and this requires representativeness which is only assured by a probability sample, hence reducing the statistical bias. Secondly, the requirement of a small nonsampling error caused by respondents, interviewer bias, or typographical errors all seem to favour a probability sample. Though these are not completely eliminated they are reduced to low levels. Finally, the need for projectable totals, low allowable errors and the high expected costs of errors, all favour the use of probability sampling [Tull and Hawkins, 1984].

Of the methods under the probability sample, the simple random sampling method is not very appropriate, because there is a probability that some segments of the population would be disproportionately represented, thus introducing a serious statistical error into the data [Wentz, 1979]. Such errors can only be reduced by taking a census.

Cluster sampling involves a process, by which a cluster or a group of elements are randomly selected at one time [Kinnear and Taylor, 1979]. Within these randomly selected areas of clusters, every unit is sampled [one - stage cluster], or random sample, taken from the selected groups [two - stage cluster].

Though cluster sampling is more useful when the populations under study are widely dispersed, making the use of random sampling costly, it has the tendency of increasing the size of the sampling error of a given sample. This is because cluster samples can exclude complete sections of the population, or include people in groups with similar characteristics. This would lead to a sample which is biased, and non-representative of the population it is intended to survey [Chisnall, 1973].

Taking the above into consideration, the study uses a proportionate stratified random sample. This method firstly divides the population into social strata, using income as the stratifying factor. The strata that emerge are high, medium and low income households [or social classes]. This factor is used as it is also closely related to the level of education, and hence important in representing the sophistication of consumers in Zambia. Using this stratifying factor, would give groups that differ among themselves, while maintaining a high degree of homogeneity within each stratum.

Secondly, a proportionate number of sample elements from each group [stratum] was drawn. Proportionate stratification was preferred, as it assures that the elements are distributed in the sample in the same proportions as they are distributed in the population, in relation to income/social class. Ideally, these proportions were to be 10% from the high income group, 30% from the middle income group and 60% from the rural areas. This method was hoped to yield the desired representativeness. This was achieved by ensuring proper representation of each segment of the population. This would not be possible from any other

sampling method. The proportionate stratified sampling method, is supported by Calder [1981] when he argues that:

" Because of it's convenience and because the precision is, in practice, never less than for a simple r= dom sample of the same size, proportionate stratification is generally the most popular method in actice "[p.28].

Time and financial constraints, coupled with transport problems, led to the selection of only two cities and their surrounding rural areas. Only in two areas were the rural areas in remote parts of the country. [See map in Appendix 5].

Sample Size.

The study initially aimed at interviewing about 1000 respondents. The choice of this number was not based on any sophisticated statistical procedures. Though this would have been desirable, the nature of the data for this study, which is categorical, makes it difficult to estimate the mean, the standard deviation and the standard error to arrive at the sample size. This type of statistical sophistication is better suited for continuous variables [Kinnear and Taylor, 1979].

The sample size of 1,000 was therefore chosen with ample consideration of a number of factors. In the first instance, there was the desire to reduce the sampling error because an increase in the sample size tends to reduce this factor. However, this means an increase in the non-sampling error as it is inversely related with sample size, [such errors as interviewer bias, defective population definition, non - response , measurement , and auspice errors tend to increase

with sample size].

The second consideration is related to the objectives of the research. In order to allow an adequate examination of the relationship of more than two variables, and be able to make valid estimates of the population parameters, a large sample size is needed.

Closely related to this, it was felt that 1,000 would ensure that the cell counts would not fall below the minimum level for the use of chi - square tests. A sample larger than 1,000 could not be entertained, as the budget and the time posed a serious constraint.

However, because of the heterogeneity of the population of consumers, it is advised that any replications use larger samples.

Sample Plan and Selection Process.

The sample for the study was from two towns: Kitwe [an industrial mining city] in the copperbelt, and Lusaka [a commercial city], the capital of the country. From these two towns came the majority of the households in the high and middle income brackets. Since large populations in the towns are usually found in the squatter compounds, this group was included to reflect the low income bracket. However the main proportion of the low income group was from four rural areas namely, St. Josephs around the Copperbelt, Chongwe and Chief Mungules area

both around Lusaka [Lusaka rural and Kabwe rural respectively],
Petauke , and Monze East. The last two areas are very
important, as they are typical rural areas with poor retailing
systems, and poor distribution. The two towns and the other
rural areas were chosen purely for convenience,[actually due to
lack of transport], but the areas in them were randomly chosen.

The selection process first involved getting permission from the
district political officials, and then selecting larger wards in
the high cost residential areas, the medium cost areas, and the
low cost and shanty compounds, to facilitate administrative
control of the interviewers.

Once the ward was chosen, contact with the officials of the ward
was made a week in advance. At this initial contact the nature
of the research was explained, and a request was also made to
alert particular section leaders to be present on the interview
day. This procedure was later found to be very important.

Sample selection involved taking the first ten sections in a
randomly selected branch. One interviewer was left in each
section, to interview ten respondents from twenty five house
holds. To avoid any unnecessary complications, the interviewers
were told to call at every other household. This was also to
avoid inquisitive neighbours from listening in. [Interviewers
were instructed to talk to only one respondent and no listeners
or bystanders]. Non-response rate was very low, as section
officials asked the selected housewives to expect a student
conducting an academic research. There were, of course, a few
non responses associated with antagonistic old ladies who

thought their time was being wasted. On other occasions, especially in the high cost areas, house servants and guard dogs frustrated attempts of the interviewers in getting access.

Interviewer Instructions.

The study used ten interviewers in Kitwe and another ten in Lusaka. These were University of Zambia undergraduate students. An important criterion in their selection, was fluency in the language used in the town/ area in which the survey was being conducted.

However, this large number was a potential source of non sampling error. To reduce the interviewer bias to tolerable limits, a rigorous one week training was conducted for both groups at different times, to standardize the approach. The other aims of the training were to:

a] introduce the interviewers to the area of inquiry,

b] develop their ability and instil self - confidence in conducting interviews,

c] familiarize the interviewers with the information the questions were tapping,

d] agree on the local language translations to promote standardization in asking the questions [reducing intervewer variability].

A complete training handout is provided in Appendix 5.

Pilot Study.

After the training periods, two pilot studies in Lusaka and Kitwe were conducted using the two groups of interviewers. The main aim of the pilot studies, was to ensure that the questionnaires to be administered were clear from ambiquities. In this manner, the pilot studies tested for the phrasing of the questions and their interpretation by the respondents, provided training for the interviewers, and in general made the questionnaire a more reliable base from which to make conclusions. The importance of pilot studies is emphasized by Oppenheim [1984] when he states that:

> " Pilot work can be of the greatest help in devising the actual wording of questions, and it operates as a healthy check, since fatal ambiquities may lurk in the most unexpected quarters".

For the pilot studies, a total of 200 questionnaires were administered to a group of people similar to those in the main study. In the first pilot study, the aim was mainly to make the students have confidence in interviewing. The researcher accompanied each student, listened to the interview and pointed out the mistakes made by the students. At the end of the day problems faced by the interviewers were discussed. Common among these, were difficulties in asking or interpreting certain questions, some questions were too long, or the alternatives given could not be distinguished by the respondents. Accordingly, better interpretations or ways of asking questions were found , certain alternatives left out, and questions dropped.

In the second pilot study, the questionnaire was further administered with particular attention paid to the problem questions like number 7. The efforts of the first pilot paid off, as the time taken to administer the questionnaires was reduced from 40 minutes to below 30 minutes, responses were closer to what was required, and morale was building within the group. A group norm of handing in 10 questionnaires a day emerged even if this meant working eight hours non-stop.

Variables and their Measurement.

Discussion of the operationalization of each study variable is important, because it has implications for the reliability and validity of the results. Reliability here, refers to the extent to which a measurement is free of variable error and bias [variable error occurs randomly each time something is measured] [Tull and Hawkins,1984]. The correct measurement of variables would lead to repeatability and generalizability of findings. On the other hand, validity refers to the extent to which the measurements are tapping the concept that it should measure, in other words adding truth to the findings [Kidder et al , 1981].

The questionnaire included multiple measures of the dependent variable, and a few other variables to ensure that the measures were reliable and valid. Duncan [1971], supports this when he states that using multiple measures, is one method of achieving a reasonably precise measure of a construct. The rationale of how the various constructs were measured is discussed below.

Dependent Variables.

Loyalty: Following the conceptual definition of brand loyalty, and the need to measure the concept using a multidimnsional approach, this study operationally defines a brand loyal consumer as one who:

a] purchases a particular brand from the product class

b] devotes at least two thirds of purchases in the product class to the most preferred brand [Charlton and Ehrenberg, 1976].

c] has a strong attitude torwards the brand [Cunninghams, 1967 brand commitment measure]

The measurement of the dependent variable using behaviour and attitude as described above allows the development of the following brand loyalty typology:

Table 6.A: Types of Brand Loyalty.

Types of Loyalty.	Proportion of Purchases.	Attitude.
True brand loyalty	High	High
Weak brand loyalty	High	Low
Low brand loyalty	Low	Low
Brand switching	Low	High

Behaviour and attitude form the major components, and were measured as follows:

Purchase: The main idea of the purchase construct is that of exchange of value. The items received in terms of quantity are one part of the exchange, and the monetary exchange is the other part [Daubek, 1981]. This suggests that purchase can either be measured by looking at the value of money spent, or the quantity purchased. The quantity was preferable as money spent would carry no meaning, due to the rate of price increases in Zambia. Hence, the proportion of purchases devoted to the most preferred brand was used.

This variable was measured by Question 9, in which the consumer was asked to think of purchases made in a particular product class over the last two months, and to indicate whether a quarter, half, three - quarters , all or none, were of the most preferred brand. Question 6 provided preliminary information to assist in asking this question. The questionnaire is in Appendix 7.

Attitude: The use of the multi-attribute models provide a useful way of measuring attitude [see Rosenberg, 1969 and Fishbein 1967]. However, these models require much data, and as a result commitment to a brand was used. Robertson [1979] defined involvement as " rength of the individual's belief system with regard to a product or a brand"[p.191].

Cunningham's [1967], stated brand commitment measure was adopted to measure the strength of attitude. Here, consumers were put in an artificial shopping situation, and asked what they would do if their most preferred brand, was out of stock. This variable was measured in Question 10. A consumer was considered to have a strong attitude to the most preferred brand, if he would search for the brand in another shop, or withheld his purchase faced with an item being out of stock.

In the way Question 10 is formulated, it can be used to measure brand loyalty. The loyal consumer is the one who always buys one brand, and shows some commitment to this.

The Independent Variables.

Characteristics of Consumers:

Personality: Kassarjian [1971], writing on personality and consumer behaviour looked at behaviour, as " ConSistent responses to environmental st⁻ulii"[p.409].

This definition led Engel and Blackwell [1982] to look at personality, as being based on characteristics that determine general patterns of behaviour. Using this understanding, they suggest that the trait-theory is a good quantitative approach to use, in looking at personality. They base their argument on the fact that, individual personality can be understood by looking

at definite predispositional attributes called traits.

These traits were measured in Question 15 as follows;

    1,2------- authoritarian and dominance.

    3,4,5----- sociables and outgoing.

    6--------- conservativeness, pessimisim

    7--------- group compliance, pleasing others

    8--------- venturesomeness

    9--------- cosmopolitanness.

Shopping Characteristics: The shopping characteristics are measured by the amount of purchases, and the inter-purchase time or frequency of purchases, and size of packages. Question 7 measured the former, and the latter was measured in Question 6.

Other shopping characteristics pertinent to the study, were the degree to which consumers were exposed to a variety of brands. This was measured by asking where various products were bought, and whether they preferred one shop to others. [These were tapped in Question 16 & 17].

The extent to which consumers are affected by price changes, i.e, price sensitivity, was measured by putting the respondent in a hypothetical situation and asking them if they would buy their most preferred brand regardless of price and when the price increased. Finally, the use of choice tactics in identifying the most preferred brands was measured in Question 21.

Demographic Characteristics: It was felt that the time available to the housewife, had an influence on the nature of the purchase behaviour the women portrayed. The non-working housewife had more free time, and hence a chance to search around when the preferred brand was not available, while the working house wives who had little time would buy an alternative brand instead. This influence was measured by the occupation of house wife.

Another factor considered important, was the education level of the respondents, and the amount of income at the disposal of the household. Question 38 measured the level of education, and income was measured in question 41 by taking the total monthly income, and the occupation of the head of the head of the household. This was necessary for validation, as it was thought that wives would not know or reveal the incomes of their husbands. Questions 39 & 40 measured. this.

Family and Group Influences.

Park and Lessing [1977], suggested that if consumers did not have enough information to use in evaluating products, they would accept the views of others as evidence of the nature of the product. Question 23 collects information on the potential influence of friends and the family, by asking the respondents to indicate their degree of agreement, or disagreement, to three statements. Questions 24 and 25 collect further information on

the influence of family members, on the decision of where to buy the choice of the brands.

Market Structure Variables.

These variables were measured in a qualitative manner, and hence not included in the questionnaire. First, the information on the number of brands available for each product category and the extensiveness of distribution, was collected by carrying out store audits in the various places the survey was conducted. This merely involved listing all the various brands the retail outlets had in stock.

Further, the retailers were asked how helpful the manufacturing companies, were in distributing the various brands [extent of distribution]. Finally, information on the market share of brands was collected, by having informal interviews with four marketing managers from the companies manufacturing the products.

Methods Used for Data Analysis.

Usually in deciding the method of data analysis the decision depends on the number of variables to be analysed, whether description or inference is required, and the level of measurement. As this study uses many variables, requires inference and uses nominal data, this points to certain techniques being more appropriate.

At a very preliminary level, univariate analysis is used to provide a description of the study variables, to show typographical errors in the data, cleaning the data and identifying blunders made. For this, relative frequencies are obtained for all the study variables.

The second step, is to investigate associations among various study variables, by using the chi-square tests. This method is performed using contigency tables, and seeks to determine if there is a statistically significant difference between any two variables. The desirability of this statistic, is that it enables the determination of whether the observed associations are true, or are merely due to sampling error. In using this method, the null hypothesis is that the observed association of any two variables is a result of chance, or else it is assumed that there is a significant association between variables.

However, since the aim of the study is to establish a functional relationship between a dependent variable, and a number of independent variables [all measured categorically], it is necessary to go beyond the chi-square, and use a predictive multivariate functional dependence technique. This enables the specification of the relationship between brand loyalty behaviour and a group of independent variables. Such a model would give the capability to predict the probability that a randomly chosen observation, whose predictor variable profile if known, would fall into any of the predictor variable's classes [Green, Carmone, Warchspress, 1977]. These methods are not

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however in any way very different from the analysis of dependence structures, involving multidimensional contingency tables with one criterion variable. One such modelling technique which is also used in this study is the log - linear analysis using the Logit model.

Log-linear Analysis Using Logit.

Berkson [1955] first investigated logit type models in the context of cross tabulation data. In their most recent work, Jones and Zufryden [1984] reported the logit model as:

> "useful in the modelling of brand purchase probability
> as a function of explanatory variables in the context
> of comprehensive brand choice... for frequently
> purchased non durables "[p.86].

The attractiveness of the logit model over the simple chi - square tests, is that they have a predictive ability [Green et al, 1977] and the criterion variable is a proportion, that is, whether consumers portray loyalty behaviour or not. This makes it difficult to use dummy variable regression analysis, Automatic Interaction Detection or ANOVA, as the dependent variable does not meet the normality assumption, nor does it show any constant variance [homoscedasiticity], across variations in the predictors [dummy coded variables]. Again, these models usually have predictions outside the 0 to 1 range.

These problems are solved by using the logit model, which transforms the proportions data, hence constraining the values between 0 and 1. The logit model also takes the unequal error variances into account. This is achieved by the logistic

transformation, and thereby provides a useful and natural representation of the data [Berkson, 1944; Neter and Wasserman , 1974; and Henri, 1969].

The logit modelling technique also has an added advantage, in that it can use any number of explanatory variables [of course depending on the statistical package used]. It also uses a parameter estimation method, which is similar to linear regression model [Jones and Zufryden, 1980]. A logit modelling technique will therefore be used, to explain brand choice probability as a function of purchase explanatory variables.

Model Specification.

The logit model is defined by the vector A which represents the set of explanatory variables that influence loyalty behaviour.

$$A = \{ X1, \ldots. Xn\}.$$

The Xs are the factors in the hypothesis which are likely to influence the purchase decision.

The dependent variable Pj, is individual j's probability of being loyal to the most preferred brand, as opposed to any other brand, given that a product class purchase is being made. The assumptions about Pj are outlined by Jones and Zufryden [1980] as follows:

a] each consumer has a different value of Pj for different values of the vector A.

b] Pj will have a probability distribution over the population of consumers. If this is the case then P can be considered to be a random variable.

c] P is constant over time in the absence of changes in A.

d] E(P),ie, the expected value of P changes as A changes. In particular it is defined by a logit model such that;

$$O A = Log [E (P) / 1 - E (P)] = Bo + B1 X1 + ... Bn Xn.$$

Where;

Bo ... Bn = the Beta coefficients to be estimated

X's = values of the explanatory variables.

The mechanics of the logit model are that the explanatory variables are set at particular levels [0,1], and contingent situations corresponding to these levels are defined. By appropriately classifying consumers according to situational contingencies , it is then possible to obtain observed probabilities Pj for the alternative situations j.

Representing the dependent variable as above, implies expressing it in terms of odds favouring the existence of loyalty behaviour to a particular brand i. For a discussion of similar, but less desirable modelling techiniques such as Gombit and Probit, [refer to Aldrich and Nelson, 1984; p.31].

Parameter Estimation.

Two methods are commonly used to estimate the logit models: these are Maximum Likelihood Estimation [MLE], and the Weighted Least Squares [WLS].

The MLE method is defined as that value of the parameters which maximizes the log likelihood function. In this instance, the ML approach makes use of the available information, as the variance is at least asymptotically, the minimum obtainable from the data [Malhorta, 1984].

The mechanics of ML are that it chooses an estimate of " b " the set of K numbers , say ^b, which makes the likelihood of having observed this particular Y as large as possible. In this manner, the ML estimate is that value for which " b " yields the largest value of

$$L [Y / X, \hat{b}] = MAX [Y / X, B].$$

This means that it picks the parameter estimates that imply the highest probability, or likelihood, of having obtained the observed sample Y [Aildrich and Nelson, 1984; p.51]. For obtaining an unbiased estimate the following assumptions are made about ML:

a] Y_i E { o,1} , i = 1, ..., N. This merely states that Y is assumed to depend on a number of exogeneous variables and it is these that cause changes in P [which is here

taken as the probability that Y equals one.

b] $P = P[Y=1 / Xi... Xk = exp[bk Xk] / 1 + exp [bk Xk]$

c] That the data is from a random sample making observations on Y being stastistically independent from each other, hence ruling out any serial correlation

d] no exact or near linear dependencies exist among the Xiks across K, that is the explanatory variables must not be perfectly correlated [Aldrich and Nelson, 1984].

A and B are referred to as the specification assumptions.

The maximum likelihood estimation method is used in this study, because it can be calculated at a relatively lower cost than WLS cost. This method is also favoured because it does not require many observations per cell. Flath and Leornard [1979] point out that what was a small sample for WLS may be adequate for MLE. In their study they showed that MLE had better test statistics. Malhorta [1984] recommended the use of ML when the sample size is greater than 50. The difference was however reported to be small for large samples only that MLE logit tended to be more significant. Finally, the ML approach is based on individual observations, and is therefore congenial to categorical data, whereas WLS requires adjustments to achieve the cell frequencies required for application of WLS, and this makes the estimator inconsistent and may make it seriously biased [Mac Fadden, 1974].

Model Testing.

This stage of model building involves testing, to determine how well the predicted probabilities fit the observed probabilities. This task has a number of methods which can be used to evaluate the fit of a logit model to the observed data [see Amemiya , 1981].

The most common is the accuracy of prediction method using the chi - square . This is provided in the SPSS-X output and Green et al [1977] define it as:

$$X = i \ j \ k \ \{ \ n_{ijk} [P_{ijk} - \hat{P}_{ijk}] \ 2 \ / \ \hat{P}_{ijk} [1 - \hat{P}_{ijk}] \ \}$$

Another associated statistic[p - level] also yields an overall relative goodness of fit. This is the probability of observing a value greater or equal to X, under the null hypothesis that the model has generated the observed data [Jones and Zufryden,1984]. Studies which have used this method include Green et al [1977], Jones and Zufryden [1980, 1982], and Malhorta [1982, 1983].

The other statistic usually used is an improvement of Akaite Information Criterion [AIC], defined as

$$AIC = -L + K,$$

Where:
L is the maximized log likelihood function and

K is the number of parameters to be estimated.

However, this was improved by MacFadden [1974], who suggested a normalization of L to produce an R2 defined by

$$Mc\ Fadden's\ R2 = 1- [L/Lo]\ ,$$

Where:

Lo = maximum of L subject to the constraint that all the regression coefficients except the constant are zero. This statistic has been used by Flath and Leornard [1979], Chapman and Staelin [1982], and Malhorta [1982].

The problem with these model testing methods, [except chi - square], is that no bench mark exists for the measures. Malhorta [1982] summarised as follows;

> "   ive performance of a model could be judged by
> ⌐mparing it with alternative model formulations on the
> same data. Also, values of the specific statistic used
> o examine model fit could be compared with the
> ⌐orresponding values obtained in other marketing
> studies " [p.23].

This study will hence use a number of techniques to test the models of brand loyalty for the four product classes.

Conclusion.

This chapter outlines the research context and its characteristics, data collection, the sampling process, measurement of the variables and the methods used in analysing the data.

The main points that emerge can be summarized as follows:
the nature of the environment in which the research is being
conducted, should be reflected as much as possible by the
research design chosen for the study. This condition assures
the study reliability.

Since the study is descriptive in nature, a cross sectional
research design was chosen as most appropriate. Under this
design, the data was collected using a highly structured
questionnaire on 1,289 respondents drawn from different social
strata in the country. The population were consumers who had
purchased a product in the last two months, and the sampling
frames readily available were sectional registers from the
political party organization.

It should however be mentioned, that the research was not
without problems: the sponsors [University of Zambia] could not
allocate a vehicle for the study and this severely limited the
areas which could be sampled. Dependence on public transport
made the task frustrating and virtually impossible.

Secondly, getting access in the high cost areas was a big
problem, as the high level of house-breaking in these areas led
to high walls being built for security reasons. Furthermore,
the house servants who at times met the interviewers at the
gates were very uncooperative. Where no walls were present
guard dogs were a constant nuisance.

Also, the process of getting permission from some political officers was a big problem, and hence delayed the research unduly. This emphasis on bureacracy is a very serious obstacle in Zambia, and some allowance was made in the planning phase for this.

The fourth problem, which was critical, involved the translation of technical marketing terms into local languages which are not technical languages. This made it very difficult for certain questions to be asked in the most appropriate manner. This problem was further exacerbated by the initial attempts to refine the questionnaire as if it was going to be administered on British respondents. As such, some questions were regarded as funny by the respondents: the Likert scales were typical.

The other problem which had a potential for affecting the quality of the data, was that one group of interviewers developed a group norm of meeting the days work of 10 questionnaires in the least time. Anybody who exceeded this was called a ` Post - Graduate'. Though this maintained the morale of the group amid poor allowances, the emphasis on quantity rather than quality was not particularly welcome in research that was attempting to gather reliable and valid data.

Finally, cooperation in the rural areas was not very good, because it was the time of harvesting and the women were mostly involved in this. The number of refusals were hence a critical factor in these areas. In addition to this, the nature of the

study was regarded as of no relevance to these rural dwellers as the nature of the products were not even available in these areas, and their concern was more on agriculture. This reflects their familiarity to agriculture researches, and unfamiliarity to marketing research.

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EMPIRICAL FINDINGS.

Aim of the chapter.

The chapter aims to provide empirical consumer behaviour data for the less developed countries. This is undertaken to provide a data base for understanding consumer behaviour, as there is paucity of this in the less developed countries. This is achieved by using frequency tables. Secondly, cross tabulations to discover the underlying associations, are performed using the Chi- square test of independence. The results of the multidimensional contingency table analysis using LOGIT analysis are given. This allows an examination of the influence, and relative importance, of a number of independent variables on brand loyalty at the same time. This is included to show the importance of using more powerful statistical techniques in this kind of study.

Description of The Study Variables.

Frequency tables were used as a first step to providing a description of the study variables, hence supplying a rich data base of empirical consumer behaviour in Zambia. This is regarded as important because literature reviews on consumer behaviour in the less developed countries, reveals that this

kind of information is very scarce. Further, this information would assist the marketing managers in the less developed countries to make effective marketing strategy decisions. This information also serves as an important background to the later stages.

The study in theory, was to be drawn proportionately from 60 % of the population from the rural areas, and some 40% from the urban areas. However due to insufficient time for the research, cost and transport problems, slightly different proportions were sampled. These are presented in Table 7.A. Apart from this slight departure from the actual population proportions, it is felt that the data collection was quite succesful.

Table 7.A: Survey sample proportions.

Social Class	Theoretical %	Actual %
High class	10%	5% [62]
Middle class	30%	27% [345]
Low class		
Urban		
Rural	60%	68% [882]

These differences were due to a number of factors. Interviewing working women from the high income group was difficult, as the interviewers often called while the wives were out at work. This could explain the small proportion sampled in the high social class. Secondly, the low class seems over-represented,

as it includes a large population of people in shanty compounds in Kitwe and Lusaka. This group was thought to be important, as it represented the poor in the urban areas, in addition to the poor in the rural areas. Apart from these minor differences, the sample can be regarded to be a close approximation of the Zambian population.

The sample of 1289 consumers consisted of married females between the ages of 26 and 35 years, with 59% [765] of these women having only primary education, and an average family size of 6-8 people. On average 53%, of these women were unemployed, and 35% [451] were self-employed, 53% [670] of whom had an average total household income of between K100 and K400 per month. This level of income in 1980, was categorized as middle income [CSO,1984]. However it is apparent that with the high cost of living in the country, this level could currently best be catagorized as low income in the urban areas.

This data shows that the typical purchasers of products [who were mostly women], are in the middle age bracket, are uneducated, do not work and are from low social classes with relatively large families. With the average number of 6-8 members in a household this would mean a reduced discretionary income. The picture which emerges is that of a consumer with very low sophistication.[Summary below]

Information Sources.

Characteristics of Respondents:

	Frequency	%
1. Gender		
Male	145	11
Female	1142	89
2. Marital Status		
Married	1124	87
Single Parent	88	7
Single	69	5
Missing	8	.6
3. Size of Household		
1 - 3	213	17
4 - 5	312	24
6 - 8	426	33
9+	24	2
4. Age.		
15 - 25 yrs	349	27
26 - 35 yrs	511	40
36 - 45 yrs	287	22
46+	124	10
Missing	18	1
5. Level of Education.		
Did not go to school	250	19
Primary	765	59
Secondary	241	19
College/University	30	2
Missing	3	.2
6. Occupation		
Manual	203	15
Clerical	357	28
Supervisory	55	4
Top Management	18	2
Unemployed	565	43
Missing	61	5
7 .Level of Income.		
Less than K100	327	31
K101 - k400	605	57
k401 - k500	65	6
k501+	76	7

In spite of the low level of education reported, the respondents showed a very high recall of advertising messages for toothpaste and bath soap: these were 83% [1081], and 80% [1060] respectively. Advertising recall for Coca -Cola and detergents was not as high, with 28% of the respondents being unable to recall the message for Coca-Cola, and only 42% correctly recalling the detergent advertising message. This shows good advertising message penetration for toothpaste and soap, and poor for detergents and soft drinks. Another possible reason for this is the amount of money spent on advertising, and the length of time the products have been on the market. This seems make sense because the most preferred toothpaste [Colgate] and the soap [Choice], are manufactured by Colgate Palmolive [Z] Ltd.

However, when data on the sources of information is examined, it is observed that the respondents found radio and personal sources of information to be more useful than the other traditionally marketer-dominated sources. 77% [994] indicated radio to be the most important, while friends [personal source] as was second in importance with 67% [867] of the respondents. Newspaper and television were rated lowest in importance with 59% [760], and 83% [1067] respectively, indicating the sources not to be useful. This emphasis on personal sources is similar to the findings of the study by Foxall [1975], the only difference being that in this study it seems to be more influenced by the low ownerships of radios [only 77% had radios], while only 22% owned televisions, and 50% did not read newspapers. These figures suggest that to reach a larger audience, marketers have to make effective use of radio and personal media. In addition, these results also suggest, that

of the traditional marketer dominated sources, radio is a more effective communication vehicle, as 77% [890] of the respondents owned radios, and indicated that they listened to the radio most of the time while at home.

Shopping Behaviour.

The results on the brand last bought revealed the following brands to be most popular [see Table .B below].

Table 7.B: Brands bought last.

Product class	Popular brand	%	No. of brands available
Toothpaste	Colgate t/paste	90%	5
Soft drinks	Fanta	30% }	7 +
	Coca-Cola	36% }	
Soap	Choice	99%	4 +
Detergent	Strike	99%	5 +

+ indicates that these are minimum numbers.

The information in Table 7.B suggests possible brands which are brand leaders. However, more significant is the fact that these products have substantial competition, such that the naming of one brand did not arise because that was the only brand available. This requirement is similar to the one used in, the study by Harper [1975] in Kenya and England.

In addition, the high percentage of respondents reporting to have last bought brands of Colgate toothpaste, Choice bath soap, and Strike detergents would seem to suggest that consumers would insist on these brands in repeat purchases. However, this does not suggest brand loyalty as it tends to look at behaviour alone, and evidence exists which shows that the intention to buy the same brands in repeat purchases was low. For toothpaste, only 49% of the respondents reported that they would definitely buy the same brand again. In the case of soap and detergents, the respondents indicated that the intention to buy the same brand again was contingent on the brands being available [45.5% and 50% respectively]. It could be argued that in the absence of the most preferred brand, consumers would settle for another brand, and in essence this implies multi-brand buying. However, in the absence of accurate sales figures, this information could be used to approximate brand market shares.

The results of the shopping patterns for the four products are given in Table 7.c.

Table 7.C: Frequency, Size and Amount of Purchases.

Product class	Frequency/month	Size	Amount.
Toothpaste	Once	Large	1 tube
Soft drinks	4 or 12	Standard	1 or 4
Soap	Once	Standard	2 bars.
Detergents	Once	Medium	2 packets.

Table 7.C shows that the average repurchase cycle for the products except soft drinks, is once per month. This low frequency is justified by the large or medium sizes of products purchased and consequently the small amount. However, there is evidence of the existence of hoarding behaviour,as the amount of products bought at times was more than what would be considered sufficient for household requirements. The products in which this was reported, [soap and detergents], are commonly short in supply on the market. During the research period, The Price and Incomes Commission [1985] reported an availability index for detergents of 33.3% in Lusaka, and 42.9% in Kitwe, while the index for soap was 11.1% in Lusaka and 14.3% in Kitwe. The availability index is described by Chivuno [1986], as the measure of availability of commodities in the retail outlets. A low index revealed scarcities and a high number indicated availability.

The study by Yavas et al [1981] in Turkey, provides different results from the ones presented in Table 7.C. In the case of frequency of purchases, these authors found that in Turkey 53%

of shoppers did their grocery shopping twice a week. A possible source of difference could be due to the nature of products looked in the two studies. On the other hand, the basic differences between Turkey and Zambia cannot be ruled out even if these are at times treated as though they were homogeneous less developed countries.

On the other hand, in the U.K, Foxall [1975] reports that there is a higher frequency of shopping among middle class women than among lower class respondents. A striking similarity between the less developed and developed countries, is in the amount purchased. Table 7.c shows that for a standard or medium size, the average number of purchases is two. Ehrenberg [1969] in his studies in Europe, U.K and U.S.A, using similar types of products, reports that:

> " The average number of packs bought on a single purchase occasion does not seem to vary greatly by brand .... In general, the average number of units bought per purchase may therefore be regarded as a product field constant.... In most of the product fields covered, people mostly bought 1 or perhaps 2 units per purchase" [p.311].

Regarding the places where products were bought, the results show that local groceries were most popular for soft drinks, and the supermarkets for the other three products. This could imply that soft drinks were widely stocked by retail outlets, while the other products would only be found in the large supermarkets which are mostly state owned. The choice criteria for the retail outlets supports the importance of product availability. Table 7.D gives the criteria used in selecting shops.

Table 7.D: Selection Criteria for Shops.

Reason	%
Well stocked	34% [416]
Fair prices	13% [165]
Near home	12% [155]

[Note that the total percentage is not 100 as missing values and other miscellaneous combinations are not included].

Table 7-D shows that the respondents regarded good stocking of the retail outlet as an important selection criterion. This criterion reflects the influence of product scarcities, which tends to make consumers prefer those shops most likely to stock the product/brand. The second criterion suggests the importance of the influence of limited discretionary power on shopping behaviour, showing a preference for shops which charge "fair" prices. Fair price, as used here " refers to some general idea of affordability allied to some sense of intrinsic value" [Cannon, 1986]. This point is very important because it was discovered that prices usually differed significantly in the same town [supported by Price Watch, 1985 August]. The state ·shops were found to charge lower prices. Since price is the second most important criterion in selecting outlets, respondents showed high preference for these shops.

It follows from the criteria used in selecting retail outlets that the consumers would portray high preferences for the shops which meet this criteria, hence developing store loyalty (see Table 7.E below].

Table 7.E: Preference for Shop.

Preference	Frequency	%
No specific shop	495	38.4%
Specific Shop	790	61.3%

The results in Table 7.E show that the respondents preferred specific shops. However, this does not suggest that other shops were not checked, as the existence of shortages would make consumers search extensively rather than intensively. 65% percent [838] as opposed to 33% of the respondents reported that they checked in many shops before making a purchase: however, it seems this would only be engaged in after the favourite shop is checked.

Another important point revealed by the study on shopping behaviour, is in the way the consumers identified the preferred brands, and the choice tactics they used in the purchase of the brands. The results show that 57% [738] used brand name, while only 34% [431] used package design and only 5% [61] used brand marks. This implies that, regardless of the low education levels of LDC consumers, brands are asked for by their names, suggesting that these names should be very simple to pronounce and remember. This becomes even more important in a situation where the products in the local groceries are still sold from behind the counters. Difficulties in pronouncing the bath soap Choice was clear among the consumers who simply referred to it

as " Joyce". These observations are contrary to the opinions of the managers interviewed in the pilot study, who held that consumers in the less developed countries use brand marks to identify products. Given this, strategies used by some pharmaceutical companies to sell their brands by emphasizing the brand mark, would not be as effective as when the brand name is emphasized.

The method used in identifying the brands was further justified by the choice tactic used in purchasing the brands. The results on the choice tactics used are given in Table 7.F.

Table 7.F shows that buying the "familiar brand" is the most commonly used choice tactic for soft drink and toothpaste. However, it is interesting to note that for soap and detergents, the respondents indicated almost equal importance to " buying whatever is available", and " buy the familiar brand". This suggests brand switching behaviour for soap and detergents. This is because customers who use " buy whatever is available" as a choice tactic, would buy different brands on different purchase occasions, sugesting multi-brand buying. Buying whatever the shopkeeper recommends is relatively unimportant for all product classes. This could be because of the self-service provided in the supermarkets, and also in the nature of the products.

When regarding who made the decision on where and what brand to buy, the results show that the housewives made both of these decisions, followed by the husband and the children, in order of

Table 7.F : Choice tactics for selecting brands for various products.

Tactic	Toothpaste	Soft drink	Soap	Detergent
Cheapest brand	15%	13%	16%	16%
Familiar brand	62%	62%	40%	39%
Retailers advice	1%	6%	5%	3%
Whatever is available	11%	14%	39%	41%

importance. This was also reflected in the tendency of housewives to go shopping alone [62%], as opposed to shopping in the company of friends [12%].[see Table 7.G below].

Table 7. G: Persons with who Housewives go with in Shopping.

Company	Frequency	%
Alone	805	62.5
Friends	160	16.0
Children	69	6.0
Husband	107	9.0
Other	32	2.5

However, 65% of the respondents consulted friends on brands that were unfamiliar, and 87% of the respondents indicated that they took into account the preferences of the family in making brand choice decisions. These results suggest that the purchase of the products can be described as an individual purchase decision, with significant peer and family influences.

Consideration of the number of brands available and the extent of the distribution results of the retail audits in the areas interviewed, and interviews with the retailers, is presented below.

The findings were that in the first class trading areas, (down town), the retail oulets were big and well-stocked, with many

brands of the products classes considered in the study. Supermarkets situated in high cost residential areas, also tended to be better stocked than the outlets in middle and low cost housing areas. In the medium cost areas a medium sized state owned shop would be found. However, the majority of the shops in these areas were very small, with average size ranging from 3 X 8 metres to 6 X 15 metres. Most of these groceries were using about 25% of total shelf space. They therefore restricted themselves to the brands which were most popular among consumers and the products which were brought to them by wholesalers with delivery trucks or the manufacturers' salesmen. This meant that the manufacturers who supported the retail outlets by delivering orders, had a higher chance of enjoying repeat purchases.

In the rural areas the retail outlets were much smaller, at times only carrying stock which would be easily transported by bicycle. The distance of these areas from the wholesalers, who were mostly along the line of rail, meant great distances had to be travelled to get supplies, and transport was usually a big problem. As such, the number of brands were restricted to a few or most often a single brand.

What this meant was that in the urban areas and especially in the high cost areas the distribution of the brands was extensive and many brands were available. On the other hand, in the low density areas like the "shanty compounds", and most significantly in the rural areas, distribution was limited and this tended to limit the number of brands available.

Test of Hypotheses [Using Chi-Square Tests of Independence]

Test of Hypothesis H1.

In exploring the existence of brand loyalty in the less developed countries, frequency tables were computed on which a "Goodness - of - fit" was performed using chi - square one variable test. The importance of the "Goodness - of - fit", is that it permits the determination of whether or not a significant difference exists between the observed number of cases falling into each category, and the expected number of cases based on the null hypothesis [Haber and Runyon, 1977]. Table 7.H below gives the number of respondents, classified in different degrees of brand loyalty.

From Table 7.H a chi - square one variable test was performed for each product class. This was achieved by taking a null hypothesis which allows the specification of the frequencies that would be expected in each category, and a test of this hypothesis. With four categories, the expected number in each is 25% [322]. The null hypothesis, that the observations in each category are not significantly different from the expected number of categories, was tested by:

$$x^2 = \frac{[Fo - Fe]}{Fe}$$

Table 7-H: Degrees of brand loyalty for various products.

	Toothpaste		Soft Drink		Soap		Detergent	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
High brand loyalty	635	49	397	31	408	32	380	30
Weak brand loyalty	222	17	306	24	424	33	422	33
Low brand loyalty	51	4	93	7	129	10	150	12
Brand switching	189	14	247	19	233	18	232	18

Where:

Fo = the observed number in a given category,

Fe = the expected number in that category [25%],

The calculations of the test are presented in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1 : Goodness - of - fit test for all Product classes.

Product	x^2	Significance	D.f.
Toothpaste	350	p < .001	3
Soft Drink	199	p < .001	3
Soap	196	p < .001	3
Detergents	159	p < .001	3

x^2 = Chi- square,   D.F = Degress of Freedom.

The calculations in Table 7.1 lead to the conclusion that there is a significant difference between the expected number of cases, and the actual number of cases falling into each category. This means that the types of brand loyalty in each product category are significantly different at .001 level of significance.

Given the high level of significance in Table 7.1, the results in Table 7.H above suggests that brand loyalty exists in all product classes. However, this seems to be more apparent for toothpaste and soft drinks. This is because even if a high brand loyalty was demonstrated for soap and detergents, there were higher percentages of respondents reporting weak brand

loyalty. From Table 6 .A , this suggests that for soap and detergents, most consumers devoted more than half of their purchases to the most preferred brand, but surprisingly were not very committed to the brand. This would imply the existence of multi-brand buying, probably caused by product shortages in these product classes. This is supported by the high level of brand switching behaviour observed for soap and detergents. At best, the brand loyalty reported for soap and detergents can be described as spurious.

It is interesting to note that in the products where brand loyalty is high , there are a few well established brands: Colgate toothpaste and Coca-Cola were most popular and these are both old and well-entrenched brands in the market. This could explain the interbrand differences that exist between toothpaste and soft drinks on one hand, and soap and detergents on the other hand.

The results presented in Tables 7.H and 7.F, leads to rejection of the null hypothesis that brand loyalty does not exist in the less developed countries. This suggests that brand loyalty exists in the less developed countries, though there are some interbrand differences.

From this observation, a number of individual, situational and environmental variables were cross tabulated with brand loyalty, to determine whether they influenced brand loyalty or not. Cross-classification with chi-square analysis was employed to investigate this relationship between the dependent, [brand loyalty], and independent [explanatory] variables. The test

sets the null and alternative hypothesis as;

Ho = Failure to reject implies statistical independence, i.e, there is no statistical association between brand loyalty and the explanatory variables.

H1 = Rejection of the null hypothesis implies that statistical association exists.

In order to determine whether a sytematic relationship exists between the variables, the probability of obtaining a value of chi-square as large or larger than the one calculated from the sample, is examined [this is included in the SPSS-X outputs]. The results had 0.0001 probability in most cases, suggesting that there is 1 chance in 10,000 of obtaining a larger chi-square value with a given number of degrees of freedom.

Test Of Hypothesis H2.

Economic and demographic characteristics: The null hypothesis for H2a can be stated as: There is no difference in brand loyalty among consumers with different economic and demographic characteristics.

Table 7.J presents the chi-square and significance levels for consumer characteristics.

Table 7.J shows that a relationship exists between brand loyalty and size of household, thereby suggesting some statistical dependence for soft drinks, soap and detergents. A close examination of the contingency tables reveals that this relationship is negative, as small households tended to be more

Table 7.J : Relationship between consumer characteristics and brand loyalty for different products.

Variables	Products							
	Toothpaste		Soft drink		Soap		Detergent	
	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig
Size of household	15	NS	18	*	27	**	29	**
Income	14	NS	21	**	31	**	39	**
Education	17	*	13	NS	19	*	31	**
Age	8	NS	7	NS	30	**	25	**
Sex	12	**	13	**	14	**	14	**
Occupation of Wife	44	**	38	**	97	**	102	**

* p < .05, ** P < .01, NS _ Not Significant, X^2 - Chi-square.

brand loyal than large households. In particular, it is worthwhile noting that the level of brand loyalty for toothpaste was overwhelming for all sizes of households. This tended to make it statistically independent, suggesting that brand loyalty for toothpaste is not related to size of household.

From previous results (Frank, Massy and Lodahl, 1969), it was hypothesized that no significant differences would be found between different age groups and sexes. The data on sex rejects this hypothesis, indicating that males were more loyal than females. A likely explanation for this is that females usually made the purchases, and were therefore better informed about the brand alternatives available. This explanation is supported by the results, which show that females decided on where to make purchases and what to buy, and that they were more prone to brand switching.

There was not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference in brand loyalty among different age groups [for toothpaste and soft drinks]. This partly supports earlier results of age having no influence on brand loyalty [Frank, Mass, and Lodahl, 1969]. However, the results might have been different if a larger difference in age groups was reflected in the sample.

A negative relationship between brand loyalty and income and education was hypothesized, with low income and uneducated consumers being more loyal. The data showed that a relationship existed, but the direction of influence was not as hypothesized, for instead the high income and the educated consumers were

found to be more brand loyal than the poor and the uneducated. This finding strongly suggests that discretionary income and education have significant influences on brand loyalty.

The time which women had for shopping, was hypothesized to influence brand loyalty, with working women being more brand loyal than the unemployed women. This hypothesis was only supported for soap and detergents, while the direction of the influence was reversed for toothpaste and soft drinks.

Finally, the results on the association between personality and traits and brand loyalty showed that authoritarian/dominance, and sociable/outgoing traits did not differ to degrees of brand loyalty. On the other hand, group compliance/pleasing others and venturesomeness were significant at .01 for all product classes. However, it was difficult to identify the direction of the influence for these traits. This could be a result of the insensitivity of the personality measures adopted in this study. Further investigation is necessary to determine the nature of the influence of the significant personality traits.

Shopping Characteristics: The null hypopthesis for H2b can be stated as follows: There are no differences in brand loyalty with respect to shopping characteristics of consumers. Table 7.K gives the results of the influence of the shopping characteristics on brand loyalty.

Table 7.K shows that the hypothesized relationship between brand loyalty and frequency of purchases, is not supported by the data for all the products, nor was that of brand loyalty and store

Table 7.K : Relationship between brand loyalty and shopping characteristics.

	Toothpaste		Soft Drink		Soap		Detergent	
	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig
Quantity Purchased	18	NS	37	**	61	**	42	**
Frequency	12	NS	19	NS	20	NS	14	NS
Store loyalty	3	**	1	NS	8	*	13	**
Price senitivity	36	**	24	**	27	**	30	**

* - p < .05, ** - p < .01, NS - Not Significant, X^2- Chi-square.

loyalty for soft drink. This means that the null hypothesis, that differences in frequency of purchases does not have any influence on brand loyalty, fails to be rejected. In addition, the non significance brand loyalty for soft drinks, could be due to the wide distribution of the product in the retail outlets, insofar as no specific shops were preferred. On the other hand, only a few shops were in the evoked set of retail outlets which carried soap and detergents [products, mostly short in supply on the market]; as specific shops always carried soap and detergents, this produced store loyalty.

Some relationship between brand loyalty and activity (amount purchased), and price sensitivity exists. The data supports the hypothesis that heavy users tend to be more brand loyal than light users. This tends to support Cannon et al [1970], when they observed that compared to all buyers, sole buyers are heavy users.

The hypothesis that price sensitive consumers are more likely to switch brands, was supported . The data shows that the consumers who were brand loyal, disagreed with the statement that they would switch brands at a slight increase in price (10 ngwee). This shows some degree of commitment towards the most preferred brands by loyal consumers. This finding is in line with the earlier observation that consumers with high incomes are more brand loyal than the poor consumers. A possible explanation for this is that the high income households can afford to be brand loyal, and hence have high commitment while the poor consumers are very vulnerable to price changes. This difference could be because the high income households are able

to invest money in search, while the lack of mobility leads the low income consumers to have a propensity to switch brands.

Test of Hypotheses H3a and H3b

Family and Influence of Friends; The null hypothesis for H3a and H3b can be stated as follows: There is no significant difference in brand loyalty with respect to influence of family [H3a], and friends [H3b]. Table 7.L below shows the results of both family and social influence on brand loyalty.

The data shows that these products are purchased by housewives who usually go shopping alone. The association between brand loyalty and company in shopping, as the results show, was statistically independent for soft drinks and soap, hence the failure to reject the null hypothesis. For tooth-paste and detergent, the women who went shopping in the company of children or husband, tended to be brand loyal. This observation is further supported by loyal consumers who agreed that they buy what their friends like, and considered what their family preferred in their purchases.

This evidence would seem to suggest that group compliance and family have a significant influence on brand loyalty in less developed countries. This tends to support the hypothesis that group and family compliance contribute to brand loyalty.

Table 7.L : Influence of friends and family on brand loyalty.

	Toothpaste		Softdrink		Soap		Detergent	
	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig.	x^2	Sig.
Company in shopping	52	*	32	NS	35	NS	43	*
Buy what friend likes	62	**	34	**	79	**	34	**
Family preference	90	**	54	**	58	**	49	**
Area	52	**	20	NS	80	**	60	**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, NS - Not Significant, x^2 Chi-Square.

Test of Hypothesis H4a and H4b.

Number of Brands Available and Extensiveness of Distribution: The null hypothesis for H4a and H4b can be stated as : Brand loyalty is not influenced by the number of brands on the market [H4A] and the extensiveness of distribution [H4b].

It was hypothesized that the limited number of brands available and poor distribution in less developed countries would lead to brand loyalty, as the consumers would have no opportunity for being disloyal. The number of brands available was recorded in the areas where interviews were conducted, by carrying out retail audits and interviewing retailers. It was hypothesized that brand loyalty would be higher in the rural areas where the consumers had no choice, and low in the urban areas as the consumers would have a chance of being disloyal as distribution is better, and the number of brands available higher.

The data given at the bottom of Table 7-L, in which "area" is used to indicate the number of brands available and the extensiveness of distribution, show that brand loyalty was more common among consumers in the urban areas than consumers in rural areas, who showed more brand switching behaviour.

This suggests that brand loyalty would only exist in a situation where there are a number of alternative brands available. The fact that there was only one brand available in most product classes, and that the brands would.differ at different purchase times, suggests product purchase decisions in the rural areas

and hence brand switching behaviour. This contrasts sharply with the urban consumers who showed brand choice purchase behaviour.

Though statistical dependence between brand loyalty and certain explanatory variables has been established, the degree of association using Lambda or Gamma, [the difference being whether the explanatory variables were nominal or ordinal] were generally very low, suggesting weak relationships. However, this does not come as a surprise because the products are low involvement products, in which consumers do not usually have very high brand commitments, in contrast with high involvement products [Engel and Blackwell, 1982]. Given these low levels of associations, Logit analysis was used to reveal the relative influence, and hence the ranking of the explanatory variables.

Fitting the Logit Models.

The Loglinear modelling approach using Logit was adopted to give the relative contribution of the variables in influencing brand loyalty. Variables which were significant under the cross tabulations, were used to reduce the number of variables in the model, as Logit in SPSS-X is limited to only ten variables. Though interaction effects are implicit in all Logit type models and should be taken into account when representing results of these models, [Flath and Leonard, 1979], in the interest of getting parsimonious representation only, the main effects models were fitted for the four product classes. This was highly desirable, as the inclusion of the interaction effects

had the effect of reducing the magnitude of the coefficients to insignificant levels. This is one problem which was faced in using logit analysis. The tables below give the results of the logit models. The list of the variables used for the logit models is in Appendix 6.

Toothpaste:

Table 7.M shows that all the variables, except "company in shopping" and "price sensitivity", have relatively large coefficents and corresponding t-values, hence significant at the .05 level. This means that these variables provide a good explanation of brand loyalty, and so have an important influence on the existence of brand loyalty for toothpaste. Using the coefficients multiplied by two to imply the regression-like coefficients, the results reveal a relative rank of the influence of the variables, with the insignificant effects being rated at the bottom. Looking at the antilogs, allows evaluation the model using odds rather than log odds. An odd is defined as the ratio of the frequency that an event occurs and the frequency that it does not occur, ie (1/1-x). This can also be translated as the ratio of two probabilities. The results show that other things being equal, the odds of brand loyalty being observed are greater when consumers are female, in low class, unemployed, uneducated, urbanites , loyal to few shops and buy small sizes of the brand. While brand loyalty had more or less an equal chance of occurring with consumers who are price sensitive / insensitive, and consumers who had company/ no company in shopping, these had odds of .99 to to 1, and 1.05 to 1 respectively.

Table 7 .M : Logit Model for Toothpaste.

Effect	Coeff	Coeff*2	t-value	Antilog	i=2	Rank
B	.1062	.2124	7.098	1.237	.810	
Sex	-.0812	-.1624	-5.440	.850	1.176	3rd
Occupation of head of house	.0861	.1622	5.766*	1.176	.850	1st
Wifes occupation.	.0839	.1678	5.618*	1.183	.850	2nd
Education	.0425	.0850	2.856*	1.089	.920	7th
Shop Loyalty	.0492	.0984	3.302*	1.034	.970	6th
Price sensitivity	-.0071	-.0142	-.476	.986	1.020	9th
Company in shopping	.0239	.0478	1.607	1.049	.950	8th
Area	.0532	.1064	3.570	1.113	.900	5th
Size of pack	-.0594	-.1188	-2.815	1.126	.890	4th

* = Significant at .05.
Antilog   translates the model into odds rather than log odds.   It
    refers to the odds favouring the existence of brand
    loyalty when the explanatory variables is specified at
    1.
i = 2 is the odds favouring the existence of brand loyalty when
    the   explanatory   variable   is   specified   at   the
    alternative level 2.[see appendix for these
    specifications].
B = is the mean or overall effect.[intercept].
Coeff*2 refers to the multiplication of the coefficients to get
regression like coefficients [Haberman,1978].

Soft Drink: [Table 7.N]

This model only allowed very few variables to be used, and of these, the "occupation of the head of the household" and the "amount purchased" were found to be significant at the .05 level, with the "occupation of the head of the household" having more effect in influencing brand loyalty. The negative coefficient for these variables, suggest that consumers in the low social class who bought in large quantities had greater chance of being brand loyal towards soft drinks, these figures being 1.16 to 1 and 1.12 to 1 respectively. These results are not surprising, as a large percentage of consumers in the low income groups mostly consumed traditional drinks [Munkoyo], instead of soft drink. A possible reason for this might be the ability to afford such products. Consequently, the other variables do not provide important and significant explanations of brand loyalty.

Soap:

Table 7.O shows that, at .05 level of significance, the only variables that are significantly different from zero, and hence contributory to brand loyalty, are price sensitivity, area, education, and occupation of wife. These are also rated as the top 5 important variables. Using the odds to evaluate the relationship, the results show that most respondents who show brand loyalty for soap are more likely to be those who check in many shops are, urbanites, not price sensitive, educated, and unemployed housewives. The net effects of the other variables, are almost equal to one indicating that these variables have very little influence on brand loyalty for soap. For example, Other things being equal, a consumer who buys in small

Table 7.N : Logit Model for Soft Drinks.

Effect	Coeff	Coeff*2	t-value	Antilog	i=2	Rank
B Occupation of household	-.06490	-.1298	-2.0186	.878	1.14	
Occupation of household	-.0752	-.1504	-2.3384*	.860	1.16	1st
Occupation of wife	-.0278	-.0556	-0.8656	.946	1.06	3rd
Amount pur- chased	-.0587	-.1174	-1.8265*	.889	1.12	2nd
Shop loyalty	.0010	.0020	.0321	1.002	.99	4th

* = Significant at .05.

Table 7.0 : Logit model for soap.

Effect	Coeff	Coeff*2	t-value	Antilog	i=2	Rank
B	.172	.344	2.308	1.41	.71	
Price sensitive	-.127	-.254	-3.481*	.78	1.29	3rd
Area	.191	.382	4.832*	1.47	.68	2nd
Age	.020	.039	.480	1.03	.96	8th
Education	.074	.148	1.660*	1.16	.86	5th
Shop Loyalty	.385	.770	.992	2.16	.46	1st
Consult friends	.021	.042	.556	1.04	.96	7th
Occup. of wife	-.132	-.264	-2.171*	.77	1.30	4th
Household size	.041	.081	1.090	1.08	.92	6th
Amount purchased	.013	.026	.238	1.02	.97	9th

*= significant at .05 level.

quantities will be brand loyal to a particular soap brand by 1.08 to 1.

Detergent:

The results in Table 7.P shows that only the "occupation of the housewife", "occupation of head of household", and "amount of purchase", have relatively large and corresponding t-values significant at .05 level . This means that these are the variables significantly related to brand loyalty for detergents. In particular "occupation of household" appears to be a relatively important explanatory variable, [significant at the .01 level]. The coefficients of the model give a relative ranking of the importance of variables, and the results are shown in Table 7.P. Though the three variables are significant, the odds are almost 1 to 1. This could be because of the generally low level of brand loyalty in this product category. It was earlier pointed out, that this product group had many consumers showing brand switching, and generally low brand loyalty. Despite this, the results of the model show that the low income group, unemployed housewives, and consumers who purchase in small amounts, have a higher probability of being loyal to their preferred brands of detergents. Consequently, household size, shop loyalty, price sensitivity company in shopping and consulting with friends, provide very limited explanations of brand loyalty.

Table 7. P : Logit Model for Detergents.

Effect	Coeff	Coeff*2	t-value	Antilog	i=2	Rank
B	.041	.082	2.342	1.085	.92	
Occupat. of wife	.035	.070	1.992*	1.072	.93	3rd
Occupation of head of household	.041	.082	2.342*	1.086	.92	1st
Household size	.007	-.014	-.420	.990	1.02	8th
Amount purchased	.037	.074	2.097*	1.076	.93	2nd
Shop loyalty	.013	.024	.734	1.024	.98	7th
Price sensitivity	-.006	-.012	-.350	1.012	.99	9th
Company in shopping	.018	.035	1.014	1.036	.97	6th
Consult friends	.020	.041	1.154	1.040	.96	5th
Area	.024	.049	1.398	1.05	.95	4th

* = significant at .05 level.

Summary.

The results of the study in the urban and rural areas in Zambia, showed that consumers found the radio and personal sources of information to be useful. The consumers did not buy products frequently as most literature suggests. In fact, the influence of product shortages leads consumers to buy less frequently, but in large amounts. State owned supermarkets were preferred to private owned shops, because they charged fair prices and usually stocked products that were commonly short in supply. From these retail outlets, the consumers bought familiar brands or what was available, and identified their preferred brands by name and package design. Above all, the influence of product shortages on consumer behaviour was quite evident for soap and detergents.

The results of the chi-square tests between brand loyalty and consumer characteristics, family and peer group influence, and market structure variables, show the existence of highly significant associations. However, these associations cannot be generalized to the group of frequently purchased products, as they tended to be brand specific. The major problem was that of the very low strength of associations, and the lack of isotropic relationships, making it difficult to interpret the direction of the influence. These problems make the results of the Logit analysis superior to the chi-square results. This is because logit analysis incorporates the significance of the contribution of the variable, and the direction of the influence in its output.

However, for the large part of the analysis, the two had similar results [more so if the cells were collapsed in the chi-square tests], with the exception of detergents. Significantly, the occupation of the head of the household, area, and occupation of the housewife, were most important in almost all product classes. In particular, [area] the number of brands available and the "extensiveness of distribution", were most important and had the same direction of influence in three of the four product classes; brand loyalty was more likely in urban areas where these factors were more favourable.

The results of the study supports the notion that brand loyalty exists in less developed countries for certain frequently purchased products. No claim is made for the existence of brand loyalty, other than in the product classes investigated in this study. However, this research points to the possibility of using the Western models which are based on brand choice behaviour in less developed countries. This has been proved to be a basis on which purchases are made in certain segments of consumers in the less developed countries, [ie, those segments which constitute the effectual demand for these products]. Sufficient background data is provided to allow limited models on consumer behaviour in the less developed countries, to be developed.

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CHAPTER EIGHT.

DISCUSSION------SUMMARY------SUGGESTIONS.

Aim of the Chapter.

This chapter concludes the empirical study by firstly discussing the results of the study within the framework of the research question, objectives and hypotheses. Secondly, a summary of the support or rejection of the hypotheses is made. The third section addresses itself to the statistical conclusion , internal, external and construct validity of the results. Finally, the conceptual and empirical contributions of the research are discussed, and the managerial implications and suggestions for further research are made.

A Restatement of the Research Question, Objectives, Hypotheses and Results.

The problem this study has attempted to answer concerns understanding of the nature of consumer behaviour in the less developed countries, and it specifically aims to provide an understanding of the brand loyalty of consumers towards frequently purchased products in these countries. Therefore, the main objectives were to investigate repeat purchase behaviour in the less developed countries through the construct "loyalty". This was considered because an important objective

for managers selling frequently purchased products is to establish repeat purchase behaviour. There is a relentless effort by companies to occupy a large segment in the consumers mind. The companies that succeed in building brand loyalty have better chances of enjoying market leadership [Ries and Trout, 1986]. The first objective of the study was to explore and provide empirical evidence of the existence of the construct, and then to relate it to a number of explanatory variables. It was hypothesized that brand loyalty exists in the less developed countries, and that it would be influenced by consumer characteristics, peer and family influence, and the market structure variables.

The previous chapters described a survey of 1389 consumers from the urban and the rural areas in Zambia. This study was considered important, because a review of the existing literature on marketing in the less developed countries shows that there is a need for empirical consumer behaviour data, to assist marketing managers in making appropriate strategic marketing decisions. This should also provide a useful contribution to attempts aimed at using the existing models of consumer behaviour in the less developed countries. The aims of this study comply to a large extent with the comment made by Harper [1975], concerning Walters and Pauls [1970] contention that their integrated framework of consumer behaviour " may have little significance for underdeveloped countries". Harper [1975] argues that this might be too strong a statement and posits that:

> " their diffidence arises more from a lack of data than from any specific information about the applicability or otherwise of behavioural models outside developed marketing environments. Research data may indeed be

lacking...."[p.216].

This study provides the vital research data on consumer behaviour in the less developed countries. The findings of this research, will hopefully allow the sensitization of the marketing techniques and functions to conditions in the less developed countries.

Summary and Discussion of the Results.

The major findings concerning the general aspects of consumer behaviour in the less developed countries, can be summarized as follows;

a.   Regardless of the low levels of education in the country, the recall of advertising messages, obtained by using an aided recall technique, was very high, especially for toothpaste and soap. Recall was however low for soft drinks and detergent messages. These results could reflect the differences in the effectiveness and penetration of the advertising messages. This seems to be the case, as Colgate toothpaste and Choice, which were most popular, were all manufactured by Colgate Palmolive [Z] Ltd., a subsidiary of a Multinational corporation. This company spends a lot of money on newspaper, radio and television advertising, leading to high message penetration levels. [This information is based on an examination of advertisements placed in the various media in Zambia, as there was no way of getting the advertising expenditure figures from companies.] This suggests that with an adequate advertising expenditure, a company selling frequently purchased products in the less

developed countries could achieve a high message penetration level, and hence be enabled to build its brand name, and over time enjoy a large brand share. This is corroborated by the results of a study by Harper [1975] in Kenya, where he found out that advertising was the main cause of heavy brand awareness.

B.   The respondents indicated that radio and personal sources of information, were more useful than other sources like newspapers and television.   This fact reflects the low level of education and income in the country, and the importance of word of mouth communication.   However, this is not unique to the less developed countries, as Thorelli and Sentell [1982] concluded that personal sources were frequently reported as important everywhere, though on a relative basis it was found to be more important in the less developed countries.

This observation is similar to the findings of Waruingi [1980], who also reported the importance of radio and personal sources of information in Kenya, [Kenya happens to be in the set of less developed countries clustered with Zambia in this study]. This contrasts sharply with the results reported by Foxall [1975], in his replication study on relationships between some dimensions of the behaviour of housewives in Cleveland, and Newcastle upon Tyne. Among the low-class consumers, in-store information was most important followed by brochures and leaflets, with friends and neighbours least in importance.   For the high class, brochures and leaflets were most important, and the others almost equal.   A likely cause of this, is the difference in the level of education between the U.K and Zambia, and in the nature of products.   For example Foxall [1975], in

his study, was referring to domestic appliances.

Marketers could exploit this because, the use of radio as a source of information seems to be particulary important in the less developed countries. It is able to offer flexibility in being able to advertise in the local languages, therefore reaching remote areas of the country at relatively low cost.

Further, radio has the added advantage of the spoken word, which reduces resistance to persuasion and provides greater retention of material, especially among the least educated.
Radio also seems the most appropriate medium for low involvement products, where an active search for information is not undertaken. This is because radio is easily attended to with little conscious attention, providing a chance for passive learning to take place [Krugman, 1965].

C. Shopping behaviour was investigated by looking at the pattern of purchases, store and brand choice decisions. Regarding patterns of purchase, it can be concluded from the results that Zambian consumers on average make few purchases of convenience products. On average, this is limited to once per month, however the purchases seem to be made in large quantities. It could be argued that this is due to product shortages, which tend to make consumers buy in large quantities whenever the products are available . This type of hoarding behaviour could be influenced by the uncertainty of supply of products on the market. This finding is contrary to previous findings by Yavas et al [1981], and Thorelli and Sentell [1982], that the frequency of purchases were high in the less developed

countries because of the hand to mouth cash flow situation, further suggesting small amounts of purchases. This observation, would seem to be specific to the countries studied [Turkey] and to food products where refrigeration is needed. This difference in results, and many others to be discussed, merely emphasize the earlier point that the less developed countries are not a homogeneous set of countries. For example, the problem of shortages might not be a critical problem in Turkey, as it is in some less developed countries.

The second possible explanation for the low frequency of purchases for these products might be tradition: housewives in Zambia tend to do most of their grocery shopping once per month, and almost always at the end of the month. The results of the study by Foxall [1975] on groceries, showed that these are different in the developed countries. He found out that 60% of the lower class purchased once per week, while 62% of the middle class shopped twice per week, and the conclusion is that the frequency with which women shopped, was associated with social class.

On considering how store choice decisions were made, it was found that retail outlets which were well stocked and which charged fair prices were preferred, suggesting store loyalty. This reflects the problem of product shortages and low incomes, [or the high cost of living in the country]. On these two important criteria the state shops were rated most favourable, as they were usually well supplied with products from the government distribution companies, like the National Import and Export Company and the National Wholesale Distribution and

Marketing Company. More significantly however, is that the state shops are closely controlled by the government and are required to implement rationing policies. There is a current is " Your hand and essentials policy", where hoarding and black marketeering activities are controlled by dipping fingers in ink for various essential products bought.[refer to Figure 8-A]. At times a letter from the employers is required, indicating that the consumer is within the permitted household quota for a particular product. Such policies are fatalistic, as the consumer is constantly reminded that the problem of shortages exist. The natural reaction of the consumers would be to buy before the products are actually required. This exacerbates the product shortage problem.

The existence of store loyalty, observed above, is contrary to the conclusion of Yavas et al [1981], namely that consumers in less developed countries divide their food purchases among several store types.[In Turkey they found out that 76% and 71% of supermarket and non-supermarket shoppers respectively, visited more than one store during each grocery shopping trip]. The possible explanation for this is that Turkey does not seem to suffer as much from the problem of product shortages as Zambia. This is supported by the results on store selection criteria, in which consumers in Turkey placed a lot of importance on, "Ease in getting around in the supermarket", "Able to pick products with my own hands", and " Credit/ They know me". [Yavas et al, 1981]. Besides this, nationalised outlets might not exist in Turkey.

Figure 8. A   Essentials and your hand

bath soap

washing powder

mealie-meal

sugar

cooking oil

candles

-256 A-
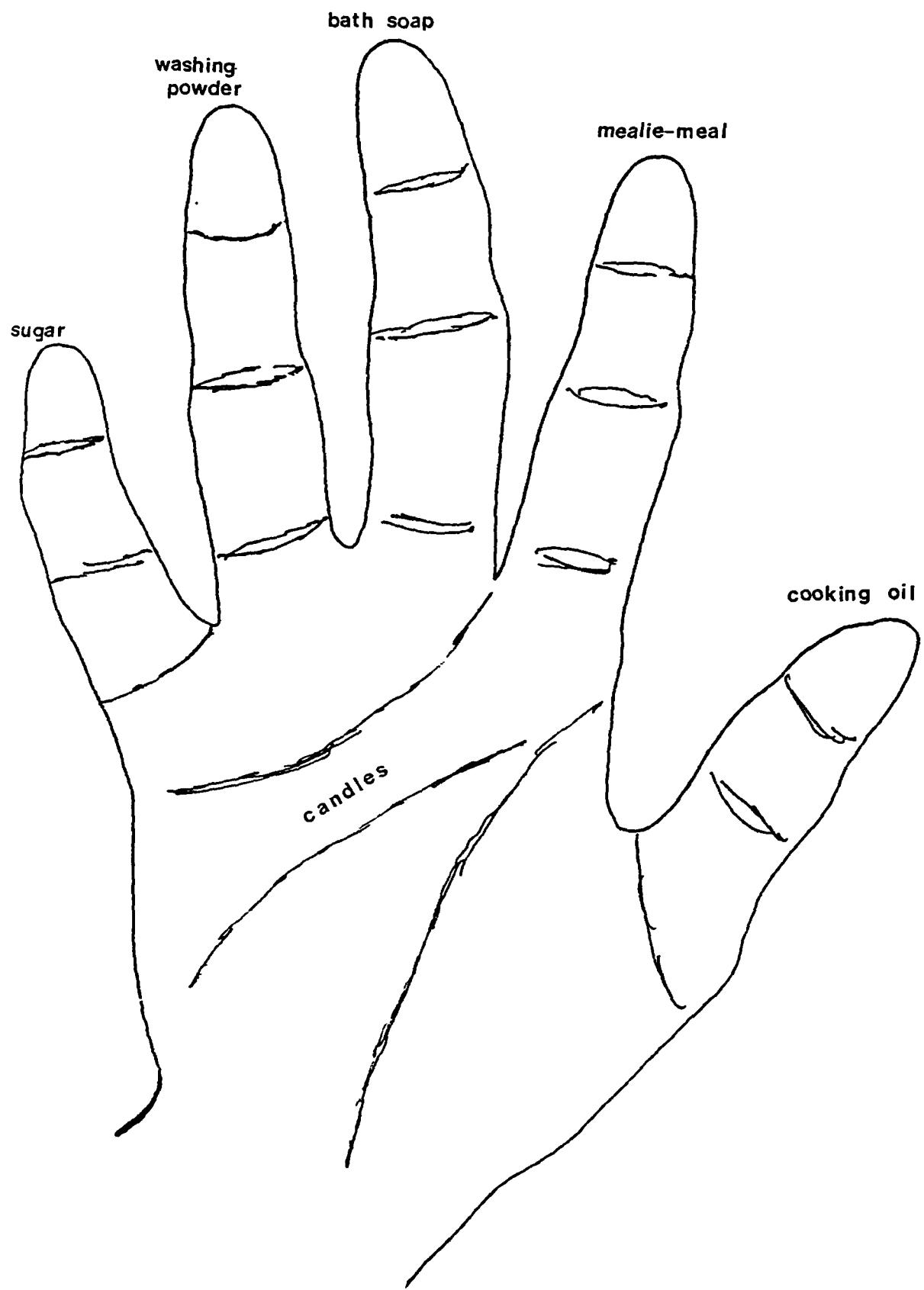
The loyalty to state owned outlets in the study could be explained in terms of price differences between state and private shops. During the period of the research, the price differences were reported by the Prices and Incomes Commission [1985] as follows:

Table 8-A: Price differences between state owned and private shops.

Product	Private shop	State shop	Availability index
Minced meat/kg	k7.50	k6.00	47.06%
Cooking oil 5l	32.00	25.00	25.81
Strike detergent*	3.50	1.78	18.75
Choice soap*	1.80	1.00	11.11
Bar soap*	1.84	3.20	21.88
Fresh milk 500ml	0.75	0.55	44.44
Matches /box	.10	.06	73.53
Dried beans /kg	4.50	2.50	82.61

One Zambian Kwacha = 0.30

* = indicates the products in the study.

These price differences show that for almost all products, the state shops charge lower prices, hence their popularity especially among the low and middle classes. This has earned these shops the name " Peoples Shop", suggesting that the shop has a mass appeal.

The results also show that consumers were found to use a simple choice heuristic of "Buy the familiar brand". This was found to be more common for toothpaste and soft drinks. This could be the result of a deliberate strategy by consumers, to insist on a brand they know would satisfy needs, thereby reducing the risk of buying a wrong product.

The choice heuristic used suggests the importance of brand names in Zambia, and points to the vital role advertising has to play in building the brand image. Indeed, the results show that brands were identified by their names and by the package design. With the low education levels this point would suggest that the brand names be easy to pronounce, recognize and remember. The relevance of this was evident in the research, when respondents referred to Choice soap as " Joyce". This importance of brand names corroborates Harper's [1975] observation, that the Kenyans identified stimulus products [toothpaste, cigarettes and asprin] by brand name, while the consumers in developed countries used the generic name, suggesting the importance of promotional messages in less developed countries in creating brand awareness.

Another choice tactic used in identifying brands was package design. This was found to be most important for the less educated consumers, who could not read to be able, to use the brand name in identifying products. This suggests that, of the four traditional concerns of packaging, [· protection, convenience, economy and promotion], protection and promotion are very important in markets where illiteracy is high . Observing consumers shopping in a state owned shop, protection was noticeably important as the consumers shook the packets of

detergents, and opened packets of tubes of tooth paste to ascertain the quantity of the contents. But more significantly, the respondents indicated using package design as a means of identifying the preferred brand hence the package serving a promotional function. With the widespread adoption of self service in Zambia, the ability of the package to attract attention, give consumer confidence, and remind the consumers in a repeat purchase occasion, cannot be overemphasized [Kotler, 1984].

D. For the products used in the study , it can be concluded that housewives make the purchase decisions, in as much as they decide where to buy and chose the brands to be bought. These women most often went shopping alone. This practice of women being responsible for grocery purchases, and shopping alone, was also reported by Foxall [1975]. Women in both the low class and the middle class went shopping alone. The only difference between the less developed and the developed countries, is that in the developed countries the housewives rated family members second and friends least, while in Zambia friends were second and family members last in importance. These differences might point to cultural differences between the two countries, indicating that shopping is regarded as a social event where old acquaitances are met, while in the UK it is regarded more as a family outing. Another likely reason for the difference is the relative mobility of consumers.

Results concerning the person with whom the housewives discusses purchases, corroborates the above observations. This study concludes that consumers discuss with their friends about brands

they were not familiar with, and consider the preferences of their families in the choice of brands. On the other hand, the results in Turkey show that women enjoyed grocery shopping, sought no advice on such shopping, and was therefore individualistic and unlikely to be influenced by friends. These differences merely indicate the disparities in consumer behaviour between countries like Turkey and Zambia.

However, this empirical observation also contrasts sharply with the findings of Foxall [1975] in the U.K., where the majority of house wives did not discuss grocery purchases with anyone for both lower and middle classes. However, second in importance were the family, followed by friends. This suggests that for the purchase of low involvement products in the less developed countries, the influence of friends and family are considerable. These results have certain implications for the advertising and marketing strategies to be used.

Brand loyalty and its Correlates.

Though brand loyalty could not be generalized to exist for all frequently purchased products, this study concludes that high brand loyalty exists for toothpaste and soft drink product classes, while low brand loyalty and brand switching was more apparent for soap and detergents[see Table 7 . H]. These results tend to conform to earlier conclusions, and suggest the influence product shortages have on brand loyalty in the less developed countries. These shortages seem to limit availability of brands, and this tends to make consumers buy whatever is

available, and therefore not loyal to any one brand. Data on intentions to buy the same brand for soap and detergents supports this.

It may be concluded that even if shortages prevent brand loyalty, the purchase of certain convenience products in the less developed countries is based on brand choice. This implies a systematic, and not random behaviour, and in the Howard and Sheth [1969] model it is this type of brand choice behaviour they attempt to understand, explain and predict. Therefore, the existence of brand choice behaviour in certain product classes in Zambia, suggests that adaptations of the comprehensive models of consumer behaviour could be used in the less developed countries. However, this is only applicable to certain classes of brand loyal consumers in Zambia. The results of cross-tabulations and logit analysis reveal that these are mostly males, educated, middle and high income, store loyal, heavy users, not price sensitive, influenced by family and friends, and who live in urban areas where distribution is good, and a large number of brands available. However, although this conclusion is made, it cannot be generalized to all the frequently purchased products, as there was evidence of inter-brand differences in the study.

The overall impression one takes from this conclusion, is tha there is strong evidence that brand loyalty will differ with certain characteristics of consumers, that it will be significantly influenced by friends and family, the number of brands available, and the extent of the distribution. These significant factors influencing brand loyalty, suggest the important aspects that marketing managers should reflect in

Statistical Conclusion Validity.

For the results of the study to have statistical conclusion
validity, it is vital to draw reasonable presumptions of the
covariation between brand loyalty and the explanatory variables,
given a specified level of significance [Kidder et al, 1981].
The results of this study have statistical validity because the
t-test was used as a screening tool for the explanatory
variables. This left only those variables which had significant
contributions to the observed variations in brand loyalty.
Covariation is further supported by the multidimensional
approach used to measure brand loyalty. This method is highly
sensitive *as it excludes* those consumers who do not use the
product, hence the observed covaraitions reflect the true
influences of the factors. Further, while tests of statistical
significance were used with less than .05 probability required
for significance, ample evidence existed to support the observed
covariations from the data on general aspects of consumer
behaviour in Zambia.

However, establishing statistical significance between brand
loyalty and the explanatory variables, does not say anything
about the strength of the association. This was approximated
with Guttman's coefficient Lambda [λ] for all the variables.
This was a mere approximation, as this method is most
appropriate when both variables are nominal. Since some
variables were clearly ordinal in nature, using Lambda resulted
into loss of information. However, these results show low
associations between brand loyalty and the significant
explanatory variables: there was no association greater than
.30. Similarly, Gini's entropy and and Shannon's concentration

efforts aimed at developing brand loyalty in order to ensure repeat purchases of a company's brands. These factors also suggest that a manager who wants to reach the segment of brand loyal consumers will be able to use these variables in identifying these people.

Justification of the Validity of the Results.

Construct Validity.

Construct validity refers to the extent to which the questionnaire measured the desired construct of brand loyalty. The *methodology* used in this study to measure brand loyalty, adopted the multidimensional approach suggested from the conceptual definition of brand loyalty. The measure itself is similar to the previous *measure used* by Day [1969], only that the measure used in this study is more sensitive, as it includes only those respondents who bought the products. In as much as *the* measure captures the major dimensions of brand loyalty, construct validity was attained. This methodology has contributed to the growing departure, of using recall methods in studying brand loyalty, from the traditional way of using panel data. This is of considerable importance in the less developed countries where panel data does not exist.

coefficients in logit analysis which are used as measures of association show, were low. [see Table 8.B below].

Table 8.B: Logit Measures of Association.

Product	Entropy	Concentration.
Toothpaste	.14	.13
Soft drink	.03	.04
Soap	.15	.17
Detergents	.09	.11

These two measures of association analyze the dispersion, or spread, in the dependent variable [brand loyalty]. That is, they analyze the dispersion of the dependent variable into that explained by the model, and the residual or unexplained variance [SPSSX Advanced Statistics Guide, 1985]. The figures in Table 8. B suggest that the variance that can be attributed to the explanatory variables is low, the highest being toothpaste and soap with 17% and 13% concentration measures respectively. The lowest were soft drinks with an entropy measure as low as 3% !

Although these values can be used as measures of association, it is tempting to interpret their magnitudes as in R in regression analysis. Haberman [1982] argues that this may be misleading, since the coefficients may be small, even when the variables are strongly related. Without any previous studies or experience, care should be taken in their interpretation. However, the association would have been better if the interaction effects

were included in the model.

Similarly, the chi-square values do not reveal any interesting information on the "Goodness-of-fit", due to lack of interaction terms. However, looking at the plot of observed counts and adjusted residuals, reveals that, except for soap and soft drinks in which there was no apparent linear trend, the adjusted residuals were lower in absolute terms. This suggests that the models fit the data well. For the other products, the adjusted residuals were large in absolute value, and there appeared to be a linear trend, suggesting a poor fit of the models. [Refer to the accompanying graphs 8.A, 8.B, 8.C, 8.D].

Internal Validity.

If internal validity is taken to mean the approximate exactitude with which a relationship is inferred between two variables [Cook and Campbell, 1979], then clearly this study has to answer questions of the extent to which other influences have been eliminated. In this study a number of explanatory variables have been used, but the low level of associations suggest that other variables which were not known also had significant influences on brand loyalty. This would have been easier to evaluate if it was possible to fit the interaction effects in the logit models, and if the logit routine in SPSSX allowed for more that ten variables. However, the entropy and concentration coefficients in Table 8.B , would seem to indicate that the explanatory variables used only contribute a little to the probability of a consumer being brand loyal, given a contingent

Graph 8.A: Toothpaste.

Observed counts VS Adjusted residuals

```
       -+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+-
        :                                         :
        :                                         :
        :                                    1    :
   15   +                                         +
        :                                         :
        :                                         :
        :                                         :
 12.5   +                                         +
        :                                         :
 A      :                                         :   (
 D      :                                         :
 J      :            1                            [
 U 10   +                                         +
 S      :                                         :
 T      :                                         :
 E      :                 11                      :
 D      :                                         :
  7.5   +                                         +
 R      :       1         11                      :
 E      :                 111                     :
 S      :                 1                       :
 I      :                                         :
 D  5   +      1        1                         +
 U      :      1                                  :
 A      :      1    1 1                           :
 L      :    3      121                           :
        :           1                             :
  2.5   +    13 11                                +
        :        2                                :
        :   3  32                                 :
        :   6121                                  :
        :   1251                                  :
    0   +   C6                                    +
        :   *4*                                   :
        :   **                                    :
        :  **                                     :
        :  *                                      :
 -2.5   +                                         +
        :                                         :
       -+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+-
         6      18        30         42
       0      12      24        36          48
```

OBSERVED COUNT

-265A-

β57

Graph 8.B: Soft Drink.

```
              Observed counts VS Adjusted residuals

          --+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+-
     2.4  +                                                +
          :                                                :
          :                                                :
          :                                                :
          :                                                :
     1.6  + 1                                              +
          :                                                :
          : 1                                              :
          : 2                                              :
          :    11                                        1:
      .8  +1          1                                    +
  A       :332      1                                      :
  D       : 32                          1                  :
  J       :1 2                      1                      :
  U       :321                                             :
  S    0  +*821   1 1                                      +
  T       :312                                            ':
  E       :111                      1                      :
  D       :221                                   1         :
          :712     1                                       :
  R   -0.8 +4    1                                         +
  E       :811                            1              ':
  S       :5                                              :
  I       :3                                              :
  D       :2                                              :
  U   -1.6 +31                                           '+
  A       :3                                              :
  L       :1                                              :
          :                                               :
          :1                                             .:
     -2.4 +1                                              +
          :1                                              :
          :                                               :
          :2                                              :
          :                                               :
     -3.2 +                                               +
          :1                                              :
          :                                               :
          :                                               :
          :                                               :
     -4   +                                               +
          --+----+----+----+-----+----+----+--- +----+-
            12.5     37.5      62.5      87.5
          0      25        50        75       100

                  OBSERVED COUNT
```

-265 B-

ß58

Graph 8.C: Soap.

Observed counts VS Adjusted residuals

```
           -+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+-    :
           :                                         :
           :                                         :
           :                                         :
           :      1              1                   :
         2 +                     1                   +
           :                               1         :
           :      1         1                        :
           :  1  21                                  :
           :    1 1   2                              :
         1 +  1 11                                   +
           : 52111                                   :
A          : 1  2                     1              :
D          : 12  1                                   :
J          : 24 1121 1   1      1                    +
U        0 +**3131                                   +
S          : 311212 1       2              1         :
T          : 3     1                                 :
E          :42  1      1                             :
D          :27. 1   1                                +
        -1 +611   1                                  :
R          :82 1 1                                   :
E          :22 1 1                                   :
S          :11 1                                     :
I          :1              1                         :
D        -2 +1    1                                  +
U          :1 1 1                                    :
A          :1                                        :
L          :1                                        :
           :3                                        :
        -3 +                                         +
           :                                         :
           :                                         :
           :                                         :
        -4 +                                         +
           :                                         :
           :                                         :
           :                                         :
           :1                                        :
        -5 +                                         +
           :
           -+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+-
             8      24       40       56
        ()      16       32       48       64

                   OBSERVED COUNT
```

-265 C-

B57

Graph 8.D: Detergent.

Observed counts VS Adjusted residuals

ADJUSTED RESIDUAL

OBSERVED COUNT

specification of the variables. Therefore, this study does not make any suggestions of the extent to which the other variables have been eliminated. However, the conclusions arrived at are made with the full knowledge that these explanatory variables, are only a few of the contributory variables of brand loyalty in the less developed countries. On the other hand, threats to internal validity like history, maturation, and instrumentation were either not serious problems in the survey, or were adequately ruled out by the randomization adopted in the sampling process.

External Validity.

This requirement refers to the extent to which the results of the study can be demonstrated to occur in Zambia and the other less developed countries, other than being peculiarities of the chosen sample. Since the sample was drawn to represent a microcosm of the Zambian population, the results obtained in this study could be generalized to the entire Zambian population. However, it would be exaggerating the results at this point if they were generalized beyond the realm of the products and the country studied, at least until further replication, involving other products and in different, less developed countries, has corroborated their findings. Replications will be particularly important for this study, because until other findings are known, ascertaining the reliability of the research findings would not be possible, and until this is done claims of external validity of the results are difficult to make. Only when the exact replications of the

procedures, especially in the less developed countries, can the statements on reliability of the results be made. Only when the conceptual replications of ideas and conclusions are demonstrated, would this study gain and prove its external validity. Similar research in the other less developed countries, especially those clustered together with Zambia, are encouraged using the same methodology which is felt to beeasily replicable.

Contribution of this Research.

Conceptual Contribution.

Though this research was limited in scope by time and financial constraints, the results were encouraging and appear to support the proposition that brand loyalty exists in certain consumer segments in the less developed countries, and factors which seem closely related to this have been empirically suggested. Conceptually this is significant, because the existence of brand loyalty behaviour in the less developed countries, suggests that models based on brand choice from the developed countries could be used in these countries with adequate modifications. These modifications should reflect the differences that exist between the developed and the less developed countries, and these are empirically suggested in the characteristics of the consumers, and social and environmental variables. This implies that there could be similarities in the stages of the purchase decision making process between developed countries and the less developed countries, but the influences that affect the ultimate

choice of a brand would differ.

This study has also contributed to an area of research identified to be very important by Engel and Blackwell [1982]. In their conclusion on brand loyalty they stated , " Also needed is a model [or set of models] that start out with the determinants of brand loyalty and then attempts to relate these determinants to a valid measure of brand loyalty"[p.596]. This has been achieved, and formed the main objective of this study.

The study also suggested a typology of brand loyalty in the less developed countries. This was predicted to be important in future by Engel and Blackwell [1982]. While this study does not substantiate or refute the typologies of brand loyalty suggested by Engel [1963], the study suggests four typologies associated with brand loyalty in the less developed countries, based on the proportion of purchases devoted to the most preferred brand and the attitude towards that brand. These typologies have important implications for marketing strategies.

Empirical contribution.

If companies in the less developed countries will apply the marketing concept, then one of their aims will be to satisfy consumer needs. If this becomes a major preoccupation then it will be essential that the task of knowing what these needs is completed. For this, a logical starting point would be an investigation of the nature of the consumer, to provide the data required for the appropriate application of marketing

strategies. For a long time international companies, and indeed the companies in the less developed countries, have not been willing to make the necessary investment in research, basing this on the conviction that since shortages create demand there should be no market investments. As a result of this myopic view, marketing decisions are made from the " seat of the pants" management style, in an environment where an organized systematic approach is desirable.

This study provides empirical consumer behaviour data, which could help marketing managers in their tasks in marketing strategy formulations. Most significantly, useful information is provided which the companies manufacturing the products in the study, could use in identifying the various brand loyalty consumer segments and the most important variables, in efforts aimed at increasing repeat purchases for their brands. Finally, a typology of the various types of brand loyalty is suggested [see Table 6..A], and it is demonstrated that brand loyalty can be studied in the less developed countries despite the lack of panel data.

Managerial Implications.

The results on consumer behaviour in Zambia, and the information provided by the Logit models, have a range of uses for the companies selling these products and other related, frequently purchased, products. Firstly, several important variables are identified that explain brand loyalty or repeat purchase behaviour. For example, the "occupation of the head of the

household", "occupation of the wife", "the number of brands available" and "extensiveness of distribution", were uniquely significant in all the four products. These factors would suggest possible market segmentation variables. A suggested market segmentation is presented below.

Table 8 -C: Market segmentation strategies and categories.

Variables	Categories
1. Geographic Density of area	Urban, Suburban, Rural
2. Demographic characteristics Income Ooccupation	<K104, K104 - K312, >K312. Professional, Blue collar, White collar, Agricultural unemployed.
3. Social-Cultural Characteristics Social class	Lower, Middle and Upper.
4. User-Behaviour Characteristics Brand loyalty status	None, Weak, Medium, Strong
5. Attitude	Low, High.

The importance of suggesting these variables as possible segmentation variables for frequently purchased products cannot be overemphasised. This is important as their guide for formulation of appropriate marketing mixes. This implication is very important, as a common practice in Zambia, and indeed in most less developed countries, is to treat the market as

homogeneous and undifferentiated. Such an orientation is feasible in the short term as product shortages are common in these countries. This orientation has led many companies to sell any kind of product, without the consideration of the consumer preferences. The danger of the lack of a well-thought-out marketing strategy is that the market is dynamic, and eventually consumers will have to choose among many brand alternatives. In the product classes used for the study, there is already some indication that competition exists, as not less than four brand alternatives in each product class were found. Under these conditions, the company whose marketing mix most closely matches the consumers desires, is likely to be the winner. It is this that should make marketers in less developed countries place more importance on heterogeneity existing in the market, so that they may closely tailor their market offerings to these market variations. Significantly, these variables provide rich insight into important behavioural and motivational differences between segments.

In the marketing of frequently purchased products, the managers could use this information on segmentation in a number of ways. An important base is information on usage behaviour characteristics. For example, a company producing toothpaste would like to know whether the end users of the product provide a potential market segment to target at. This study reports that the users of toothpaste are mainly urbanites, educated and with both husband and wife working full time. This suggests the no-users to be mostly uneducated, low income households and in rural areas. One possible reason why these consumers are not users of toothpaste, could be lack of awareness and poor

distribution of the product in the rural areas. With adequate advertising and promotional deals to induce trial, and with more efficient distribution, an opportunity for tapping a virgin market exists. However, this very much depends on the general availability of these products.

Unfortunately, these strategies are hardly used by some companies competing against large market leaders in Zambia. This shows a lack of initiative, as these small companies instead imitate whatever the market leader does. What these companies should be concentrating on, is devising strategies to make inroads into the market share of the brand leader. For example, appealing to the brand switchers is a possible strategy, and in the urban and the rural areas these are in the majority [i.e the uneducated and low income households]. Alternatively, instead of concentrating on the " Heavy-half", it would be more beneficial for marketers of new toothpaste brands, [of which most of them are " Me-too" products], to aim at turning non-users into users, and light users into heavy users. This would seem to comply with the marketing offensive tactics of Ries and Trout [1986]. They suggest that a good offensive tactic which could be used by that small competitors, is to consider the strength of the leaders position, find a weakness in that strength, and attack at that point. Data describing the possible brand loyalty segments is provided in this study.

On the other hand, the brand leaders should not be complacent but should relentlessly guard their market shares, and continuosly keep the consumers satisfied. "Companies do not create leaders - customers do" [Ries and Trout, 1986]. This

suggests that companies have to monitor the brand image of their products, and ensure that the company's offerings are still satisfying salient attributes sought by the consumers. Over-complacency by some companies, is a common and serious marketing weakness to competitive inroads. Again, the brand leaders could be involved in assessing the possibilities of accessing increased brand loyalty among light to moderate users, stimulating new uses for their products, encouraging switching from other competitive brands and, preventing competitive inroads. Defensive marketing strategies are supported by Ries and Trout [1986]. They argue that:

> "Blocking works well for a leader because of the nature of the battle ground. Remember, the war takes place inside the mind of the prospect. It takes time for an attacker to make an impression in the mind. Usually there is time enough for the leader to cover."[p.59].

What this suggests, is that a good strong position of brand loyalty in any product market is desirable. This is because strong brand loyalty implies an attitudinal commitment of present users to a brand. With brand loyalty for a company's brands, limitations are placed on the possibilities of competitive promotion proving effective in encouraging brand switching through attitude change. Such a strategy would be very important in the less developed countries, because consumers in these countries are more likely to be affected by brand promotions than the DC consumers [Harper, 1975]. In order for marketing managers to design appropriate advertising campaigns, it is important for them to be aware of the effective strategies under low involvement, where the consumer has potentially low commitment and no strongly held beliefs. This point makes it possible for advertising to be quite persuasive, because here cognitive resistance to advertising may be quite

minimal. Two points are worth noting here.

Firstly, since interest is low, it would seem that the capacity to process information would also be low, resulting in the consumers being able to absorb only a few points. This makes broad based information campaigns inappropriate. Therefore to avoid any possible information overload, messages should be short and have high repetition [to enhance learning and inhibit forgetting], [Rothschild, 1979]. They should also remain continuous to counter the typical marketing efforts of competitors.

A second point which at follows from this is that, because of slow learning, little storage of information, and quick forgetting, the appropriate medium is the broadcast media, as these allow the consumer to passively receive information without putting up any perceptual defences. In the less developed countries radio would provide the required wide coverage, and television would be for the primary markets in the urban areas. [This is because radios are widely owned, while televisions are owned by only a few people in urban areas]. The major aim of this advertising should be to promote awareness, and support the promotion strategies of inducing trial. This is important, because in low involvement cases the consumers only forms an attitude after behaviour, and this is germane to the dissonance - attribution model which seems to be common in the less developed countries. It further requires that the investments be made in product development, as the products which meet consumer expectations would stimulate favourable attitudes, leading to repeat purchase long-run behaviour, and

brand loyalty. Rothschild [1979] even goes on to suggest that conscientious product and pricing strategies should be used, as they are stronger incentives than mere advertising. This strategy would seem to comply with the recommendation of Harper [1975] that:

> " Marketers of frequently purchased products can take advantage...by spending more heavily on promotion ...because they will gain a share of consumers' discretionary spending which would be relatively long lasting and is likely to be strongly linked to their own particular brands"[p.221].

The other organizations which could find the results of this study of pragmatic use, are the Southern Africa Development Coordination Conference [SADCC], international manufacturing companies, and the international advertising companies which provide full marketing services to international companies with businesses in the less developed countries. Firstly, SADCC is an organization of a group of nine countries in Southern Africa, with the objectives of promoting trade in the region. With limited marketing research information in the region, results of this study could be used to make educated marketing decisions in other countries in the region. This information would also give the companies involved in trade among nations in the region, knowledge of the nature of consumer behaviour for frequently purchased products in the other countries, and also an insight into their home countries for possible defensive actions.

More significantly, the resuts will be of considerable interest to the British international companies which have operations in the less developed countries. These companies, which sell frequently purchased products, were found to use management intuition in making marketing and promotional strategies, as

they did not conduct any marketing research in the less developed countries because of the small size of these markets. This study provides very useful empirical data which these companies could use in their marketing operations in these countries. Using these results would allow the companies to reduce wasteful activities in marketing and promotion, and help them be more efficient and effective in their marketing operations. For example, the practice by certain pharmaceutical companies, of advertising their brands by emphasing the brand marks, would seem to be inappropriate strategies from what has been reported in this study. Firstly, the obvious emphasis of such strategies on posters, newspapers and television media, is inconsistent with the common usage of personal and radio as sources of information in the less developed countries. Also, brands have been found to be identified by their names rather than their brand marks.

The results also have relevance for the Advertising Companies, which serve the international companies with operations in the less developed countries. In their efforts to serve their clients in the less developed countries, these Advertising Companies usually find themselves with no empirical information to guide them in the formulation of advertising strategies.

Limitations of this Study.

The limitations of this study, highlight some of the areas that could be pointed out as potential areas of weakness of the project. This section aims to show that the researcher is aware

of these weaknesses, and that they have entered into consideration to ensure that the study still remains valid. Firstly, the study has not included any products in the high involvement category. This has made it difficult to conclude on the general level of loyalty in the frequently purchased products. This was a problem which could not be easily solved as the nature of the high involvement products would have made it very difficult to use the recall methodology in measuring brand loyalty. For example, it was going to be very difficult for the respondents to remember details of a purchase made six months ago. To minimize chances of memory decay, frequently purchased products were included in the study. However, this sample of products was not large enough for the results to be generalized to the group of frequently purchased products. This suggests the importance of using a larger number of products in any replications of this study.

Further, the sample of the study could have been made more representative by increasing the sample size. This is because in the urban areas only very few respondents were sampled from the high income brackets, and in Kitwe this only amounted to eleven people. It is doubtful whether eleven people could be considered to represent the category of high income class in Kitwe. A larger sample would have required more people to more closely represent the characteristics of the class. Due to financial and time constraints, this problem could not be mitigated. However its influence should not be serious, because this class of consumers portray very similar consumption characteristics with certain segments in the developed countries [Hill and Still, 1984].

Again, problems in data analysis arose from the way the questionnaire was structured. Insufficient attention was devoted to ease the analysing of data in selecting the level of measurement of the variables. That is, in-as-much as some of the variables were nominal or ordinal, it was difficult to classify the level of measurement for some. This problem led to insensitive measures of association [Lambda] being used. Another problem that emerges from the analysis, is that two sets of ten interviewers were used in different areas, and this could have contributed to the variations in the results. Although the training which was conducted was to minimize interviewer bias, there was no way of checking for this possible error, as the same code numbers were used for the two sets of interviewers by mistake.

Another weakness associated with the questionnaire, is that different codes were not given for the different areas, other than the high, middle, low and rural categories used. This is a serious shortcoming and loses much important detail, as it erroneously assumes that consumers in Lusaka and those in Kitwe have relatively homogeneous characteristics, and are exposed to the same environmental and marketing stimuli. The problem here is that while shortages of cooking oil might exist in Kitwe, the Lusaka market would be adequately supplied as it is the capital of the Republic.

Further, the use of the logit model in SPSS-X proved to pose unanticipated problems. It was envisaged that logit analysis would be used to give the multidimensional contingency analysis

by first fitting a saturated model. This was not possible, as the programme in SPSS-X could only take one dependent and nine independent variables, while the study had sixteen independent variables. Furthermore, the use of the ten variables in fitting a saturated model resulted in low and insignificant beta coefficients. The alternative adopted was to fit the main effects, without the interaction effects for parsimonious results. This obviously throws away some very useful information. This tendency to study a number of variables in in isolation tends to be too artificial and inconsquential. In an further study, it is highly recommended that a more powerful statistical programme is used to be able to parcel out the impact of a number of explanatory variables impinging in concert.

Finally, the way the questions were written in English made translations of the questions in the local languages a daunting task. This was so because the questions were written as though they would be asked of English consumers. Language represents culture, and this posed potential problems when requirements of English supervisors had to be met, yet the questionnaire had to be administered in another culture, using a different non - technical local language. However, the problem was minimized to some extent by the two extensive pilot studies conducted before the main survey. Also related to this, was that the questions which used Likert scales, when translated into local languages, tended to be very silly questions and potentially boring to the respondents. These should be kept to a minimum in any other studies in the less developed countries unless, different ways of asking them is thought of, such as the use of pictorial representation.

Suggestions for Further Research.

Some of the weaknesses pointed out above are not specifically catered for in this study either, because they were discovered after completition, or it proved impossible to consider them given the time and financial constraints of the research. At best, suggestions of how these can be solved could be made. The implications for solving these problems in future studies are suggested in the previous discussion. This section deals with the possible extensions of the current work.

Firstly, there is a need for the study to be conducted in other less developed countries, in order to establish the external validity and reliability of the results. Replications should use large representative samples, and many products, to enable conclusions to be drawn. However, it is hypothesised that in the group of less developed countries defined in chapter four, the results should be similar as these countries were relatively homogeneous in factors related to consumer behaviour.

Secondly, this research could be regarded as being exploratory in nature, as it merely discovered an aspect of consumer behaviour and inferred the correlates from this discovery. Hence the study does not show the causes of brand loyalty, but only suggests the contributory nature of the factors. It is felt that studies aimed at finding out the causes of brand loyalty would be of interest in the less developed countries.

Thirdly, it is necessary for companies in the less developed countries, to discover customer needs with sufficient precision, if appropriate products are to be marketed in these countries. At present too little is known of consumer needs, and it would be a serious shortcoming to use guidelines from developed countries to understand the priorities of the consumers in the less developed countries. This is an area not covered in this study but is definitely directed at understanding the specific needs of consumers and usage behaviour, in the less developed countries. This would contribute significantly to knowledge, as there is a problem associated with importing irrelevant decision rules into LDC marketing philosophies, as marketing problems of less developed countries need congruent LDC solutions.

Though the results of this study have been encouraging, further research, aimed at systematically integrating the discovered aspects of consumer behaviour into a comprehensive model applicable to the less developed countries, is necessary. Once this is done, the efforts to integrate marketing into the economic development process can be closely examined, for this is the present pressing need in the less developed countries.

To conclude the study, in a restatement of the importance of understanding consumer needs in the less developed countries, thereby enabling the formulation of well thought out marketing strategies aimed at satisfying consumer needs, the concern by Parkinson [1981] can not be overemphasized. He put this as follows:

" Now much of the consumption of the very poor will be
outside the market sector. Subsistence activities,
particulary farming are common. Governments and
International Agencies can be and sometimes are, of
great help here in improving the quality of life
through improving the effectiveness of the farming
activity, but they have far less influence on the
effectiveness of purchases for cash. A marketing
approach on the part of the suppliers of goods, would
ensure that the needs would be fairly met, rather than
there be an unseemly scuffle for the consumers money
without regard to the level of service.."[p.13].

This can only be achieved with some understanding of consumer

behaviour in these countries, which this study has attempted to

provide by looking at brand loyalty.

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Appendix 1.

List of Execu tives and Companies Interviewed.

Mr. J.D Cox	Director. J.L. Morrison and Jones Ltd..
Mr. A. Hitchen	Operations Manager Airtime International

Messrs. G. Rowlinson
         T Brown
         C. Gastaldello
	Advisors. Tropical African Advisory Group [TAAG].

Mr. M. Turner	Assistant Secretary. Birmingham Chamber of Industry and Commerce.
Mr. D. Sommers	Retired Director. Reckitt and Colman.
Mr. P. Whitehead	Account Director. Lintas Overseas.
Messrs. A. ‹ Black	Market Research and New Product Development Manager. Reckitt and Colman.
K. Newman	Export Manager. Reckitt and Colman.
Mr. J. Shields	Regional Sales Manager [Export]. W.M. Teachers & Sons Ltd.
Messrs. D. Howorth	Export Technical Sales Manager. Craig-Nicol Ltd. and
T Stowell	Sales Manager.
Mr. J. Gordon	General Manager. John Smiths & Sons Ltd..

Appendix 2. List Of Variables used in Clustering.

1. Total population [POP]

2. Population density [PDEN]

3. Annual percentage rate of population [RIPOP]

4. Percentage population of working age [POPWA]

5. Percentage literacy of population aged 15 and over [LITP15]

6. Agricultural population as a percentage of

   total population [AGPOPT]

7. Percentage of population in cities over 20,000 [URBAN]

8. Religion homogeneity (one religion at least

   50% predominant) [RELMOM]

9. Racial homogeneity (one major stock at least

   75% predominant) [RACIHOM]

10. Linguistic homogeneity (percent of adult population which

    speaks a common language) [LINGHOM]

11. Number of motor vehicles per 1,000 [MOTV]

12. Road density [ROADDEN]

13. Railway density [RAILDEN]

14. Number of radios per 1,000 [RADIO]

15. Number of televisions per 1,000 [TVS]

16. Newspaper circulation per 1,000 [NEWSP]

17. Number of telephones in circulation [TELE]

18. Gross National Product per 1,000 [GNPCAP]

19. Total energy consumption per capita [ENERGCO]

20. International reserves [INTERNRE]

Appendix 3: Members in Each Cluster.
Cluster 1

Mali	Morrocco
Niger	Somalia
Chad	Tunisia
Malawi	Lesotho
Upper Volta	Uganda
Sierra Leone	Zaire
Senegal	Ethiopia
Sudan	Zambia
Tanzania	Mozambique
Mauritania	Togo
Ivory Coast	Congo
Zimbambwe	Ghana
Rwanda	

Cluster 2.

Egypt	Nigeria

Cluster 3.

Angola	Benin

Cluster 4.

Gambia	Guinea

Cluster 5.

Equitorial Guinea	Libya
Algeria	S. Africa

Countries with no clusters.

Burundi	Swaziland
Madagascar	Liberia
Mauritius	

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR

P.O. Box 31338. LUSAKA. ZAMBIA

Reference:

Reference:

Telephone: 213221
Telegrams: UNZA, LUSAKA
Telex: UNZALU 44370

6th August 1985

THE WARD/BRANCH/SECTION UNIP OFFICIALS

This letter serves to introduce Mr. E. Bbenkele
a lecturer at the University of Zambia currently doing his
degree in U.K. Mr. Bbenkele is conducting a very important
research to complete his . studies and also a research that
will be very useful for the government.

Please provide him with all the assistance you can to enable
him to collect the information he requires. If there is
anything else you need please contact the undersgned.

Yours faithfully,

R.M. Chiyanika
STAFF DEVELOPMENT OFFICER

STAFF DEVELOPMENT OFFICER

·NIVERSITY OF STIRLING   STIRLING FK9 4LA SCOTLAND | Telephone: STIRLING (0786) 73171

Telex: 777759 STUNIV G

June 1985

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

As a doctoral student in Marketing Management at the University of Stirling, Mr E C Bbenkele is researching important aspects of consumer behaviour in the less developed countries. Essential to his research is the requirement for primary data on Zambian Consumers.

This letter is to request your co-operation to enable the student to conduct his survey amongst Zambian consumers. It is expected that the information gathered will provide guidance for future marketing activities in Zambia and other developing countries.

Rest assured that the information gathered will be confidential. Should you desire more information on this matter, please contact Professor Tom Cannon or the under signed.

Yours faithfully

M Willis
Lecturer in Business Studies
(Doctoral Project Supervisor)

<u>LUSAKA URBAN DISTRICT COUNCIL</u>

<u>MEMORANDUM</u>

TO: Councillor S. Simalabbe - Kalingalinga C.C.
     "   K. Ngoma   - Marrapodi
     "   G.A. Kakubo   - Chilenje South
     "   R. Handahu   - George

REFERENCE: R.1/18/IKM/JTH   DATE: 13th August, 1985

re: RESEARCH PROJECT IN SOME ASPECTS OF CONSUMER
    <u>BEHAVIOUR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES</u>

Mr. E.C. Bbenkele, a doctoral student in Marketing Management at the University of Stirling, Scotland will be conducting a study in your respective areas from 15th August, 1985 on the above subject matter.

He will be assisted in the exercise by Messrs. Moonga, S. Mwansa, Tembo and D. Mbula; all University of Zambia students.

The research project won't only be beneficial to him but will also be very useful to the Zambian Party and its Government.

It is in this regard that I am requesting you to allow and inform your branch and section chairmen about Mr. Bbenkele and to assist him to collect the information he will require. He will need to interview forty households in each area.

I wish to thank you in advance in anticipation of your cooperation. Attached are two relevant letters supporting his study.

D.R. KAMUHUZA
<u>SOCIAL SECRETARY</u>

c.c.   Honourable M. Sata, MP.
       The District Governor
       Lusaka Urban District Council
       P.O. Box 30077
       <u>LUSAKA</u>

c.c.   The District Executive Secretary.

c.c.   Chief Housing Officer - Peri-Urban
       Section

c.c.   Senior Housing Officer - Chilenje South

c.c.   Project Co-ordinator - Kalingalinga Intergrated
       Project.

Appendix 5:
Map of
Zambia.

MONZE

LUSAKA

KITWE

CHIPATA
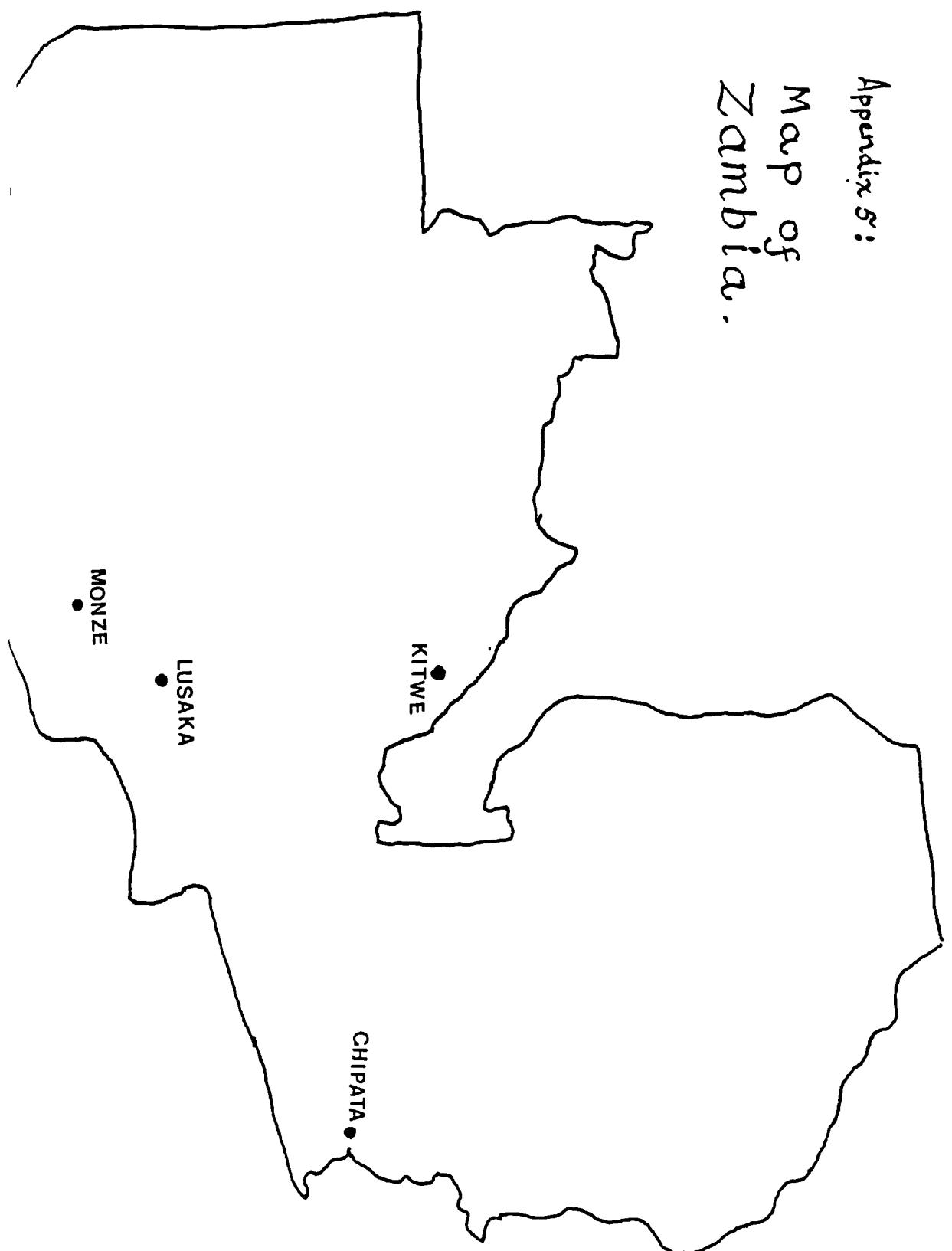
Appendix 6:

List of Variables Used in Logit Analysis.

Dependent Variable.
    1= Brand Loyal
    2= Not Brand Loyal

Independent Variables.
Education.
    1= Uneducated
    2= Educated

Size of Household
    1= Small Size
    2= Big Size .

Occupation of Head of Household
    1= Low Class
    2= High Class

Age
    1= Young
    2= Old

Occupation of Wife
    1= Unemployed
    2= Employed

Income
    1= Low Income
    2= High Income

Amount Purchased
    1= Small Amount
    2= Large Amount

Size Bought
    1= Small
    2= Medium
    3= Large

Frequency of Purchases
    1= Low Frequency
    2= High Frequency

Store Loyalty
    1= Many Shops
    2= One Shop

Price Sensitivity
    1= Price Sensitive
    2= Not Price Sensitive

Company in Shopping

    1= Alone
    2= Company of others

Ask Friends about Unfamiliar Brands.
    1= Ask Friends
    2= Do not Ask Friends

Influence of Family in Choice decisic
    1= Family Considered
    2= family Not Considered

Radio Listening
    1= Few Hours
    2= Many Hours

Television
    1= Few Hours
    2= Many Hours

Newspaper Readership
    1= Infrequent Reader
    2= Frequent Reader

Area
    1= Urban --
    2= Rural.

NOTES PREPARED FOR INTERVIEWERS.

Prepared by Ed Bbenkele, University of Stirling.

This training is carried out to improve the quality of data collected by you from the respondents. This is done because a common source of error in survey research of this type results from the way you interact with the respondents, ask the questions and record the answers.

If these are not dealt with in training, the data obtained from the research would be suspect on grounds of reliability [consistency of the data across respondents] and validity [extent to which the data reflects what is to be measured].

The aim of the training sessions will therefore be to
   a.   Introduce you to the area of the study
   b.   Develop your ability and self confidence in conducting interviews
   c.   Familiarize you with the questionnaire
   d.   Promote standardization of procedures and agree on common interpretations.

The training session will be very informal and will cover the topics outlined below. Due to this informal nature, only a few sections will have detailed notes. Please read these carefully to facilitate the lectures.

SCHEDULE OF TRAINING SESSIONS.

SESSION 1. Getting to know each other.
   a.   Informal discussions between the researcher and the interviewers.
   b.   Interviewers kit distributed.
   c.   Background information about the study.
            i. Research framework and problem
           ii. Objectives of the study
          iii. Importance of the study
           iv. Explanation of terms in the study
            v. Sampling method used

SESSION 2. Interviewing techniques.
   a. First impressions - appearance and approach
   b. Refusals and how to handle them
   c. Asking the questions
   d. Recording the answers
   e. Do's and DONT's of interviewing.

SESSION 3. Understanding the questionnaire.
   a. Question by question review of the questionnaire
   b. Meaning of questions

c. Interpretations of questions into local languages.

SESSION 4. Pratical exercises and pilot surveys.
   a. Role playing
   b. Pilot survey I
   c. Debriefing
   d. Pilot survey II

BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDY.

A.   Research framework and problem.

In a shortage economy, marketing is most often misunderstood and inevitably relegated as wasteful and only suitable to the conditions that prevail in the developed countries. My position in this research is that this view is self defeating as marketing has an important role to play in the economic development process in the less developed countries. This research looks at the way the behaviour of consumers should be understood in the less developed countries. Emphasis is placed on understanding repeat purchase behaviour [brand loyalty] and the factors that cause it.

B.   Objectives of the study.

Empirical research of this nature lacks in the less developed countries and this study aims to fill this gap in knowledge. Specifically, the study aims at providing general data on consumer behaviour in these countries, investigating the existence of brand loyalty and the factors that are ralated to this concept.

C. Importance of the research.

I consider the contribution of this research to be very important because the data from the survey will provide marketing managers with the necessary information to make appropriate and effective marketing decisions. This is vital as time is ripe for most of the marketing techniques and consumer behaviour theories to be sensitized to the conditions that prevail in the less developed countries.

A lot of foreign firms will also gain from this study. From discussions with executives in England and Scotland, it was found that the companies had no knowledge of the behaviour of consumers in the African markets as they treated these markets as a dumping ground. Unfortunately, such an approach is myopic as competition is steadily increasing in global markets. Knowledge of consumers in the less developed countries will therefore be vital.

SOME INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES.

A. First impressions - Appearance and approach.

It is said that the personal interaction between you and the respondents begins when you first meet the respondent, hence the importance of creating a good first impression. To help you get accepted by the respondent it might be important to know some of the factors that can facilitate the interaction. Remember that there are notorious thieves in town who use all kinds of stories to deceive the unaware housewife. Do not be mistaken for one of these. Here are a few things you might find useful.

When the respondent has opened the gate for you or allowed you to enter the yard, the first thing you do is to introduce yourself and give your student identity card for inspection. Then you have to state the purpose of your visit very clearly. Do not forget that this is the most difficult part of the survey - getting acceptance. A refusal is one thing you must try to avoid. This will require you to reduce the social distance between you and the respondents. This would mean that you have to appear classless, do not dress to extremes. Dress neatly, be pleasant and business like.

Another important concern of the respondents will be the duration of the interview. Do not lie about the time. If you lie, you stand the risk of the respondent quitting on you. Such an incident would be a waste of time as half completed questionnaires will not be accepted. If you attempt to cheat by filling such a questionnaire, I will be able to find out as the instrument has an anti-cheating mechanism built in. If i have sufficient evidence of cheating, the only recourse possible will be to relieve you of your duties.

B. Asking the questions.

The questionnaire has been designed in a very highly structured manner. This is deliberate amd in the interest of standardizing the way the questions are asked. The ultimate goal for this is to reduce error from the interviewers. Therefore, you will be required to keep to the exact wording of the questions and the agreed upon interpretations. A slight departure from these would result into undesirable responses, thereby distorting the data gathered. Although standardization is desired, you will be required to ask the questions in an interesting way, using a neutral voice and not in a parrot fashion. For some questions there exist the " I do not know" category. Care should be taken with this category as it does not give very useful information. It should therefore only be accepted after careful probing to get an estimate or position . These probes should :

   i.   Be open questions and not ones which do not suggest an answer to a question.

  ii.   Avoid leading or negative questions. For example, " "You always drink Coca-cola don't you?"

 iii.   Never suggest that the respondent might not know the answer

iv.   Aid memory recall of the respondent by giving the exact time period your question covers.

Remember that your task is to ensure that all applicable questions are asked and answered within their terms of reference and that all answers are clear, unambiguous and as complete as possible.

C. Recording the answers.

Some general principles that must be followed are given as follows:
  i. Answers must be recorded accurately and legibly
 ii. They must be recorded at the time of the interview or filled in immediately after
iii. A check must be made at the end to ensure that all questions were answered. A penalty fee will be charged for unfilled answers.

D. Do's and Dont's of interviewing.

Do read your instructions carefully before going into the field.
Do carry out dummy interviews to familiarize yourself with the questionnaire.
Do ensure that you carry your identification card.
Do approach every respondent " positively", pleasantly and with a smile and the confident expectation of obtaining his full cooperation and you will.
Do try to interview the respondent alone or together as husband and wife but no on lookers.
Do ask all the questions and check that you have recorded all the answers before leaving.
Do ask the questions slowly and clearly, using a matter of fact voice.
Do repeat the question in full if the respondent did not hear it the first time, or has misunderstood it.
Do record the answers accurately, neat rings for precodes - full verbatim recording for open questions.
Do thank the respondent and leave him with the feeling that he would like to be interviewed again.
Do not deviate from the agreed upon local interpretations. Do ask the questions in the order in which they are printed on the questionnaire.
Do not not mislead the respondent about the possible duration of the interview, give an average time.
Do not say, " Do you mind assisting me" or he will mind.
Do not engage in extraneous chat.
Do not indicate even by facial expression or gesture or in any other way approval, disapproval, shock, surprise, or any other emotion at any answer given by the respondent.
Do not pose unnecessarily between questions.
Do not allow the respondent to see the questionnaire. He/she has no reason to.

Appendix 8.

<u>CONSUMER</u> <u>RESEARCH</u> <u>QUESTIONNAIRE</u>

<u>UNIVERSITY</u> <u>OF</u> <u>STIRLING.</u>

Questionnaire Number. _____

Area: 1. Urban   2. Suburban   3. Rural.
Name of the Area:_____
Interviewer Number: _____

Name of Respondent:_____._____
Address:_____
          _____
          _____

Introduction.
Iam a student at the University of Zambia conducting a
study for our lecturer who is studying how people go about
buying particular products. The information will be used
to help Zambian companies make products that people want.
Everything you tell me will be strictly confidential.

In the sections that follow the group of products will
include
TOOTHPASTE
SOFTDRINKS
SOAP AND
WASHING DETERGENTS.

<u>SECTION</u> <u>A.</u> Measures brand awareness and the proportion of
total product class purchases spent on most frequently
purchases brand.

1. Which brand of toothpaste is advertised as having
double MFP flouride and fights tooth decay?
    1. Freshclean   2. Colgate   3.Macleans   4.Ivory
    5. Other_____9. Do not know/use.
----

2. Which soft drink is advertised as adding more enjoyment
to life?
    1. Tarino   2.Coca-cola   3. Fanta [orange]
    4. Fanta [grape]   5.Sprite   6.Pepsi
    7. Tip Top   8.Ting Ling   9.Do not Know.
----

3. What soap is advertised as having glycerine that makes
skin smooth and soft?
    1.Gloria   2.Ebu   3.Sabina   4.Choice
    5. Other_____9.Do not know/use.
----

4. What washing detergent is advertised as costing less
than detergent powders?

```
1.Bubble     2.Dynamo    3.Wendi      4.Cold power
5.Strike     6.Surf      9.Do not know/use.
```
----

5. What brand of toothpaste did you buy last?_____
    What brand of soap did you last buy?_____
    What brand of s/drink did you last buy?_____
    What brand of w/detergent did you last buy?_____
----

6. How often do you buy

Toothpaste in a month?
    1.Once per month   2.Twice per month   3.Three times per
    month or more   4.Never.

Soft Drink in a month?
    1.At least everyday   2.Four times per week
    3.Other_____4.Never.

Washing Detergent in a month?
    1.Once per month   2.Twice per month   3. Three or
    more times per month   4. Never.

Soap in a month?
    1.Once per month   2.Twice per month   3.Three or more
    times per month   4.Never.
----

7. How much did you buy the last time you made a purchase?

Toothpaste.
    1.One tube   2.two tubes   3.Three tubes   4.Four tubes
    5.Other   9.Do not know.

Soft drink.
    1.One bottle   2.Three bottles   3.More than five
    4.Other_____9.Do not know.

Soap.
    1.One bar   2.Two bars   3.Three bars   4.Four bars
    5.Other_____9.Do not know.

Washing detergent.
    1.One packet   2.two packets   3.Three packets
    4.Other_____9.Do not know.
----

8. What size did you buy the last time you bought.........

Toothpaste.
    1.Small   2.Medium   3.Large

Soft drink.
    1.Standard bottle   2.Other_____

Soap.
 1.Small   2.Medium   3.Large   4.Other_____

Washing detrgent.
 1.Small   2.Medium   3.Large   4.Other_____

----

9.   I   would   now like you to think of all your purchases
of..........in the last two months. Would you say that a few
[< half], some [about half], Most [> half], all or none
were of your most preferred brand?

                    Proportion of preferred brand.

            A few   Some   Most   All   None
            [.25]   [.5]   [.75]   [1]   -
            ----
              1   2   3   3   4
Toothpaste [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]
Soft drink [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]
W/detergent [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]
Soap   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]
****

Section B: This sections aims to find out your feelings
towards your most preferred brand.

10. Please give your opinion to the following by indicating
whether you
Strongly disagree [SD]   5
Disagree   [D]   4
Do not know   [DNK]   3
Agree   [A]   2
Strongly agree   [SA]   1

Toothpaste.
                            SD   D   DNK   A   SA
a.I usually purchase one
  brand.   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]
b.If the brand i usually buy
  is not available i would
  search for it in another
  shop   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]
c.If the brand i usually buy
  is not available i would buy
  another brand   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]

Soft drinks.

                            SD   D   DNK   A   SA
a.I usually purchase one
  brand.   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]
b.If the brand i usually buy
  is not available i would

search for it in another
shop   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]
c.If the brand i usually buy
is not available i would buy
another brand   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]

Soap.

	SD	D	DNK	A	SA
a.I usually purchase one brand.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
b.If the brand i usually buy is not available i would search for it in another shop	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
c.If the brand i usually buy is not available i would buy another brand	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Detergents.

	SD	D	DNK	A	SA
a.I usually purchase one brand.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
b.If the brand i usually buy is not available i would search for it in another shop	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
c.If the brand i usually buy is not available i would buy another brand	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

---

11.   Which of the following product characteristics do you
like most about your favourite brand?   [Characteristics
are listed in Question 12].

---

12.   In deciding whether or not to buy ....[name of
product class], how important to you is each of the
characteristics below.   Indicate whether characteristics
matters a great deal or matters very little.

Toothpaste.

	Matters a great deal	Matters a little.
	[1]	[2]
1.Fights tooth decay	[ ]	[ ]
2.Pleasant taste	[ ]	[ ]
3.Freshens breath	[ ]	[ ]
4.Brightens teeth	[ ]	[ ]

Soft drink

	Matters a great deal [1]	Matters a little. [2]
1.Taste	[ ]	[ ]
2.Filling [gas]	[ ]	[ ]
3.Colour	[ ]	[ ]
4.Sweetness	[ ]	[ ]

Soap.

	Matters a great deal [1]	Matters a little. [2]
1.Scent [perfume]	[ ]	[ ]
2.Mildness	[ ]	[ ]
3.Lasts long	[ ]	[ ]
4.Lather	[ ]	[ ]

Detergent.

	Matters a great deal [1]	Matters a little. [2]
1.Lather	[ ]	[ ]
2.Colour	[ ]	[ ]
3.Gives bright wash	[ ]	[ ]
4.Washes stains	[ ]	[ ]

13. Give your degree of liking or disliking for your preferred brands in each of the following product classes. Consider....... would you say ....

	You like it very much [1]	You like it [2]	You do not like it. [3]
Toothpaste	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soap	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soft drinks	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
W/ detergent	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

14. How likely are you to buy your most preferred brand of .... in the next month? would you say you ......

	Toothpaste	S/drink	Soap	Detergent
1. Definitely will	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
2. Probably will	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
3. Will depend on availability	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4. Probably will not	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

5. Defininetly will not[ ]   [ ]   [ ]   [ ]

****

Section C: This section aims to collect information on the
correlates of brand loyalty.

Pesonality.

15. Please give your opinion to the following statements.
Indicate whether you
Strongly disagree [SD]
Disagree   [D]
Do not know   [DNK]
·Agree   [A]
Strongly agree   [SA]

	SD	D	DNK	A	SA
	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
1.I like having authority over my family	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
2.I have a natural talent for influencing my family	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
3.I do not like joining clubs	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.I like mixing with other people	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
5.I do not like visiting my friends	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6.I feel shortages will get worse	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
7.I usually try to do what is expected of me to avoid criticism	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
8.I like trying out new products	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
9.I do not like living in town	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Shopping behaviour.

16.Where do you usually purchase........

	Local market [1]	Market stall [2]	Peddler [3]	Super market [4]	Chemist [5]
Toothpaste	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
S/drink	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soap	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Detergent	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

17.Is there a particular shop where you always go to buy
these products?
1. No specific shop [go to question 19]
2. Yes
     If Yes, please give name....................

18.Why do you prefer this particular shop?

1.Very near home   2. Shop is well stocked
3.Shopkeeper has good reputation   4. Near place of work
5.Charges fair prices.

19.When you want to purchase any of these products do you

1. Check around in many shops?
2. Go to one shop only?

20.Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the
following statements.

	Agree	Disagree
1.I feel happy buying an unfamiliar brand so long it is inexpensive	[ ]	[ ]
2.I would buy my brand regardless of price	[ ]	[ ]
3.I would buy another brand if my favourite brand increased by 10n.	[ ]	[ ]

21.In the various approaches to buying listed below
indicate which one you are most likely to use.

Would you buy	T/paste	S/drink	Soap	Detergent
1. Cheapest brand	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
2. Familiar brand	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
3. What shopkeeper recommends	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
4.Whatever is available	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Family and Reference Group Influence.

22.When you go shopping do you go

1.Alone   2.With friends   3.With children
4.With husband   5. Other.................

----

23. Indicate whether you strongly disagree, disagree, do
not know, agree, or strongly agree to the following
statements.

	SDA [1]	D [2]	DNK [3]	A [4]	SA [5]
1.I always ask my friends about brands that are unfamiliar to me	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
2.I always buy brands my friends like	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
3.Whenever i make a purchase i take into account the preferences of my family	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

24.Which member in your family decides where to buy........

Is it	Domestic servant	Children	House wife	Husband
Toothpaste	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soft drink	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soap	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Detergent	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

25. Who makes the choice of ....

Is it	Domestic servant	Children	House wife	Husband
Toothpaste	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soft drink	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soap	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Detergent	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

****

Section D:This section aims to collect information of a general nature on consumer behaviour.

26. Are any of the following helpful in providing information about a particular brand?

	Helpful [1]	Not helpful [2]
1.Friends	[ ]	[ ]
2.Store	[ ]	[ ]
3.Radio	[ ]	[ ]
4.Television	[ ]	[ ]
5.Newspaper	[ ]	[ ]

27.How often do you listen to the radio?

1.Hardly ever [news only]
2.Infrequently [a few programmes per week 2-3 hours]
3.Frequently [most of the time while at home]
4.Other..............

28.On average how many hours do you usually watch television per day?

1.Do not have television   2. 0-2 hours
3. 3-5 hours   4. Everyday of the week

29. How often do you read newspapers?

1. Do not read newspapers   2. Once per week
3. Twice per week   4. Everyday of the week

----

30. Which of the following do you use to identify brands in product classes?

1. The package design   2. The brand name
3. the brand mark   4. Other............

----

31. Do you think there is no difference, slight difference or a lot of difference among............brands?

	No difference [1]	Slight difference [2]	A lot difference [3]
Toothpaste	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soft drink	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soap	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Detergent	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

----

32. Have you ever experienced any disappointment from using...............?

	Never [1]	Sometimes [2]	Often [3]
Toothpaste	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Softdrink	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Soap	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
detergent	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

----

33. Can you think of the brand of........that your parents most frequently purchased?

Toothpaste.................................
Softdrink..................................
Soap.......................................
Detergent..................................

****

Section E: To help us classify your answers and to make our comparisons, kindly assist in answering the following questions. [This section collects data on socio-economic and demographical variables.

34. Sex   1. Male   2. Female

----

35. Marital status.

1. Married   2. Single   3. Single parent

4.Widow/widower.

----

36. How many people are in your household?

1. 1-3   2 4-5   3. 6-8   4. 9+

----

37. Which of the following age categories do you belong to?

1. 15-25   2. 26-35   3. 36-45   4. 46+

----

38. At what grade did you leave school?
1. Never went to shool   2. Primary   3. Secondary
4. College/University.

----

39. What is the occupation of the head of the household?
....

----

40. What is your occupation?

1.Housewife [unemployed]   2. Self employed
3. employed part time   4. Employed fulltime.

----

41. What would you estimate to be the monthly income of
your household?

1. Under k100   2. K100 - k400   3. k401 - K500
4. K500+

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

[BEFORE YOU LEAVE MAKE SURE THAT ALL THE QUESTIONS HAVE
BEEN ANSWERED. IT WILL SAVE YOU A TRIP BACK].