

THE INCIDENCE OF FAITH POPCORN'S CONSUMER TRENDS AMONG NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY STAFF

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation which I hereby submit for the degree MA in Integrated Marketing Communication at the University of the Free State, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at another university. I furthermore cede copyright of the dissertation in favour of the University of the Free State.

Vivian Claassen

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ABSTRAK

Bemarkers besef dat verbruikersbehoefte die sentrale fokus van die organisasie se aktiwiteite behoort te wees. Faith Popcorn, 'n bemarkingskundige van die Verenigde State van Amerika, het waardevolle navorsing gedoen oor verbruikerstendense. Popcorn het voorgestel dat indien bemarkers hierdie verbruikerstendense in gedagte hou wanneer hulle produkte en dienste ontwikkel en bemark, hulle die behoeftes van verbruikers meer effektief sal aanspreek.

'n Beperkte hoeveelheid navorsing oor verbruikerstendense is tot dusver in Suid-Afrika onderneem en volgens die navorser se kennis is geen navorsing spesifiek oor Faith Popcorn se tendense gedoen nie. Die doel van hierdie navorsing was om eerstens vas te stel of die verbruikerstendense wat deur Popcorn (1991) geïdentifiseer is, voorkom onder die personeel van die Noordwes-Universiteit (NWU), en tweedens om te poog om vertrekpunte aan te beveel vir die toepassing van hierdie kennis in geïntegreerde bemarkingskommunikasie. Faith Popcorn se verbruikerstendense is binne die konteks van 'n geselekteerde groep mense ondersoek, gerig deur die volgende navorsingsvraag: Kom die tien verbruikerstendense wat deur Faith Popcorn in die Amerikaanse markomgewing geïdentifiseer is, ook voor onder die permanente personeel van die NWU, en indien wel, hoe kan kennis oor hierdie tendense aangewend word om meer effektiewe geïntegreerde bemarkingskommunikasie-strategieë te formuleer?

Alle permanente personeel van die NWU het as respondente aan die navorsing deelgeneem. 'n Selfgeadministreerde vraelys is ontwikkel en as dataversamelingsmetode gebruik. Die vraelys is ontwikkel om te bepaal of die verbruikerstendense van *Cocooning*, *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive*, *The Vigilante Consumer*, *99 Lives* en *Save our Society* voorkom onder die respondente. Die resultate is ontleed deur middel van die volgende statistiese metodes: (i) faktoranalise met 'n varimax ortogonale asrotasie; (ii) Cronbach alfakoëffisiënt om 'n indeks van die interne betroubaarheid van die faktore te bepaal, en (iii) effekgroottes, om die praktiese betekenisvolheid tussen die faktore en demografiese veranderlikes te bekom.

Die faktoranalise het getoon dat 8 uit die 10 verbruikerstendense saamgegroepeer kan word en dat dit die toepaslike veranderlikes meet. Daar is bevind dat 2 uit die 10 faktore, naamlik *Cocooning* en *99 Lives*, 'n lae interne betroubaarheid het en dit is uitgesluit van die studie. Die studie het getoon dat respondente in die algemeen saamstem met die verbruikerstendense van Faith Popcorn, wat beteken dat hierdie tendense voorkom onder

die studiepopulasie. Daar is ook bevind dat sommige biografiese veranderlikes effekgroottes aandui vir sekere verbruikerstendense, wat betekenisvol in die praktyk kan wees.

Resultate van die navorsing het aangedui dat die getoetste verbruikerstendense voorkom onder die respondente, en dat die navorsingsvraag in Hoofstuk 1 gevolglik positief beantwoord is. Bemerkers kan die kennis wat verwerf is aanwend deur hul kreatiewe benaderings tot spesifieke marksegmente te rig om boodskapinhoud oor die tendense in te sluit. Aanbevelings is gemaak om boodskapinhoud in te sluit oor die verbruikerstendense om verbruikers se leefstylbehoefes meer effektief in geïntegreerde bemarkingskommunikasie aan te spreek.

Aanbevelings vir verdere navorsing is onder andere: (i) 'n beskrywende studie wat die addisionele tendense van Popcorn inkorporeer; (ii) 'n vergelykende studie binne ander industrieë in Suid-Afrika om vas te stel of enige ooreenkomste van verbruikerstendense vasgestel kan word; (iii) 'n kwalitatiewe navorsingsondersoek wat die voorkoms/nie-voorkoms van Faith Popcorn se tendense verduidelik; (iv) 'n verkennende studie om alternatiewe verbruikerstendense onder 'n soortgelyke steekproef te identifiseer; (v) 'n ondersoek na die toepaslikheid van hierdie tendense binne 'n organisasie se geïntegreerde bemarkingsstrategie, wat kan lei tot meer effektiewe marksegmentering en gevolglik beter resultate; en (vi) 'n kwalitatiewe ondersoek na die toepassing van 'n verbruikerstendens-analise in die formulering van korporatiewe strategie.

Sleutelwoorde: organisasie, geïntegreerde bemarkingskommunikasie, marksegmentering, verbruiker, klant, verbruikersgedrag, verbruikerstendense, verbruikergesentreerde oriëntasie.

ABSTRACT

Marketers have realised that the consumer needs to be the central focus of the organisation's activities. In the United States of America a marketing expert, Faith Popcorn, has done valuable research on consumer trends. Popcorn proposed that if marketers keep these consumer trends in mind when developing and marketing products or services, they will address the needs of consumers more effectively.

A limited amount of research on consumer trends have been done in South Africa and according to the researcher's knowledge, no research on Faith Popcorn's trends specifically. The aim of this study was firstly to determine whether ten consumer trends identified by Popcorn in 1991 occurred among the staff members of the North-West University (NWU), and secondly to work towards recommending points of departure for the application of this knowledge in integrated marketing communication (IMC). In the context of a selected group of people, Faith Popcorn's consumer trends were addressed by the following research question: Do the ten consumer trends identified by Faith Popcorn in the American marketplace also occur among the permanent staff members of the NWU? And if so, how can knowledge about these trends be used to formulate more effective IMC strategies?

All permanent staff members of the NWU participated as respondents. A self-administered questionnaire was developed and used as a data-collection method. The questionnaire was developed to determine whether the consumer trends of *Cocooning*, *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive*, *The Vigilante Consumer*, *99 Lives* and *Save our Society* occurred among the respondents. The results were analysed by means of the following statistical methods: (i) factor analysis with varimax orthogonal axe rotation; (ii), Cronbach's alpha coefficient, to obtain an index of the internal consistency of the factors and (iii) effect sizes, to determine practical significance between the factors and demographic variables.

The factor analysis revealed that 8 of the 10 consumer trends grouped together and measured the appropriate variables. It was found that 2 of the 10 factors, namely *Cocooning* and *99 Lives*, had low internal consistency and they were therefore excluded from the study. The study showed that in general respondents agreed with the consumer trends of Faith Popcorn, meaning that these consumer trends occurred among the study population. It was also found that for certain consumer trends, some biographical variables displayed specific effect sizes, which could be significant in practice.

The research results indicated that the consumer trends which were under investigation in this study, occurred among the respondents, thus positively answering the research question, as mentioned previously in this abstract. Marketers can apply the knowledge produced by this research into directing their creative approaches to specific market segments in order to include message content about the consumer trends. Some recommendations were made for including message content about consumer trends in order to address consumers' lifestyle needs more effectively in IMC.

Recommendations were made for future research, such as, inter alia: (i) a descriptive study incorporating additional trends of Popcorn into an investigation; (ii) a comparative study within other industries in South Africa to determine whether any similarities in consumer trends can be determined; (iii) a qualitative research investigation explaining the occurrence/non-occurrence of Faith Popcorn's trends could also provide valuable information; (iv) an explorative study to identify alternative consumer trends among a similar sample frame; (v) an investigation into the applicability of these trends within an organisation's IMC strategy, leading to more effective market segmentation and consequently better results; and (vi) a qualitative investigation into the relevance of consumer trend analysis in the formulation of corporate strategy.

Keywords: organisation, integrated marketing communication (IMC), market segmentation, consumer, customer, consumer behaviour, consumer trends, consumer-centric orientation.

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Integrated marketing communication (IMC) is rapidly growing in stature and importance in South Africa. Although a study conducted by Store and Mulder (2001) indicated that marketing and marketing communication practitioners are familiar with the term IMC, only a handful of respondents demonstrated an understanding of the nature and scope of the concept. However, everybody agreed that IMC is definitely the approach to follow in marketing communication. This opinion is strongly supported by internationally renowned authors on marketing (Duncun 1993; Schultz, Tannenbaum & Lauterborn 1994; Percy 1997; Burnett & Moriarty 1998).

Although many different definitions of IMC have been formulated, a common denominator in all is the fact that marketing-related actions should focus on the customer and consequently consumer trends (Schultz, Tannenbaum & Lauterborn 1994:1). However, consumer trends are in a process of constant evolution (Reich 1998) and a great deal of marketers have learned from experience that these trends must be acknowledged, understood and kept in mind when planning marketing communication campaigns for their products or services.

Faith Popcorn, the founder of *BrainReserve* (an American marketing research company) has done extensive research on the topic of consumer trends and the influence thereof on marketing communication in the United States. Popcorn identified ten constantly evolving consumer trends found among the American consumer and published the results in her book *The Popcorn Report* (1991). These results have served and still serve as the basis of marketing decisions of some of the most influential organisations.

The Popcorn Report (1991) proves to be valuable consumer information for American organisations and might be similarly useful to South African marketers, especially if taken into consideration that the IMC approach is fast gaining momentum in South Africa. Knowledge regarding the consumer and an absolute focus on the needs and wants of the consumer is of the utmost importance in this methodology. An interesting point of view is that of ACNielsen (2007), in their report that international consumer trend patterns can be observed to some extent in South Africa, but that the market is also strongly affected by specific local trends.

From the 1980s, American organisations have been facing the unique demands of a low-growth, inflationary economy, increased competition, an unstable political/economic environment, the high cost of capital and falling productivity (Kresch, Boyd & Haller 1983). According to Kresch, Boyd and Haller (1983), consumer trends have been affecting corporate performance and profitability and the impact of these trends is proposed to be so great, that top management needs to include consumer trend analysis into their strategic business planning if they are to succeed. The influence of consumer trends on organisations – also South African organisations - is still relevant three decades later.

Kresch, Boyd and Haller (1983) also explain that consumer trends are influencing all facets of corporate strategic planning – from new product development, technology management, management style and executive compensation to marketing. Management needs to be informed about the following: what the pivotal consumer trends are which is shaping the marketing environment; how organisations can use knowledge about these consumer trends as a strategic tool; and what kinds of business decisions will result from an increased emphasis on consumer trends.

1.1.1 Consumer trends

For the purpose of this study the empirical aspect of the research will be based on the ten consumer trends identified in Faith Popcorn's book *The Popcorn Report* (1991). As these ten trends are still used as part of her later forecasts (Popcorn 2005), the researcher deemed the trends to still be relevant. The researcher are also familiar with the fact that further trends have been identified in Popcorn's later works (these will be discussed in Chapter 3), but for the purpose of this study the focus will be on the initial ten trends identified in 1991. The following ten trends have been identified in this particular work:

Trend 1	<i>Cocooning</i>
Trend 2	<i>Fantasy Adventure</i>
Trend 3	<i>Small Indulgences</i>
Trend 4	<i>Egonomics</i>
Trend 5	<i>Cashing Out</i>
Trend 6	<i>Down-Aging</i>
Trend 7	<i>Being Alive</i>

Trend 8	<i>The Vigilante Consumer</i>
Trend 9	<i>99 Lives</i>
Trend 10	<i>SOS (Save our Society)</i>

The first trend, namely **Cocooning**, refers to the tendency of the consumer to insulate him/herself from negative surroundings and to avoid negative external disturbances. The consumer strives towards a controlled environment, therefore preferring his/her home environment or other comfortable surroundings, for instance his/her motor vehicle.

Fantasy Adventure is the second trend identified by Popcorn (1991). It refers to the seeking of a mechanism to relieve stress in an imaginative and adventurous way, but without any risks involved, for instance playing video games or visiting a fun park.

The trend called **Small Indulgences** refers to the consumer enjoying giving him/herself rewards in the form of small luxuries, for instance buying expensive coffee.

Egonomics refers to the consumer trend that people are striving to be acknowledged as individuals who are different and unique, and they enjoy products which are customised with excellent personal service.

Americans are striving towards a life more meaningful and rewarding than the rushed lives they are living. The fifth trend, **Cashing Out**, therefore refers to the tendency of American consumers wanting to give up the fast track and “move to the country”, or to buy things that remind them of a better life, for instance hiking boots or an off-road vehicle.

A shift has also been experienced in the consumer **Down-aging** – Popcorn’s sixth trend. This involves accepting the concept of ageing, but reviving the child in one’s self by taking part in life almost in a child-like way. Most importantly, however, there is a concern for health and longevity among consumers, and products that satisfy these needs are in demand.

The seventh trend, namely **Being Alive**, entails the quest for health and a longer life and signifies negativity with regard to experts’ opinions and the safety of products they have been using for years. The consumer is investigating the source of food supplies and also the ingredients of medicines. Alternatives are considered as the consumer is seeking a better quality life.

Another trend reflects the **Vigilante Consumer**, which presents a more inquisitive and sceptic consumer, who does not accept the promises, poor quality products and services

organisations offer them. Consumers are interested in organisations that are concerned with their well-being, by taking honest responsibility for their actions, for instance a record company taking social responsibility for the environment.

The consumer's life has become one of multiple lives all combined in one. According to the ninth trend, an individual is expected to have **99 Lives** to be successful in life, and marketers who acknowledge this fact and provide services and products that will be time-saving, will be winners.

The last trend, namely **SOS** or **Save our Society**, refers to any effort that contributes to making our world a socially responsible environment. The consumer stops buying from an organisation who pollutes or lacks the spirit of saving the society.

As explained above, consumer trends are constantly changing and evolving as the consumer changes. Faith Popcorn published a follow-up book titled *The Popcorn Report: Faith Popcorn on the Future of Your Company, Your World, Your Life* (1992), in which the author elaborates on the initially identified ten trends by adding changes that she has picked up over the period of one year. This also denotes how much trends change and develop over time. In 1996, Popcorn and Marigold published another book called *Clicking: 16 Trends to future fit your life, your work, and your business*, with the ten initial consumer trends still present, but with additional consumer trends being identified. The fact that additional trends were identified illustrates that each year the consumer trends will change and new trends will be added. As the first ten trends form the basis of all Popcorn's follow-up reports, this study will only focus on the initial ten trends.

Each of these trends deals with important characteristics in consumers' behaviour. These characteristics can dictate the way the consumer buys and experiences the products around him/her (Popcorn & Marigold 33-34). Organisations that want to prosper are advised to consider their product presentations and marketing communication activities against the background of these consumer trends. However, the question of concern here is whether the same trends impact on the respondents in the study and if so, to what degree and how can this knowledge be applied in IMC.

1.1.2 Importance of the study

According to Wright (2006:387) the successful organisation of the future needs to "take its customers skin temperature daily" to determine and adapt to behavioural changes. Consumer behavioural characteristics need to be identified and understood to enable

marketers to construct and market products and services that have benefits that meet the needs of an organisation's target market. An interesting point is that consumers are particularly attentive to marketing communication stimuli perceived as relevant to their needs (Blackwell, Miniard and Engel 2006:587), and therefore messages that appeal to these needs are more likely to be effective as part of an IMC strategy.

Given the fact that the consumer information contained in *The Popcorn Report* (1991) is valued highly by the marketing fraternity of America (Lewis 2000) and because limited detailed investigations exist on consumer trends in South Africa (like *The Popcorn Report* in America), this study will contribute on three levels:

- Firstly, the study will contribute towards refining the body of scientific knowledge about consumer behaviour and IMC as the central focus in IMC is on the consumer.
- Secondly, it will assist in providing South African marketing communication practitioners with theoretical knowledge that will put them in touch with current consumer trends. This knowledge will improve their ability to identify different market segments and formulate more effective marketing communication strategies in future.
- Thirdly, the study can serve as a point of departure for future research on consumer trends among different consumer groups in South Africa. It will then be able to determine, for example, whether differences in consumer behaviour occur in different geographic areas of South Africa.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The research problem that directs the study is the phenomenon that a limited amount of research results is available on consumer trends in South Africa. The consumer is the focus point of IMC, and therefore research on consumer trends will be relevant to the formulation of IMC strategies. Popcorn's work is valued among American marketers and therefore it will be useful to determine whether the trends occur among a selected segment of the South African market. To the researcher's knowledge no study has been done to test the existence of specifically Faith Popcorn's consumer trends in a given South African context.

In Chapter 2 it is pointed out that the process of IMC should start with the consumer when determining how to inform, persuade and induce purchases most effectively (Shimp 2003:9). This consumer-centric approach in IMC must be incorporated when developing an IMC strategy, and therefore marketers can benefit from being familiar with consumer trends among a certain consumer group.

The first sub-problem is to determine whether there is an incidence of Popcorn's (1991) ten consumer trends among the respondents in the study. The second sub-problem is to determine to what extent each trend occurs among respondents and the third sub-problem is to evaluate the relevance and applicability of the identified trends in the development of an IMC strategy.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The primary research question of this study is formulated as follows: Are the ten consumer trends identified by Faith Popcorn in the American marketplace relevant to the staff members of the NWU? And if so, how can knowledge about these trends be used to formulate more effective IMC strategies?

1.3.1 Primary research objective

In answering the research questions the objectives of the study will be addressed while adding to the existing body of scientific knowledge. The primary objective of this study is to determine whether the ten consumer trends identified by Popcorn (1991) are relevant to the staff of the NWU.

1.3.2 Secondary research objectives

The following secondary research objectives will contribute towards achieving the primary objective:

Secondary research objective 1:

- To determine the various degrees of occurrence or absence of the ten consumer trends.

Secondary research objective 2:

- To determine whether a relationship exists between the occurrence or absence of the trends and demographic factors such as gender, ethnic group, age, level of education and income group.

Secondary research objective 3:

- To provide theoretical points of departure with regard to applying the knowledge about these consumer trends in IMC.

1.4 METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 Area of research

This study will focus on the staff of the NWU. The NWU comprises three campuses, namely the PUK Campus in Potchefstroom, the Vaalpuik Campus in Vanderbijlpark and the Mafikeng Campus in Mafikeng (formerly known as Mmabatho), and an institutional head office in Potchefstroom. Classes are also offered at a satellite campus in Mankwe, but this campus will be excluded from the study due to the small number of part-time staff members available. According to the University's statistics (North-West University 2005) the total number of permanent staff members are 2 116 and the temporary staff are 1 626. The total number of staff members are 3 742. However, a realised sample frame of 1 904 permanent staff members received questionnaires.

1.4.2 Focus of the research

This study will explore whether consumer trends based on the work of Popcorn (1991) are measurable among the permanent staff members of the NWU. Subsequently, the applicability of the identified consumer trends relevant to the respondents will be explored from an IMC perspective. The unit of analysis for this study is the permanent academic and support staff of the three campuses of the NWU.

1.4.3 Literature review

The aim of the literature review is to perform a conceptual analysis which involves the clear and unambiguous definition of central concepts. *Conceptualisation* refers to both the clarification and the analysis of the key concepts in the study and also to the way in which the research is integrated into the body of existing theory and knowledge (Mouton 1996:109). In the literature review two fields of study are investigated. Firstly, the concepts within the field of IMC are addressed. Secondly, the study is placed within the field of consumer behaviour, with specific emphasis on consumer trends.

Title searches were performed on the databases NEXUS, SACat, Sabinet and the Networked Digital Library of Theses and Dissertations (NDLTD) before the subject of the research was finalised. Internet searches were also performed by means of EBSCOHOST.

1.4.4 Method of investigation

A quantitative research methodology was followed in this study, namely a survey research. Careful descriptions of observed phenomena were made and the possible relationships between different phenomena explored (Leedy 2001). The research data was converted into numerical indices and statistical analysis techniques were employed to provide a description of the population's characteristics and agreement with the trends.

The aim of the sampling was to obtain a sample that is as representative as possible of the target population (Mouton 1996:110). This study included all permanent staff members in the pursuit of representativeness of this particular group: therefore, no sample was selected from this population.

Self-administered questionnaires were distributed among the participants. It was decided to distribute the questionnaires via e-mail at the Potchefstroom and Vanderbijlpark campuses. This process was followed by self-administered questionnaires mailed to the participants who had not completed an e-mail questionnaire, with return envelopes. Self-administered questionnaires with return envelopes were personally distributed at the Mafikeng campus. A total of 1 904 questionnaires were distributed (see Chapter 4). The total of 1 904 represents the realised sample as the objective was to distribute the questionnaires amongst the 2 116 permanent staff members. This smaller sample was caused because some permanent staff members were not contactable during the study period.

A five-point Likert scale was used as response categories. This enabled the researcher to record varying degrees of intensity and a range of frequency for certain events.

A pilot study was conducted among the staff members of the Department of Marketing and Communication at the Potchefstroom Campus of the NWU, in order to determine whether the questionnaire was compiled in a clear and unambiguous manner. Where necessary, alterations were made to the questionnaire after the results of the pilot study had been analysed. The finalised questionnaire was distributed among the population of permanent staff members.

The captured data was analysed by means of the SAS and Statistica programmes (SAS Institute, Inc. 2003; Statsoft, Inc. 2004; SAS Institute, Inc. 2005). A Chronbach alpha coefficient was used to estimate the reliability of the scale by determining the internal consistency of the measurement or the average correlation of items within the measurement (Nunnally 1978:295). Apart from the use of descriptive statistical methods like frequencies

and percentages, a factor analysis was performed to calculate construct validity. Effect sizes were drawn to determine correlations between the different factors in the study.

In the following section, the study will be placed in a conceptual framework.

1.5 CONCEPTUALISATION OF STUDY

To ensure that the primary research objective stated in 1.3 is addressed, the study was conceptualised on the grand theory of general systems theory. Processes of enquiry in IMC can be regarded as residing in a humanistic scholarship, placed within the context of the organisation (where the scientific scholarship dominates). Most research studies include some aspects of both scientific and humanistic scholarship (Littlejohn & Foss 2005:7). Three theoretical domains were identified, namely marketing, communication and consumer behaviour. These three domains are interlinked and interdependent in a system, in that each of the domains influences the other. It can also be said that the domains are linked to one another in relationships. Consumer behaviour (focusing on the behaviour of consumers towards a product or service) has an effect on marketing and communication. On the other hand, the marketing and communication domains have an effect on consumer behaviour. Table 1.1 provides a summary of how the study was conceptualised.

Table 1.1: CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE STUDY

Research objective	To determine whether the ten consumer trends identified by Popcorn (1991) occur among the staff members of the North-West University.		
Grand theory	General systems theory as an exponent of the Cybernetic Tradition.		
World view	Integrated marketing communication may be seen as categorised within the humanistic scholarship of communication theory. However it is a sub-system of a larger system, namely the organisation, where the scientific scholarship is mainly the process of enquiry. When measuring consumer trends, the two scholarships are both employed.		
Context	Marketing, communication and consumer behaviour are viewed within the organisational context.		
Domains	Marketing.	Communication.	Consumer behaviour.
Theories used in this study from respective domains	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marketing concept. • Database marketing. • Relationship marketing. • Customer relationship management. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transactional model of communication. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Blackwell, Miniard and Engel model of consumer behaviour.
Concepts	Integrated marketing communication.		Consumer trends.
Constructs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IMC plan is developed from the marketing plan's promotional function. In turn, the marketing plan aims to achieve organisational goals. • Customers are central focus. • Messages sent are important. • Focus on external messages. • Departmental strategy drives messages. • Data-driven marketing. • Interactivity between communicators. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consumer-oriented approach. • Psychographic and lifestyle segmentation. • Faith Popcorn's trends, namely <i>Cocooning, Fantasy Adventure, Small Indulgences, Egonomics, Cashing Out, Down-Aging, Being Alive, Vigilante Consumer, 99 Lives and Save our Society.</i> • Consumer trends and other variables influence decision-making process. 	
Proposed theoretical points of departure for the formulation of an IMC strategy.			

1.5.1 Grand theory

A grand theory was proposed for this study in order to place the research into a framework of knowledge.

1.5.1.1 General systems theory

According to Littlejohn and Foss (2005:40) system thinking is the core of the cybernetic tradition. "Cybernetics is the tradition [in communication theory] of complex systems in which many interacting elements influence one another."

System theorists are interested in how a system manages to sustain and control itself over time. Littlejohn and Foss (2005:41) postulate that systems are embedded within one another to cause one system to be a part of a larger system, forming a series of levels of increasing complexity.

General systems theory as developed by Von Bertalanffy (1969) argues that the "whole equals more than the sum of its parts" and is also known as the *synergistic effect* (in Windahl, Signitzer & Olsen 1992:83). According to Wood (2004:163-166), the systems view of communication is based on four propositions:

- *All parts are interrelated* and affect one another.
- *Systems are organised wholes* and cannot be understood in isolation from the interrelated parts or context of the overall system.
- *The whole is more than the sum of its parts* and must be viewed as living systems that change over time into something more than its original parts.
- *Systems strive for, but never achieve equilibrium*. Organisations seek to achieve a state of equilibrium, and creates processes to result in stable patterns of interaction in relationships.

Littlejohn and Foss (2005:42) add that general systems theory is a broad and multi-disciplinary approach to knowledge. The tradition uses system principles to illustrate how things in many different disciplines are similar to one another. This theory recognises the universal nature of systems of all types. In the case of this study the systems view can point out the relationship, structure and interdependence between the organisation, IMC and consumer trends. It can be said that within the general system theory view, two levels of

interrelationships are evident in the study, namely (i) between the organisation and the consumer, and (ii) between IMC and consumer behaviour (which includes the trends).

This study takes a general systems approach to the study of IMC and consumer trends within the context of the organisation in order to establish recommendations towards creating a more effective IMC strategy. The systems approach underlines the importance of integrating the systems of marketing, communication and the field of consumer behaviour in the organisational context.

1.5.2 Theoretical domains

In the study of the role of consumer trends within organisations and IMC, the three theoretical domains within the approach of the general systems theory are marketing, communication and consumer behaviour.

The three theoretical domains are discussed in Chapter 2 (marketing and communication) and Chapter 3 (consumer behaviour). Marketing is the first and communication the second domain of the study. IMC is derived from these two domains. These domains are both systems which are interdependent on other systems/functions of the organisation to achieve organisational goals.

The last domain deals with consumer behaviour, with the emphasis on the concept of consumer trends. Consumer behaviour focuses on the consumer as a system which interacts with the marketing and communication domains in the organisational context.

1.5.3 Theories from the respective domains incorporated in the study

In the marketing domain the theories of the marketing concept, database marketing, relationship marketing and customer relationship management were included (see Chapters 2 and 3).

Given the centrality of the individual in communication (and the consumer in IMC), it seemed appropriate to accept a model such as the transactional model of communication to illustrate the two-way transactional process which takes place between communicators in the communication domain. Additional theories discussed in the study were the linear and interactional models of communication, as well as the Tubbs model of communication (see Chapter 2).

In the consumer behaviour domain, the following theories were discussed in the study: the Marshallian economic model, the Veblenian social psychological model, the Pavlovian learning model, the Freudian psychoanalytical model, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the Nicosia model and the Howard and Sheth model, with a specific emphasis on and acceptance of the Blackwell, Miniard and Engel model of consumer behaviour (see Chapter 3).

All theories can be seen in the perspective of the systems approach, as explained in the section on the grand theory.

1.6 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

To ensure that correct interpretations are linked to concepts used throughout the study, definitions are provided in the following section. Concepts which are only used in a particular chapter, will be defined in that particular chapter.

The study is placed in the context of the **organisation** across all sectors including commercial, industrial, not-for-profit and governmental markets.

Mulder (2004:227-228) points out that **integrated marketing communication (IMC)** is "a comprehensive approach to internal and external organisational communication. It combines the power of all the marketing and marketing communication techniques to deliver consistent communications messages to an organisation's different stakeholders." IMC begins by analysing the needs and priorities of stakeholders, and then structures marketing and communications programmes to address these needs and priorities.

Armstrong and Kotler (2005:54) add to this that the market consists of different types of customers, products and needs. The marketer needs to determine which segments offer the best opportunity for achieving organisational goals. Classification can be performed based on geographic, demographic, psychographic (including consumer trends) and behavioural factors. **Market segmentation** refers to the process of dividing a market into distinct groups of buyers with specific needs, characteristics or behaviour which may require different marketing strategies. Consequently, a market segment consists of consumers who respond in a similar way to a specific marketing programme (Du Plessis & Rousseau 2003:58).

The terms *consumer* and *customer* are used interchangeably by different authors. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:4) describe two different kinds of consuming entities, namely *personal consumers* (who buy goods and services for their own use or for household use) and

organisational consumers (who buy products, equipment and services in order to run their organisations). Sheth and Mittal (2004:14) provide an almost similar definition of the term **customer** as “a person or an organi[s]ational unit that plays a role in the consummation of a transaction with the marketer or an entity”. For the purpose of this study, the term **consumer** will be used for reference to a person using the products or services in general, and the term *customer* where there is reference to an organisation’s customers (buyers of their products or services). A customer is not necessarily the user of the product.

Furthermore, **consumer behaviour** is seen as “the behavio[u]r that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs” (Schiffman & Kanuk 2007:3).

Popcorn (1991:26) describes the **consumer trends** used in her works as “a kind of database to the consumers’ moods, a rich source that you [the marketer] can tap into to solve any marketing problem”.

A **consumer orientation** (or also known as a customer orientation) is defined by Sheth and Mittal (2004:6) as the gaining of “a thorough understanding of [consumers’] needs and wants, the competitive environment, and the nature of the market used to formulate all of the firm’s plans and actions to create satisfied [consumers]”. This can also be described as a consumer-centric approach to marketing to an audience.

The following section will provide the objectives of the study.

1.7 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Although additional trends were identified in other works (Popcorn & Marigold 1996; Popcorn & Marigold 2000; 2001; 2002; 2003; 2004; 2005), this study focused on Popcorn’s initial ten consumer trends identified in her work in 1991. (An elaboration on the original trends (Popcorn 1992) will be incorporated in the discussion in Chapter 3.)

The researcher aimed to determine whether the ten trends were relevant to the permanent staff members of the NWU’s three campuses.

The study placed no limit on age, gender, income, language, education level or ethnicity. The only limit enforced by the study was that respondents participating in the study had to be permanently employed by the NWU.

1.8 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

This research report will be presented in six chapters. **Chapter one** provided an introduction to the study. An overview of the conceptualisation was provided, the objectives for the study were set out, the methodology to be followed was discussed and the demarcation of the study was indicated.

The report will be structured in the form of two literature chapters which provide the theoretical foundation for the study. **Chapter two** provides a literature review on the nature of communication, marketing and IMC. **Chapter three** focuses on the field of consumer behaviour, a model of consumer behaviour, the consumer trends of Faith Popcorn and the importance of a customer-centric approach to IMC.

Chapter four reports on the empirical investigation of the study. The first section of this chapter provides a theoretical overview of the research methodology applied in the study. The second part provides insight into the questionnaire design, sample selection and statistical techniques used.

In **Chapter five** the statistical results of the study are provided and an analysis of the empirical phase of the study is given.

The final chapter, **Chapter six**, summarises the findings of the study and draws a number of conclusions. Recommendations are made for employing the results of the study in an IMC plan. The chapter concludes by highlighting the limitations of the study and provides recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Integrated marketing communication is an exciting way of thinking about the planning, development and execution of marketing communication plans and by no means an optional for marketers. On the one hand consumers are being overloaded with information and similar product offerings, while on the other hand marketers must find new ways of getting through to consumers. As organisations hold marketers accountable for marketing expenditure, it has become a necessity to be able to provide researched support for marketing decisions (Duncan 2005:247).

The marketplace and the consumer have changed dramatically in the 1980s, and the mass media have become a less effective way of communicating to an increasingly segmented target market. Most organisations' marketing efforts were product-focused although they claimed to be consumer-oriented. They communicated messages that they wanted consumers to receive about their products or services, without being sensitive to consumers' informational needs (Schultz, Tannenbaum & Lauterborn 1994: iii-iv).

Today it is important for marketers to realise that they need to be thinking from the consumer's viewpoint rather than from the organisation's point of view. It means that marketers must aim to obtain reaction from consumers by creating dialogue between the parties. IMC is an implementation process for a new strategic way of creating communication between organisations and consumers. These few points serve as a theoretical introduction into the core thinking behind IMC, while different authors' viewpoints will be outlined in the remainder of the chapter. In this chapter the following will be included: the study will be placed within the field of IMC; two theoretic domains of the study, namely communication and marketing, will be discussed; the origins, development and importance of IMC will be included; the marketing communication instruments used in IMC, as well as IMC's changing nature will be discussed and finally, the IMC strategy will be discussed.

The aim of this chapter is to provide a broad understanding of IMC, and it will serve as a theoretical foundation for the research.

2.2 CONTEXTUALISING THE STUDY IN THE FIELD OF INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION

Mulder (2004:228) argues that IMC is practised within the field of integrated marketing, and thus it is essential to be familiar with the term of *marketing*.

Armstrong and Kotler (2005:6) define marketing as “a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging value with others”. Armstrong and Kotler (2005:6) also argue that “[i]n a business setting, marketing involves building and managing profitable exchange relationships with customers”. This emphasis on building relationships with customers is also supported by Belch and Belch (2004:7), when they point out that organisations should focus on developing and growing relationships with customers. This in turn has stressed the importance of relationship marketing. Belch and Belch (2004:7) point out that marketing also assists in the exchange process and the building of relationships with customers by analysing the needs of customers, developing a suitable product or service, offering it at a specific price, making it available at a certain place, and creating a plan to communicate and create awareness and interest.

The field of IMC comprises two bodies of theory, namely marketing theory and communication theory.

Marketing theory consists, inter alia, of a philosophy known as the *marketing concept* (Armstrong & Kotler 2005:13). According to Peter and Donnelly (2001:4) the *marketing concept* means that “an organi[s]ation should seek to make a profit by serving the needs of customer groups”. According to Smith, Berry and Pulford (1999:36) marketing communication forms part of the organisation’s marketing programme and is designed to support the policies and strategies set for the organisation as a whole. It is important to have a background understanding of marketing, since marketing communication is one of the building blocks of marketing (see 2.5).

Littlejohn (1989:2) explains that “[t]he term *communication theory* usually refers to the body of theories or understanding of the communication process”. Communication theories consist of a number of models developed and refined by different academics. According to Tubbs and Moss (2003:8) communication can be broadly defined as humans being able to use symbols to create shared experience or meaning. Communication forms an integral part of all human interaction and consequently plays an important role in IMC, as will be discussed in 2.3.

In both the fields of communication and marketing theory, humans are the central focus point. This research focuses on the consumer role of humans, with specific reference to certain trends and how to incorporate knowledge about these trends into communicating effective IMC messages. Marketers are interested in promoting exchanges with consumers, and are therefore obliged to become knowledgeable about consumer behaviour. The decision-making process of consumers is discussed in Chapter 3 in order to place the study of consumer trends in the field of consumer behaviour .

In order to place the study within the field of IMC, the following sections will provide a theoretic background to the theoretic domains of communication and marketing.

2.3 DEFINING THE TERM *COMMUNICATION*

Communication is a complex and multidisciplinary term (Dance 1967:293) and there have been numerous attempts to define the term. According to Littlejohn (1989:6) a single communication theory can not describe the phenomenon of communication completely. No single definition of communication can be exhaustive of the phenomenon, since academics disagree on the nature of communication (Infante, Rancer & Womack 1990:7). This is also mentioned in the work of Fisher (1978) in Infante, Rancer and Womack (1990:7), when he explains that the reason why it is difficult to obtain a single definition of communication is that there are various different approaches taken to the study of communication.

According to Belch and Belch (2004:139) communication could simply be described as the “passing of information, the exchange of ideas, or the process of establishing a commonness or oneness of thought between a sender and a receiver”. Infante, Rancer and Womack (1990:7) defines communication “as the stimulation of meaning through the exchange of shared symbols”. A very similar broad definition of human communication is provided by Tubbs and Moss (2003:9) namely that it is “the process of creating a meaning between two or more people”. These are only partial definitions which can be expanded as the communication outcomes differ. A more complex definition is provided by Engel, Warshaw and Kinnear (1994) in Koekemoer (1998:26) when they define communication as “a transactional process between two or more parties whereby meaning is exchanged through the intentional use of symbols”. In this definition, the transactional nature of communication as well as the intentional use of symbols to create meaning are emphasised.

Communication, as outlined by Infante, Rancer and Womack (1990:7-15), has five characteristics, namely a symbolic nature; an intentional nature; planned behaviour; a transactional nature; and a contextual nature. These characteristics will be described briefly:

- Communication is *symbolic* since symbols are intentionally created by communicators to represent something or someone (Infante, Rancer & Womack 1990:8).
- Communication is *intentional*. According to Infante, Rancer and Womack (1990:9) “[i]ntentionality seems necessary to identify behavio[u]r as communication behavio[u]r”. A deliberate effort is made to bring about an intended response.
- Communication as *planned behaviour*. When theorists view communication as planned behaviour, the presence of intention is a necessary element of the communication process. Verbal and nonverbal communication messages may be planned, and can be described as a set of behaviours which the communicator believes will accomplish a purpose (Infante, Rancer & Womack 1990:10-13).
- Communication has a *transactional nature* since it is planned before the communication action takes place. According to Infante, Rancer and Womack (1990:13) this means that “[c]ommunication is a process of mutual influence in which participants’ motivations interact”. The transactional model of communication is discussed in Section 2.3.1.3.
- Infante, Rancer and Womack (1990:14-15) conclude that communication has a *contextual nature*. This contextuality refers to a type of situation or setting in which communication takes place. The idea of communication and context is that the nature of the source, message, and receiver is different, depending on the situation. Generally, the contexts which are considered, are interpersonal; small group; organisational; public; mass; and intercultural contexts (Infante, Rancer & Womack 1990:14-15).

Littlejohn and Foss (2005:13) see definitions of communication as tools that should be used flexibly as required in different types of research. They do not provide a single definition of communication in their work, but instead consider a range of theories that defines communication in different ways.

2.3.1 Models of communication

Communication theorists have created many different models of communication, or simplified representations of complex interrelationships among elements in the communication process, which allow researchers to visually understand a sometimes complex process. For the purpose of this study, three prominent models are mentioned, as provided by West and

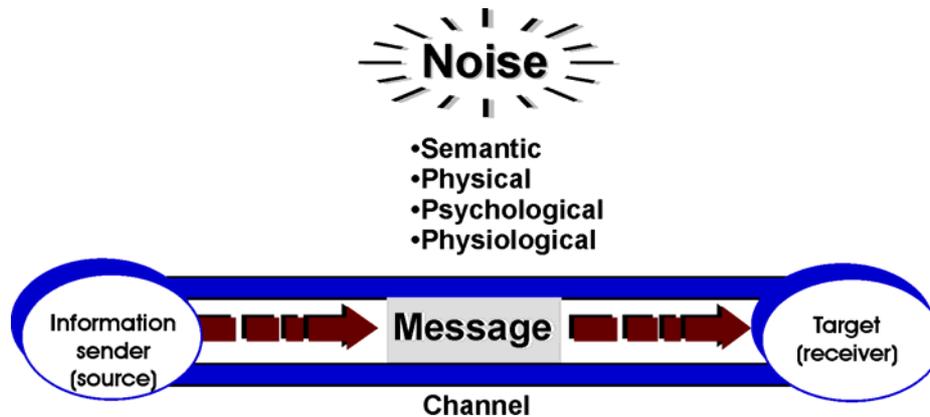
Turner (2004:9-14), namely the linear model, the interactional model and the transactional model.

2.3.1.1 *The linear model of communication*

Shannon and Weaver described communication in 1949 as a linear process. They were interested in radio and telephone technology and were concerned with how information was distributed through various channels, in other words the action of communication itself. This interest resulted in the conceptualisation of the linear model of communication (West & Turner 2004:10), also described as the mathematical theory of communication (Severin & Tankard 1988:32) or the information theory of communication (Infante, Rancer & Womack 1990:115).

West and Turner (2004:10) hold that this approach to human communication consists of several key components (see Figure 2.1). A **source**, or transmitter of a message, sends a **message** to a **receiver**, the recipient of the message. This communication takes place in a **channel**, which is the way in which the communication takes place. Another component is **noise**, which is anything disturbing the receiver from receiving the message. West and Turner (2004:10) distinguish between four types of noise. First, *semantic noise* pertains to the slang, jargon, or specialised language used by individuals or groups. *Physical*, or *external noise*, exists outside the receiver. *Psychological noise* refers to a communicator's prejudices, biases and predispositions toward the other communicator or the message. Finally, *physiological noise* refers to the biological influences on the communication process, such as fatigue or hunger.

According to Infante, Rancer and Womack (1990:117) critics of the information theory approach to communication argue that the theory has limited use when applied to human communication. One major criticism of the theory is that it does not deal with meaning, and meaning is most important in the context of human communication. According to the information theory, a message may contain a great deal of information but still contain little meaning. The definition of communication as the stimulation of meaning in another is not addressed completely by the information theory approach. This theory concentrates on the transfer of electronic signals and not on the meaning generated when receivers interpret those signals.

Figure 2.1: LINEAR MODEL OF COMMUNICATION

Source: Shannon and Weaver (1949) in West and Turner (2004:10)

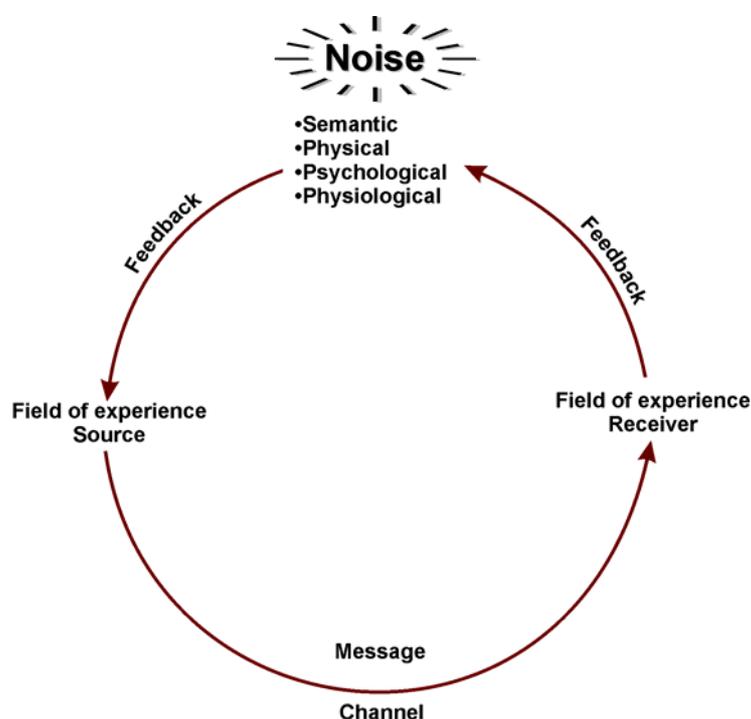
This is a very simplistic model, since there is a number of circumstances where there are not only one message to be sent to a receiver, but several. Furthermore, communication does not have a specific beginning and ending. Clearly, communication is more than a one-way effort (West & Turner 2004:11) and therefore further models were developed by other theorists.

2.3.1.2 The interactional model of communication

According to West and Turner (2004:11) the premise of the linear model was that a person is exclusively a sender or a receiver. This could be regarded as a narrow view of the participants in the communication process. Schramm (1954) proposed that researchers should also examine the relationship between a sender and a receiver (in Severin & Tankard 1988:34; West & Turner 2004:11). He conceptualised the interactional model of communication, which focuses on the two-way communication process between communicators (see Figure 2.2). Communication is then seen as a circular and ongoing process moving from the sender to receiver and from receiver to sender.

Feedback is seen as an essential component of the interactional model of communication. Feedback may be verbal or nonverbal to indicate understanding of the message (West & Turner 2004:11).

West and Turner (2004:12) provide a final feature of the interactional model as a person's field of experience, or how a person's culture, experiences, and heredity influence his or her ability to communicate with another. Figure 2.2 follows on the next page.

Figure 2.2: INTERACTIONAL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION

Source: West and Turner (2004:11)

A major criticism against the use of the interactional model was the suggestion that a communicator either acts as a sender while the other acts as the receiver in a communication setting. Feedback as a component was criticised as well, since the interaction viewpoint assumes that two people are speaking and listening, but not simultaneously. In other words, no true feedback is taking place in the communication process. This criticism led to the development of a third model of communication, namely the transactional model (West & Turner 2004:12).

2.3.1.3 The transactional model of communication

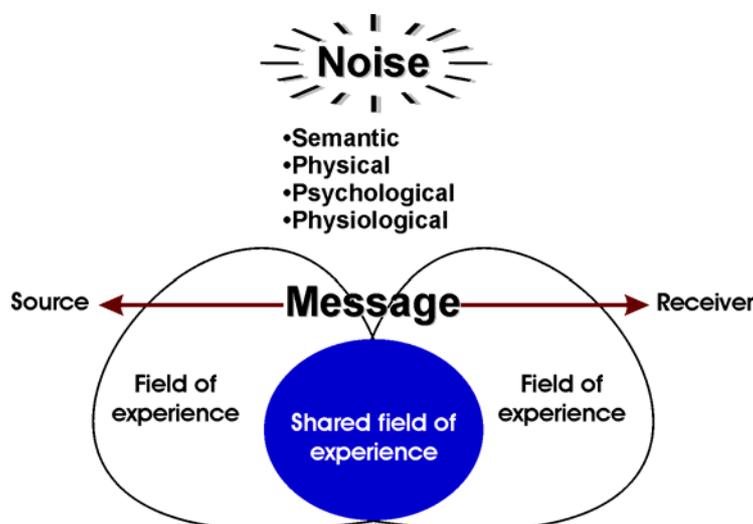
The transactional model of communication, as developed by Barnlund (1970), emphasises the simultaneous sending and receiving of messages in a communication episode (in West & Turner 2004:12). The transactional nature of communication implies that the process is cooperative. This means that the sender and the receiver are mutually responsible for the effectiveness of communication. The linear model of communication emphasised that meaning is passed on from one person to another. In the interactional model, meaning is conveyed through feedback from both the sender and receiver. The transactional model

proposes that shared meaning is created by the communicators and their messages will be influenced by their frame of reference (West & Turner 2004:12).

Infante, Rancer and Womack (1990:14) agree that the transactional nature of communication means that each communication context is unique to a degree. A communication situation occurs between particular people, in particular physical and social circumstances, and in a specific time frame.

According to West and Turner (2004:13) transactional communication requires the recognition of the influence of messages on each other. As one message builds on the previous message, an interdependency between and among the components of communication can be noticed. Furthermore, the transactional model presumes that as communicators simultaneously send and receive messages, they attend to the verbal and nonverbal elements of a message. West and Turner (2004:13) argue that it could be said that communicators negotiate meaning between each other.

Figure 2.3: TRANSACTIONAL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION

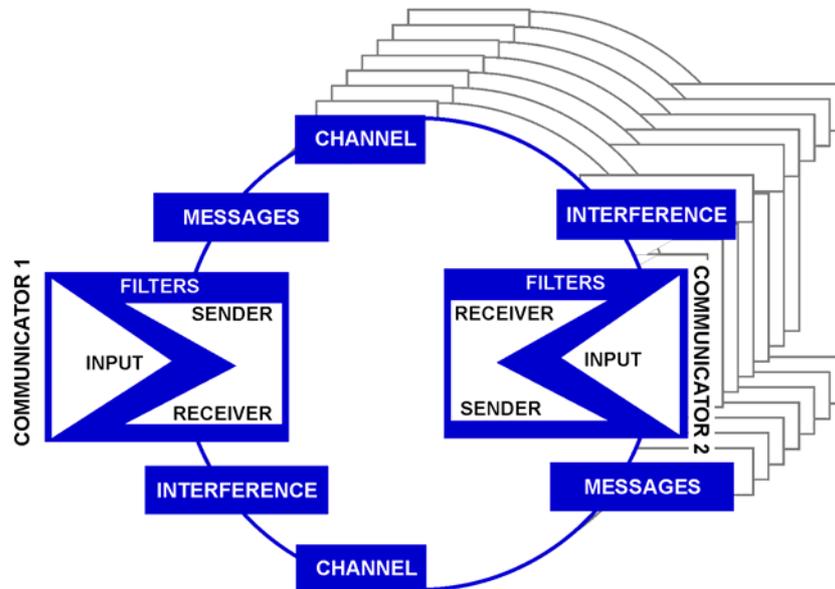


Source: West and Turner (2004:13)

Tubbs and Moss (2003:9-10) agree with the principles of the transactional view and developed the Tubbs Communication Model (see Figure 2.4). These authors hold that both the sender and receiver, which could refer to either Communicator 1 or Communicator 2 in Figure 2.4, are sources of communication, and each creates and receives messages simultaneously. In addition, both parties are simultaneously being influenced by one another in the transaction. The communicators share overlapping roles of sending and receiving

messages, because communication activities are spontaneous and relatively unstructured in daily life.

Figure 2.4: THE TUBBS COMMUNICATION MODEL



Source: Tubbs and Moss (2003:9)

Tubbs and Moss (2003:10) explain that the transactional view emphasises the simultaneous and mutually influential nature of the communication event. The participants become interdependent, and their communication can be analysed only in terms of the context of the event.

Tubbs and Moss (2003:10-14) explain that the messages which are transmitted by the sender, may be verbal or nonverbal and intentional or unintentional. The **channels** that transmit the communicative stimuli may be the sensory organs of the communicator, or other mediums, for example e-mail messages, newsletters, newspapers, films, radio or television. When a message is transmitted, some **interference**, or noise, may be present. That may be understood as anything that distorts the message transmitted to the receiver or distracts him from receiving it.

On the other hand, a critical aspect of message reception by a communicator is **listening**. According to Tubbs and Moss (2003:14-15) four different yet interrelated processes are involved in listening: attention, hearing, understanding and remembering. This model departs from several other models, for example the linear model, that create the illusion that all human communication has a definite starting point with a sender and a termination point with

a receiver. When Communicator 2 in Figure 2.4 has received a message, only a part of the continuous and ongoing process of communication has taken place. In addition, the person's uniqueness as a human being ensures that his or her attempts to communicate will be very different from those of the other person in the model. This can be seen as the **filters**, both physiological and psychological.

Feedback, Tubbs and Moss (2003:15-16) continue, is obtained between the communicators as the return of behaviour that is generated during the communication process. Feedback is an essential characteristic of relationships as well as an important source of information about the communicators. Once Communicator 2 responds to Communicator 1, their interaction can be represented by a circle, Tubbs and Moss (2003:16) explain. As their exchange progresses in time, the relationship between them is accurately described by several circles. Thus, **time** itself becomes the final element in their model. The spiral in the model illustrates the presence of time in Figure 2.4. The spiral illustrates that participants in the communication process can never return to the point at which they started. The relationship must undergo change as a result of each interaction. Tubbs and Moss (2003:16) believe that time is one of the most relevant variables in the study of human communication. The spiral or transactional model emphasises that communication is not static and that it thus requires different methods of analysis from a fixed entity.

The descriptive models of communication were reviewed because they provide an overall view of the communication process. Basic components of the models were source, message, channel, receiver, noise and feedback. For the purpose of this study, the transactional model of human communication will be accepted as a theoretic point of departure, since the model emphasises that dialogue is created between the sender and receiver (or the communicators). This process is similar to the objectives of IMC, where the marketer's main aim of communicating is to create dialogue with the consumer in order to establish a meaningful relationship. The interdependency or systemness of the transactional model of communication can be related to the general system theory within which this study was placed in Chapter 1.

In the following section the concept of marketing will be discussed, to provide an overview of the second constituent of IMC.

2.4 DEFINING THE TERM *MARKETING*

In the previous section, the definition and selected models of communication were discussed. Next, an attempt will be made to provide a definition and theoretical background for the term *marketing*.

Mulder (2004:228) argues that IMC is practised in the field of integrated marketing (where it has become important to exceed consumer expectations), and therefore it is useful to have an understanding of the term *marketing*. Marketing is defined by Aaker, Kumar and Day (2004:3) 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 organi[s]ational objectives”. The ***marketing concept*** requires that consumer satisfaction rather than profit maximisation be the goal of an organisation. To satisfy consumer needs, organisations need to obtain information on consumer needs and gather marketing information (Aaker, Kumar & Day 2004:3). According to Peter and Donnelly (2001:4), the purpose of the marketing concept is to focus the attention of marketing managers on serving consumers' needs (a consumer orientation), rather than on the organisation's products (a product orientation) or on implementing methods to attract consumers to current products (a selling orientation). It can be said that effective marketing starts with the recognition of consumer needs and then works backward to develop products and services to satisfy these needs.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:4) explain that the study of consumer behaviour is rooted in the marketing concept (see Chapter 3). Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2001:35) explain that the development of consumer-based corporate strategy requires a thorough understanding of consumer trends, consumer markets, models to predict purchase and consumption patterns, and communication methods to reach target markets most effectively. They stress that organisations must focus on consumers when a marketing strategy is developed. Armstrong and Kotler (2005:53) agree with the importance of a customer-centred marketing strategy, and add that organisations must divide the total market (market segmentation), choose the best segments (target marketing), and design strategies for profitably serving chosen segments (market positioning).

In the following section definitions of IMC will be provided.

2.5 DEFINING INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION

The researcher will aim to provide different views on a definition of IMC and on how the definition has been refined by different authors.

One of the first definitions of IMC was proposed by the American Association of Advertising Agencies (the Four A's) in late 1989. Percy (1997:3) and Rensburg and Cant (2003:7) cite this definition as follows:

“[Integrated marketing communication is a] concept of marketing communication planning that recogni[s]es the added value of a comprehensive plan that evaluates the strategic roles of a variety of communication disciplines – general advertising, direct response, sales promotion, and public relations – and combines these disciplines to provide clarity, consistency, and maximum communication impact.”

According to Rensburg and Cant (2003:7) the contribution of this definition is that it views IMC as a strategic process that adds value to communication by combining various communication disciplines to create powerful, clear and consistent messages. The limitation of the definition proposed by the American Association of Advertising Agencies is that it includes only the traditional promotional mix elements, while excluding the use of a broad variety of communication instruments.

In their book *The New Marketing Paradigm* (1994) Professors Schultz and Tannenbaum, from the Northwestern University Medill School in Chicago, and Lauterborn, from North Carolina University, all well-known pioneering researchers in the field of integrated marketing communication, define IMC as “a new way of looking at the whole, where once marketers only saw parts such as advertising, public relations, sales promotion, purchasing, employee communications, and so forth. It is realigning communications to look at it the way the customer sees it – as a flow of information from indistinguishable sources. Consumers seem to see every marketing communication message as advertising or public relations”. These communicators acknowledge the fact that the consumer sees the organisation and its messages as being produced from one source, without any distinction between different sources or marketing communication instruments.

Percy (1997:2) defines IMC along the same line as Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994) as “the planning and execution of all the types of advertising and promotion selected for a brand, service, or company, in order to meet a common set of communication

objectives, or more particularly, to support a single 'positioning' ". Percy strongly believes that the key to IMC is planning and the ability to deliver a consistent message.

Initially at Northwestern's Medill School, the working definition of IMC was as follows (Percy 1997:2):

"Integrated marketing communication is the process of developing and implementing various forms of persuasive communication programs with customers and prospects over time. The goal of IMC is to influence or directly affect the behavior of the selected communications audience. IMC considers all sources of brand or company contacts that a customer or prospect has with the product or service as potential delivery channels for future messages. Further, IMC makes use of all forms of communication which are relevant to the customers and prospects, and to which they might be receptive. In sum the IMC process starts with the customer or prospect and then works back to determine and define the forms and methods through which persuasive communications programs should be developed."

It can be argued that this definition was still presenting the need for overall communication planning, as was the case in the definition of Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994). According to Percy (1997) the Medill School group has taken an even stronger consumer orientation in defining IMC. They see IMC as being built upon a two-way communication between marketer and customer. This dialogue is seen as always evolving, based upon an ongoing longitudinal understanding of consumers and their purchase behaviours. Like Percy, the Medill School group sees IMC as an approach to marketing communication planning, and can be described as a process and not a theory or "thing" (Percy 1997:3).

In their book *Introduction to marketing communication: An integrated approach* (1998), John Burnett and Sandra Moriarty, two well-established authors on topics in IMC, define IMC as the practice of unifying all marketing communication tools – from advertising to packaging – to send target audiences a consistent, persuasive message that promotes organisational goals (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:14). John Burnett is a Professor of Marketing at the University of Denver as well as a practicing marketing communication consultant, while Moriarty is a co-founder of the Integrated Marketing Communication graduate programme at the University of Colorado-Boulder. Burnett and Moriarty (1998) draw a distinction between planned and unplanned messages (see 2.5). Burnett and Moriarty (1998:14) also suggest that marketing communication practitioners make use of tools to send planned messages and attempt to anticipate and control unplanned messages. In organisations that use IMC,

marketing communication tools are used together to obtain the maximum impact in order to create synergy.

Shimp (2003:8) accepted the definition of the Medill School and also expanded on the definition, along the same lines as Percy (1997) and Burnett and Moriarty (1998), by adding that IMC requires that all of a brand's communication media deliver a consistent message. He also agrees that the IMC process starts with the customer or prospect but he places more emphasis on what messages should achieve, by stressing that the customer is "the starting point for determining the types of messages and channels (media) that will serve best to inform, persuade, and induce action".

In a definition by Duncan (2001) in Rensburg and Cant (2003:10), IMC is defined as "a cross-functional process for creating and nourishing profitable relationships with customers and other stakeholders by strategically controlling or influencing all messages sent to these groups and encouraging data-driven, purposeful dialogue with them". Duncan (2001) includes the key elements included in the other authors' definitions, but adds that relationships should be built with customers as well as stakeholders. He also adds that the focus on two-way communication should be "data-driven". This is brought on by an increasing amount of communication taking place between the organisation and the stakeholders, based on information obtained and captured into a database. Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003) agree that IMC should be data-driven. They did research on combining the strengths of IMC with new media (such as permission e-mails, the internet, personalised direct marketing) and database marketing. Chapter 3 will provide more detail on these aspects.

A number of other authors also provide definitions on IMC which are all underlying the fundamental aspects of IMC, but perhaps with emphasis on different aspects. Another example is the definition of Varey (2002:251) that: "IMC is, then, the strategic analysis, selection, execution, evaluation, and control of all communicative actions that can effectively and efficiently enable and facilitate productive exchanges in the provider's stakeholder relationship network."

Shimp (2003:9-15) suggests five interdependent features, which are also present in some form in the definitions provided by Schultz *et al.* (1994), Percy (1997), Burnett and Moriarty (1998), Varey (2002) and Rensburg and Cant (2003).

- *Start with the customer or prospect*

A key factor in IMC is that the process should start with the customer and then work back to the organisation to determine the most appropriate messages and media for informing, persuading, and stimulating positive action toward the organisation's brand. The IMC approach avoids an "inside-out" (from the organisation to the customer) approach in identifying suitable methods and media for communication, and instead focuses on the customer ("outside-in"), to best suit the customer's information needs and to stimulate purchases (Shimp 2003:9).

- *Use any form of relevant contact*

According to Shimp (2003:9) IMC uses all forms of communication (planned and unplanned messages) and all sources of appropriate contact points as potential message delivery channels. Brand message contacts include an endless list of possibilities. Marketing communicators who practice these principles are not committed to a single medium, but aims to surround customers or prospects with the brand message at every possible opportunity, while allowing them to use whatever information about the brand they regard as appropriate. One example of this is *Coca-Cola* which makes use of a variety of communication tools to reach their customers in as many productive ways as possible. They make use of mass media advertising, but also use contact methods other than advertising to build brand awareness and image, such as sports sponsorships and sponsoring even the smallest stall in Africa selling their cold drinks with a name board - it is all about surrounding the customer with the brand.

Enslin (2003:323) did research on the role of alternative brand contact planning in South Africa and found that "[t]he unconventional and unexpected point of planned brand contact breaks through commercial clutter barriers to impact on consumers, to communicate or reinforce the single-minded positioning of the brand". Enslin (2003:326) found that in order for marketers to achieve impact by means of the alternative contact point, it must be relevant to the consumer's lifestyle, interests and state-of-mind. The IMC strategy, and consequently also the contact points, need to engage with consumers' lifestyles and daily experiences in order to be relevant and effective. It can be concluded that marketers should aim to make use of alternative forms of contact to reach their target audience.

- *Achieve synergy*

Shimp (2003:12) further argues that inherent to the definition of IMC is the need for synergy. All communication elements must strive to present the same brand message and convey that

message consistently across diverse message channels or contact points. Marketing communication for a brand must, in other words, “speak with a single voice”. The result of failed communication element coordination can result in duplicated efforts and, like Shimp (2003:12) warns, contradictory brand messages.

According to Burnett and Moriarty (1998:14) synergy means that each marketing communication instrument has more impact when functioning together to promote a product than it would functioning separately. This means that “the whole is greater than the sum of the parts”. This systemness of IMC ties in with the study’s theoretic foundation, which is based on general system theory.

Shimp (2003:12) holds that the principle of synergy entails selecting a specific positioning statement for a brand. A positioning statement is the main idea that encapsulates what a brand is intended to stand for in the target market’s mind and then aims to consistently deliver the same message across all contact points.

Duncan (2005:335) adds another element to the IMC objective of consistency by stating that there is more to integration than aiming for the parts of the campaign to integrate. IMC impacts on organisations’ overall business operations, and not only the marketing communication. Duncan (2005:335) argues that a “say-do-confirm” consistency triangle is a simple way to analyse how an organisation’s brand messages relate to each other. This is described as follows:

- “*Say*” messages are marketing communication messages that create expectations.
- “*Do*” messages are messages delivered by the organisation’s product and service messages. They are conveyed by how products perform, how much they cost, how convenient they are, and the product’s service-delivery.
- “*Confirm*” messages are messages from other people who criticise or praise the brand or organisation. Personal and positive third-party communication (word-of-mouth) is considerably more persuasive than marketing communication messages on its own.

The “say-do-confirm” consistency triangle proposes that no “gaps” must be created between these three types of messages in order to ensure brand integrity from the consumer’s point of view.

- *Build relationships*

A fourth characteristic of IMC discussed by Shimp (2003:12) is the belief that successful marketing communication requires building a relationship between the brand and stakeholders. Shimp (2003:12) argues that building a relationship is the key to modern marketing and that IMC is the key to relationship building. The importance of relationship building has spawned the growth of an entire industry of consultants and software suppliers who are involved in the practice of customer relationship management, or CRM. It has become evident that it is more profitable to build and maintain relationships than it is to continuously search for new customers. Shimp (2003:12) provides the analogy of a “leaky bucket” to illustrate the logic behind looking after existing customers. It is more economic to “put a plug in the leak”, so that the bucket stays fuller, than to “add new customers to keep the bucket full”. It costs five to ten times more to attract a new customer than to keep an existing customer (also in Varey 2002:231). Varey (2002:231) holds that the management of communication is the key to managing relationships with customers and other stakeholders. There are many ways to build brand/customer relationships. One, very popular method is the use of loyalty programmes, such as frequent-flyer programmes or loyalty discount cards. Loyalty schemes provide rewards to customers in return for their continued patronage. The value provider is able to gather personal information that is much more valuable for customised product offerings than any of the aggregate data about the “average” customer or market segment typically used in traditional marketing practices. Thus, data can, for example, be gathered from enquiries or purchases at store checkouts (Varey 2002:240).

- *Affect behaviour*

Shimp (2003:14) concludes that another IMC characteristic is the objective of affecting behaviour among the target market. IMC's role stretches further than creating brand awareness or enhancing consumer attitudes towards the brand, although that is also needed to create a favourable pre-behaviour situation. The communication messages need to stimulate some form of behavioural response. An IMC programme as a whole will be ultimately judged in terms of whether it influences behaviour, regardless of whether it was directly or indirectly responsible for the behaviour.

Niemann, Crystal and Grobler (2003:24-25) point out that although the term *integrated marketing communication* is used, in the 1990s (and 2000s), various terms came into use as a result of the differences between the fields of study of advertising, marketing and PR. Niemann, Crystal and Grobler (2003:24) address the terms from various authors in their work and include integrated marketing communication, convergent communications (Newsom,

Turk & Kruckeberg 2000), coordinated communication (Caywood 1998), the new PR (Caywood 1998), integrated communication (Gronstedt 2000:4), integrated brand communication (Duncan 2001), customer relationship management (Duncan & Moriarty 1997), and also integrated corporate communication (Wightman 1999).

Lauterborn (2003) questions the process which he, Schultz and Tannenbaum advocated in their previous work on IMC. They thought that they were describing a strategic problem-solving approach, but instead IMC has come to be the mere selection of different media. Lauterborn (2003) proposes a new definition of the IMC concept, to that of Integrated Customer Behaviour Management, which “integrates everything that impacts customer behavio[u]r”. It includes product development to meet customer needs more precisely, packaging that communicates with equal precision, pricing that reflects the value the customer perceives in the product compared to other ways he or she could satisfy the need or want and a distribution channel that makes it convenient for the customer to purchase. Lauterborn (2003) also includes channel management, sales management, financing, Customer Relationship Management, Total Quality Management and any means to influence customers' thoughts and behaviours. Lauterborn (2003) also remarks that “IMC as it was designed, works”. But it seems that certain misconceptions (possibly about its implementation) exists that keep the concept from making a contribution.

Schultz (2006a) supports Lauterborn's (2003) viewpoint and explains that in their 1993 book, *Integrated Marketing Communications: Putting it Together and Making it Work*, they have made an error by focusing on the process of integration beginning with the marketer, instead of emphasising that integration starts with the consumer specifically. Schultz (2006b) further points out that the marketer only makes synergy possible by selecting the desired messages, but synergy is created by the consumer. In order to obtain integration and synergy of marketing communication messages, IMC must be seen as a strategic approach to organisational management.

Gronstedt (2000:8) proposes the concept of integrated communication (IC) above that of IMC, and postulates that “[i]ntegrated communication is the strategic management process of facilitating a desired meaning of the company and its brands by creating unity of effort at every point of contact with key customers and stakeholders for the purpose of building profitable relationships with them”. He explains that IMC has been an important step in the direction of integrated communication but that it has not been sufficient to cause true integration.

Gronstedt (2000:8) is of the opinion that IMC was largely motivated by communications agencies' appetite for more business, and that IMC represented a Production Century view (in other words, marketers focused on production), of packaging and transmitting marketing communication messages that speak with one voice. He argues that instead of a skin-deep integration of messages and creative execution, integrated communication is a process of dialogue, interaction and learning, with the purpose of adding value and cultivating relationships with key customers and stakeholders. Gronstedt (2000:9) explains that the companies investigated in his book, employed the philosophy, tools, and methods of Total Quality Management (TQM) in involving all staff members to consistently satisfy and exceed customers' expectations. He has developed a *3-D Integrated Communications Model*, since he feels that all three dimensions of communication, namely external, horizontal and vertical integration, should take place in the organisation.

Gronstedt (2000:10) researched the successes of leading organisations and discovered that even though they were different, the common denominator was their obsessive customer focus. They identify their key stakeholders, including investors, news media, and local communities, and make it their objective to establish long-term relationships. This integration of external communication with customers and stakeholders starts at the core of the organisation, by integrating internal communication in the two management directions: vertically, between the employees who are close to the customers and the operations, and the senior management with the power to change system-wide processes; and horizontally, across departments, business units, and countries. These organisations need to keep the communication lines open in these three dimensions: externally, vertically, and horizontally. This *3-D Integrated Communications Model* is the framework to the work of Gronstedt (2000). Gronstedt (2000:17) concludes that integrated communication needs to take place throughout organisations (external integration), ranks (vertical integration), and functions, business units, and regions (horizontal integration). All three dimensions need to be in place to reap the full benefits of integrated communication.

It can be inferred that different terms are used by different authors to describe IMC. It is important to note that this study focuses on IMC, which differs from integrated communication. Niemann (2005:27) draws a distinction between the terms *integrated marketing communication* (IMC) and *integrated communication* (IC). Niemann (2005:27-28) summarises five main ideas to outline the differences between these two concepts:

- (i) The field of IMC mainly focuses on customers, whereas integrated communication proposes a more holistic approach to include all stakeholders. Stakeholders can be

seen as groups of people who are affected by the organisation or alternatively, the organisation is affected by particular groups (Niemann 2005:27).

Contrary to the above statement by Niemann (2005:27), Varey (2002:251) refers to "*stakeholder relationships*" being important to IMC, as mentioned earlier. However, Niemann (2005:27) may refer to her overall literature findings that established that most authors tended to refer to a customer-focus, above a holistic approach.

- (ii) Niemann (2005:28) further explains that in IMC, the focus is placed on messages sent by the organisation. In integrated communication the focus falls on all forms of communication, which implies a two-way process. Gronstedt (2000:17).agrees that integrated communication has taken the integration process of communication to a more strategic level in all departments of the organisation .
- (iii) IMC deals mainly with external messages, whereas integrated communication focus on internal and external messages (Niemann 2005:28). This seems to be a very valid distinction between IMC and integrated communication, since the emphasis in most literature on IMC falls on the messages sent outside the organisation.
- (iv) A very important difference between the two concepts highlighted by Niemann (2005:28), is that IMC is normally driven by a marketing or communication department, whereas integrated communication is strategically driven by the organisation as a whole. This statement is supported by Shimp (2003:15), when he stresses the importance of an IMC specialist being employed to oversee an integrated strategy in an organisation.
- (v) IMC focuses on the technical aspects of the organisation, whereas integrated communication contributes towards the strategic thinking processes within the organisation.

Niemann (2005:28) goes on to indicate that integrated communication is regarded as a broader view of IMC, and follows on IMC. Integrated communication is built on the premise that interaction must take place between the two forms of communication (internally and externally) on an ongoing, interactive, independent and synergistic manner (Niemann 2005:28-29; Gronstedt 2000:7).

Mulder (2004:231) supports the above by saying that the integration of communication methods such as advertising, public relations, promotions, direct marketing and personal

selling is not effective on its own if integration only incorporates these functions. An integration process that extends beyond marketing to include all communication disciplines and serve to promote an organisation's corporate reputation, is known as integrated communication (IC).

In the preceding discussion of prominent authors' views on the definition of IMC, it has become clear that it is difficult to reach a single definition of the process. However, although different terms are used, they seem to refer to the same concepts. It can be inferred that the concept *IMC* is constantly in the process of being scrutinised and revised, as is also clear in the definitions provided above.

2.6 THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF IMC

In the following discussion the changes in marketing communication over a few decades will be discussed. The importance of the marketing mix which lead to marketing communication and IMC will also be explored.

2.6.1 Changes in marketing communication practices

After World War II, the United States and other countries experienced a need for a great deal of products which were not available during the war. Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994:1-6) explain that mass marketing or advertising was invented to sell these standardised mass produced products to an undifferentiated mass of consumers. Manufacturers aimed to produce the most goods in the shortest period of time to provide to the "wanting" masses of customers.

Mulder (2004) investigated the evolution of marketing communication from the 1960s to the 2000s. It was found that the 1960s was categorised by a production-oriented phase where it was thought that manufacturing products were the most important task of an organisation. The production orientation was followed by a sales orientation in the 1970s. Standardised mass-manufactured products were mass-marketed to a standardised, undifferentiated mass of consumers mainly by means of personal selling and advertising (Mulder 2004:223-225).

Through the 1970s and 1980s a gradual shift took place from using mass media in advertising to the positioning of products within a more diverse consumer base. However, it was only as the 1990s dawned that organisations realised that customers had become empowered, had begun choosing what to listen to and had the means to respond to messages sent by organisations. Family structures began to change from large families to

smaller families, and to households consisting of single people. Educational levels became higher and women became involved in the workplace as equal breadwinners. The collapse of the mass media as it was known, was inevitable (Schultz, Tannenbaum & Lauterborn 1994:6-10). Mulder (2004:225) reports that the 1980s was known for a marketing orientation with an emphasis on the marketing mix and the four marketing instruments. Marketers moved from a selling objective to that of marketing.

Shimp (2003:15) explains that many marketing communicators realised that communication methods other than mass media advertising often served the needs of their brands better. These communicators believed that other communication methods should receive careful consideration before assuming that mass media advertising was the automatic solution.

According to Varey (2002:254) the society has changed dramatically over the past few decades as consumers became more proactive and discerning. Sophisticated consumers are aware of alternative offerings and the true cost of products. Marketing communication practitioners have become more professional and knowledgeable and see customers as active users of communication media rather than passive ones.

Today computers give organisations instant access to information about consumers, as well as the ability to collect, store and manipulate information that can be applied in marketing strategies. The consumer is informed on available products and develops his or her own preferences, while manufacturers respond with appropriate products. According to Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994:10-12), niche marketing has replaced mass marketing. Shimp (2003:15) contributes to the argument of Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994) by saying that pinpointed communication is often less expensive and more effective than mass media advertising. Varey (2002:254) adds that the rising costs of broadcast media and increased pressure on budgets require both cost savings and increased performance. Marketing communication practitioners need to work strategically to spend their budgets on the most effective strategies. Targeted messages are especially feasible today with the large, up-to-date databases of customers that are maintained by many organisations.

Mulder (2004:226) continues that in the 1990s the concept of relationship marketing was increasingly accepted. However, in the late 1990s and into the 2000s a comprehensive approach to internal and external communication, namely IMC, was developed to help build successful relationships. A more recent approach is that of integrated communication, which followed IMC. Mulder (2004:231) explains that the integration process need to extend

beyond marketing in order to integrate the various communication disciplines to assist a organisation to forward its corporate image.

Finally, the media used for sending communication messages are constantly diversifying and supplementing established media. For example, television networks are increasingly reaching international markets, and the Internet and integrated software applications are assisting in creating manageable knowledge (Varey 2002:254). This new technology can support the tasks of IMC.

In the following section the nature of the marketing mix will be discussed.

2.6.2 The marketing mix

The functions of marketing within an organisation have been represented by a number of models over the years (Sinclair 1997:76). The most well-known of these is the marketing mix, devised by Neil Borden, Professor of Advertising at the Harvard Business School. The traditional marketing mix, which is part of a business's marketing plan, comprised twelve elements in its most comprehensive version, namely research, product, packaging, branding, price, selling, distribution, service, advertising, merchandising, sales promotion, and public relations. This list of items was subsequently reduced to the simpler mnemonic "4 P's", namely Product, Place, Price and Promotion (Sinclair 1997:76-77).

Three additional P's were added by Booms and Bitner (1981) in Sinclair (1997:77), to include marketing for the service industries (for example banks, building societies, insurance). The three additional mix elements are People (the selection, training and motivation of staff); Physical evidence (for example, credit cards provided by banks to give customers a tangible evidence for the service they are receiving); and Process (the routines and systems put in place in service organisations to ensure that the service is operating well). For the background purposes of this study, only the initial Four P's will be discussed briefly.

The first element, namely **Product**, consists of three items (Sinclair 1997:79): product, packaging and branding. The product which the organisation produces to sell must be of a similar or superior quality to that of competitors. Marketing plans can help create awareness and initial sales, but no marketing campaign can sell products of low quality. The packaging is the way in which the product is being presented to the customer. The packaging identifies the product, and the container itself can also be used as a merchandising tool (for example, an ice cream container which can also be used as a storage container). The last item is the

branding of the product. To elaborate on branding, a definition by De Chernatony and McDonald (1992:15) is provided:

“[B]randing is a powerful marketing concept that does not just focus on one element of the marketing mix, but represents the result of a carefully conceived array of activities across the whole spectrum of the marketing mix, directed towards making the buyer recogni[s]e relevant added values that are unique when compared with competing products and services and which are difficult for competitors to emulate.”

The second P is **Pricing**. Sinclair (1997:80) explains that there are three categories of price determination as described by Van der Merwe and Van der Merwe (1975), varying between “Cost plus”, the method of adding a fixed percentage to the unit cost of the product, “Price setting by competitive conditions”, where marketers are led by market price levels, and “demand-orientated pricing” as is the case in agricultural products such as maize. Burnett and Moriarty (1998:54) add that marketing communicators must view pricing from the consumer’s perspective and must remember that the price is part of the message conveyed. Organisations use pricing strategies to remain competitive in the market, to alter consumer attitudes towards their brand, and to create brand differentiation. Marketers can only create brand differentiation when they are familiar with the consumer’s perception of the brand, the price being asked by their competitors, and how consumers experience price reductions or increases (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:54).

Sinclair (1997:81) explains the third P as **Place**, which consists of two elements: distribution and service. Distribution in this context has two meanings. The first is the physical transport of the products, and the second is the extent to which the sales people are successful in selling the brand to the customer. The latter is the element of concern to the marketer. In addition, the element *service* refers to the importance of after-sales service of products,, especially expensive or long-term products such as motor vehicles or home appliances.. Sinclair (1997:82) regards the building of friendly relationships, efficient dealings, prompt payments of bills and sensitive handling of problems all as important aspects of rendering excellent service. Burnett and Moriarty (1998:50-51) emphasise the IMC perspective on distribution strategy, and argue that marketers must know that how and where a product is distributed contribute towards the communication message conveyed. Since consumers do not distinguish between different messages, one must ensure that the distribution channels complement the communication strategy.

The final P is **Promotion**, which is the element where marketing communication is the core activity. Shimp (2003:3) mentions that although the term *promotion* is used as part of the 4P's for describing communication with prospects and consumers, the term *marketing communication* is used by most marketing communication practitioners and academics. It must be noted that although promotion is an integral part of the 4P's of the marketing mix, its role changes when one looks at IMC. According to Mulder (2004:228), IMC goes beyond the expansion of the promotion element in the marketing mix. In the study of IMC, promotion becomes one of the tools that can be used to compile an IMC strategy. IMC focuses on the recognition of the importance of creating dialogue and relationships by building trust and communicating consistent messages to its stakeholders (Mulder 2004:228).

One of the most significant points of critique against the four P's was that they represented the frame of mind of the seller and not that of the customer (Kotler 2003:109). This argument is supported by Grönroos (2002), who strongly criticises the well-known marketing mix and its Four P's, and argues that a new approach to marketing is required. He views marketing as an interactive process taking place in a social context where relationship building and management is a crucial foundation. The customer as a focal point is emphasised, as is also the case with the marketing concept. In continuing this line of argument, Lauterborn (1990), Professor of Advertising at the University of North Carolina's School of Journalism, Chapel Hill, dismissed the P's and developed the C's:

- *Products* become *Customer* needs and wants (or value).
- *Price* becomes *Cost* to the user.
- *Place* becomes *Convenience*.
- *Promotion* becomes *Communication*.

Lauterborn's (1990) new formula proposes that the marketer needs to shift his/her focus from the product and has to become familiar with exactly what the consumer's wants and needs are. An organisation cannot merely sell any product it produces: an organisation can only sell what the **consumer** would like to buy. Armstrong and Kotler (2005:58) call this C the *customer solution* and remark that while marketers' objective is to sell products or services, consumers' main objectives are to buy products that add value to their lives or solve their problems. Thus, it is important to be knowledgeable about the behaviour of consumers and the trends they follow (see Chapter 3).

Price becomes the **cost** to the consumer to satisfy his/her needs. The actual price is only a part of the cost. Cost could be the weight that is gained by having hamburgers for lunch

every day, for example (Lauterborn 1990). Armstrong and Kotler (2005:58) add that consumers are interested in the total costs of obtaining, using and disposing of a product. When they know that the cost is acceptable, positive attitudes towards the product may induce buying.

Place is replaced by the convenience to buy. People now have the choice to shop from the comfort of their own homes, and a marketer should know how each segment of the market wants to buy their products or services (Lauterborn 1990). Consumers want a positive experience when they buy their goods, and need the product or service to be conveniently available to them (Armstrong & Kotler 2005:58).

In addition, Lauterborn (1990) explains that the word **communication** replaces the *promotion* of the marketing mix. Manipulative promotion is not a functional option in the current market place, but communication must take place from the consumer inwards to the organisation and it must be cooperative.

Lauterborn (1990) finds that contrast is the fundamental difference between the Four P's, which served so well for so long, and the Four C's, which may be the formula for success for marketers to come. He suggests that sellers should first work with the 4C's before setting the 4P's. Once the marketer thinks through the 4C's for the target customer, it becomes much easier to set the 4P's.

Armstrong and Kotler (2005:58) and Rensburg and Cant (2003:11-12) agree that these C's reflect a more consumer-oriented marketing philosophy. The four C's provide the basis for thinking from the perspective of the consumer, for example to focus on the cost of the product in order to satisfy consumers' needs. Some would argue that the marketing mix is too production-oriented, and that modern marketers should not focus on it. However, it provides a handy framework for marketing analysis. Rensburg and Cant (2003:13) argue that the focus of IMC falls on building relationships with stakeholders, obtaining consistency in brand messages, creating dialogue, developing mission marketing (see 3.5.1.10) and targeting specific market segments by means of data-driven marketing. An emphasis on relationship marketing (see 3.6.4.2) is also an important feature of IMC.

In summary, the term *marketing communication* originates from the term *promotion* in the Four P's, which developed into *communication* in the Four C's. This emphasises the focus on the consumer as central to all communication efforts. In the following section, the importance of IMC will be underlined.

2.7 THE IMPORTANCE OF INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION

As discussed in 2.6, IMC can be seen as a constituent part of integrated communication within an organisation, and therefore it is useful to be familiar with the benefits of integrated communication. When implementing an IMC strategy, the marketer must aim to achieve objectives towards obtaining a state of integrated communication within the organisation. Gronstedt (2000:14) provides the following points that support the idea of integrated communication:

- Integrated communication builds customer relationships, which are the only sustainable source of competitive advantage in a commoditised market.
- Integrated communication ensures relationships with all stakeholders, which reduces the cost of litigation, regulation, and boycotts, and leads to increased profits by attracting investment capital, competent employees and positive media coverage.
- Integrated communication is more effective because it gives organisations greater control of all contact points that will ultimately be integrated in the customers' and stakeholders' minds, enabling organisations to better manage and foster relationships with them.
- Integrated communication is more efficient, saving time and money by reducing duplication in marketing communication efforts.
- Integrated communication strengthens employee relationships, by valuing and acting on their contributions, establishing resources and providing the information they need to perform their jobs.
- Integrated communication is the gateway to an era where the customer is the focus of the organisation: competitors are already following this route, customers are expecting it from organisations, and stakeholders are requiring it (Gronstedt 2000:14).

Although this study is placed within the field of IMC, the importance for IMC being supporting to a holistic integration of all communication functions within the organisation is acknowledged.

Research has shown that marketing practitioners value the IMC concept. When given a definition of IMC, four out of five marketers surveyed agreed that the concept is valuable and that it would increase the impact of their marketing communication programmes. It was indicated that IMC insures greater consistency in marketing communication strategies, reduces duplication and provides a competitive edge (Sirgy 1998:5). Kallmeyer and Abratt (2001:368) agree that in the South African advertising industry a high level of agreement has

been found that communication have more impact when an integrated approach is adopted, therefore providing greater consistency in communication. Their research also showed that agencies perceived IMC to be the “face of the future” (Kallmeyer & Abratt 2001:368).

For IMC to be implemented, it is important for an organisation’s management to support integration. Kotler (2003:24) provides the following points that support the idea of IMC:

- IMC assist brands in differentiating themselves from competitors by being more customer focused.
- Following an integrated approach improves accountability because relationships can be tracked in relation to sales and profits (by means of customer databases).
- IMC increases brand trust because emphasis is placed on a relationship with the customer, rather than on single transactions.
- It benefits the organisation in coordinating and focusing its functions.

Schultz (2006b) concludes that the role of IMC has changed, since the marketplace has undergone changes as more media forms become available to consumers. Consumers control their exposure to marketing communication messages by means of improved technology and the use of the “same feel, same look” planned marketing communication messages will not reach consumers effectively if it is not implemented across all functions of an organisation. Integration is still crucial, but must be regarded from a strategic customer-focused viewpoint within organisations.

The researcher is of the opinion that although IC is a new and broader approach, IMC remains relevant. IC is the context and IMC represents the marketing communication mix within this context.

It can be inferred that all possible points of contact (or interaction) between the organisation and the consumer or other stakeholders communicate messages about the brand. Therefore each contact (whether planned or unplanned) must be managed by an experienced manager with an understanding of IMC.

In the following section the marketing communication mix, including the collection of advertising, sales promotions, personal selling, public relations, direct marketing, sponsorships and alternative communication instruments, will be discussed.

2.8 THE MARKETING COMMUNICATION MIX

Different marketing communication instruments in the marketing communication mix have the ability to achieve different objectives. In the following section, the function of the different instruments will be discussed, and their main advantages and disadvantages will be highlighted. The more knowledgeable the marketer is about the consumer, the easier it will be to select the most impactful communication instruments to attract and retain attention (Townsend 2006) and influence the decision-making process.

2.8.1 Advertising

Advertising can be described as any paid form of non-personal communication by an identified sponsor that promotes ideas, goods or services (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:6; Koekemoer 1998:9). According to Shimp (2003:4) advertising can either involve mass communication, for example newspapers, magazines, radio, television, and other media, or direct communication directed to corporate or individual customers. Both forms of advertising are paid for by an identified sponsor (the advertiser) but are considered to be non-personal because the sponsoring organisation is simultaneously communicating with multiple receivers. Direct advertising consisting of postal mail, or permission e-mailing has experienced huge growth in recent years due to the effectiveness of targeted communication and the computer technology that has made it possible. Any environment where messages are portrayed, is a potential advertising medium.

Yeshin (1998:119) holds that advertising is one of a variety of marketing communication instruments that organisations utilise to achieve their objectives. In the past, advertising has always been an important communication activity, although that position is being eroded as the other instruments of marketing communication gain widespread popularity.

Advertising is expensive and its effects often difficult to measure. Kotler (2003:7) points out that actions of people must be measured, rather than peoples' opinions or memories about advertising. Kotler stresses the dilemma of measuring something that cannot be measured. For this reason it is sometimes easy for organisations to reduce or even eliminate advertising completely when financial pressure calls for cost-cutting measures. However, Shimp (2003:225) sees advertising as an investment in that it provides long-term benefits.

Many organisations believe in the effectiveness of advertising. In general, advertising is valued because it is recognised as performing five critical communication functions, namely that it (i) informs about new or existing brands; (ii) persuades to try advertised products or

services; (iii) reminds the consumer of the brand; (iv) adds value by means of innovation, improved quality and it alters consumer perception; and (v) assists in achieving other organisational efforts (Shimp 2003:231-234).

Kotler (2003:3) adds that organisations should ask themselves whether advertising would create more satisfied clients than if their organisation spent the same money on making a better product, improving organisation service, or creating stronger experiences: "The better the product, the less that has to be spent advertising it." Most marketers would agree that the best advertising is done by satisfied customers. The Four C's (customer needs and wants; cost; convenience; and, communication) of the marketing mix must therefore motivate the customer to take action.

2.8.2 Sales promotion

Sirgy (1998:136) describes sales promotion as a marketing communication instrument specifically developed to provide customers with an incentive and to induce an immediate action. Sales promotion tools and techniques include: coupons, sampling, premiums in the form of inexpensive gifts, competitions, refunds and rebates, bonus packs and discounts.

Yeshin (1998:192) points out that over the recent years, sales promotion has become a dynamic area within the overall context of marketing communication. Although accurate figures are difficult to obtain, most industry experts agree that today more money is spent below the line than above it. Kotler (2003:160) writes that the division between advertising and sales promotion may be 30:70, which is contrary to the situation of a few years ago.

According to Yeshin (1998:194) sales promotion offers manufacturers benefits which few other forms of marketing communication activity can deliver. Price promotions enable manufacturers to adjust to variations in supply and demand without changing their prices. Often, price promotions can help even-out ups and downs in consumer demand to lower the average costs of operations. Furthermore, sales promotion may encourage consumers to experiment with new products leading to increased consumer demand (Yeshin 1998:194).

Kotler (2003:162) advises marketers to use sales promotions that agree or enhance brand image and add value. Sales promotions must be used in conjunction with advertising. He believes that advertising provides reasons for the customer to buy the products, while sales promotions provide the incentive to buy: when used together, sales promotion and advertising can form a powerful combination.

2.8.3 Personal selling

Personal selling involves personal contact with customers by means of which sales people inform, educate and persuade prospective customers to purchase an organisation's products or services (Shimp 2003:4). Sales people can also act as a link between the organisation and its customers, by building and upholding sound customer relationships. Companies with technical products, such as SSAB (an international steel producer), make use of extensive personal selling, since their products are expensive and its applications need to be demonstrated to prospective customers.

According to Kotler (2003:110) personal selling can strengthen consumers' comprehension of a product's advantages and their conviction that the product offering is worthwhile. Kotler (2003:158) indicates that the compensation of a sales force should be tied to profit on the sale, not to the revenue. Each salesperson should see himself as part of the organisation and managing a profit centre, not a sales centre, and be rewarded accordingly.

2.8.4 Public relations

PRISA (2005) provides a general definition of public relations as "the management, through communication, of perceptions and strategic relationships between an organisation and its internal and external stakeholders". A more task-specific perspective on public relations is provided by Burnett and Moriarty (1998:6) as "a coordinated attempt to create a favo[u]rable product image in the mind of the public by supporting certain activities or program[me]s, publishing commercially significant news in a widely circulated medium, or obtaining favo[u]rable publicity on radio, television, or stage that is not paid for by the company selling the product".

Sirgy (1998:130) provides a list of public relations tools and techniques which include: (i) the press release, (ii) press conferences, (iii) exclusives, (iv) interviews, (v), publicity, (vi) corporate advertising, (vii) event sponsorship, and (viii) product placements in television. Kotler (2003:46) adds community affairs, lobbying and social investments to the list of Sirgy.

The functions of public relations, according to Yeshin (1998:254-256), include (i) opinion forming, (ii) counselling senior management, (iii) liaison with public officials, (iv) communications policies, (v) community relations, (vi) in-house activities, (vii) product or service publicity, (viii) financial activity, (ix) media relations, (x) event management, and (xi) business sponsorship.

2.8.5 Direct marketing

Direct marketing entails the establishment of an interactive system of marketing which enables the consumer to access information and purchase products through a variety of media, for example direct mail or Internet catalogues (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:6). The organisation compiles a database of its current customers and prospective customers, with relevant information about the customer. This permits customised appeals and creative strategy based on the lifestyles and needs of the target market segments (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel 2006:173).

Yeshin (1998:220) describes how the 1990s witnessed fast growth in the field of direct marketing. The main driving force has been the increased need to ensure a specific focus on responding to customer needs, a requirement which can be better achieved by direct communication than through conventional methods. The dramatic improvements in computer technology has allowed for the success of direct marketing.

The British Direct Marketing Association (in Yeshin 1998:220) defines direct marketing as “an interactive system of marketing which uses one or more advertising media to effect a measurable response and/or transaction at any location”. The key strategic reason for using the techniques of direct marketing is to establish a relationship with the customer.

Sirgy (1998:135) lists the following as tools and techniques used in direct marketing: (i) direct mail, (ii) catalogues, (iii) telemarketing, (iv) direct response advertising (e.g. infomercials), (v) new electronic media (e.g. home shopping channels, electronic shopping), and (vi) direct selling (one-to-one selling or group selling).

Yeshin (1998:222) explains that recent years have seen important changes in both consumer attitudes and behaviours which have strongly contributed to the growth of direct marketing. Trends include the following:

- *The desire for experimentation* as a result of foreign travel and changes in lifestyle generally, has led to people becoming more accustomed to the process of experimentation.
- *Alternative “shopping outlets”*. The convenience of shopping at a time and place convenient to the consumer is gaining popularity.
- *The focus on home*, witnessed by various studies, accentuates the consumer’s desire to shop at home through mail order and Internet purchases.

- *Underlying changes in society.* More working women, changes in the composition of the family and similar trends have contributed to the desire for a more personalised and customised service. This fragmentation of the target audience represents a challenge to conventional marketing, as consumers demand products and services which are more directly tailored to their own personal requirements.
- *Desire for greater shopping convenience.* Changing lifestyles have dictated a need for alternative methods of shopping to which traditional retailers have been slow to respond for a variety of reasons. With the increasing numbers of working women, for example, shopping can no longer be restricted to the normal “daylight hours”.
- *The progressive growth of the service sector.* As the quality of products have improved, individuals have turned to other areas to improve their lives. Services such as insurance, fitness, security etc. have directly benefited and, more importantly, have been able to utilise direct marketing approaches to achieve the most cost-effective contact with their target audiences.
- *The increasing costs of reaching fragmented audiences.* With the increasing costs of media, and the inevitability of duplication, marketers have been encouraged to seek communication methods which are precisely targeted. The progressive segmenting of target audiences, witnessed by the dramatic growth in all media channels, means that more sophisticated approaches need to be taken to reach customers in a cost-effective manner.
- As marketing and market research techniques have improved, it has become increasingly possible to *segment markets in different ways*. Since consumers are unique, their needs, desires and aspirations will also be different. Direct marketing offers the opportunity to develop a line of communication with different market segments and to “tailor” the marketing communication message in ways that would not be possible using a traditional media approach.
- *The growth of the cashless society.* Increasing numbers of consumers have become holders of bank accounts and credit cards enabling them to make use of direct marketing offers.
- *The improvements in information technology* have provided the means for realising the potential of direct marketing. The creation of databases, the processing of information, the possibility of conducting cross-analyses with other sources of information, the profiling of prospective consumers, and similar techniques are potentially greatly simplified with the widespread use of new technology. Most importantly, analyses can be

conducted fast – while the information is still current – and the prospective consumer can be contacted before his/her need situation has changed (Yeshin 1998:222-224).

The similarities between the above-mentioned trends in the consumer market and those consumer trends identified by Faith Popcorn will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

2.8.6 Sponsorships

Rensburg and Cant (2003:5) categorise sponsorship as the sixth promotional mix element. It can be described as the development of patronage among stakeholders and consists of giving financial or other support to a beneficiary in order to make it financially viable, for altruistic purposes, but also to obtain publicity and marketing advantage (Rensburg & Cant 2003:158). Shimp 2003:4 adds that *sponsorship marketing* takes place when the interests of an organisation and its brands are promoted by giving financial support to a specific event. Main areas where sponsorships can be observed are books and publications, exhibitions, education, expeditions, sports events, the arts, causes and charities, local events, professional awards, public service and civic sponsorships (Rensburg & Cant 2003:158).

The functions of sponsorships can be described as goodwill being created, corporate image and corporate identity being promoted, familiarity with the brand name being created, hospitality being demonstrated and the interest of journalists being encouraged (Rensburg & Cant 2003:159).

2.8.7 Alternative marketing communication instruments

Examples of alternative marketing communication techniques are:

- *Point of purchase or merchandise materials*, such as displays, posters, signs, and other materials, designed to influence customers' tendency to purchase at the point-of-purchase (Shimp 2003:5).
- *Packaging* serves to both identify the product by means of its marketing communication message and to act as a container for the product (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:8).
- *Specialities* are free gifts used to remind consumers of a specific brands or organisations (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:8).
- *Licensing* takes place when the right to use an organisation's character or logo is sold in order for another organisation to use it on their products (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:8).

- *Interactive technology* places the focus on obtaining interaction between the consumer and the organisation, for example by means of the internet (Duncan 2005:388).
- Rensburg and Cant (2003:5) also refer to *exhibitions* and *trade fairs*, *personal communication* and *image or theme communication*.

There are numerous alternative forms of contact points that can be used as part of obtaining consumer information and which can subsequently be employed in an IMC strategy, such as permission e-mails, the world wide web, interactive television, handheld wireless communication devices and related systems (Peltier, Schibrowsky & Schultz 2003:94). Marketers can use these to market their products by means of creative and innovative IMC campaigns.

It is important for marketers to do research on the effectiveness and suitability of the instruments they would like to use in their marketing communication strategies. Since marketers need to know the past and future of all aspects of the business they are in, research must be conducted on a regular basis (Sinclair 1997:78).

In the following section the changing nature of IMC will be discussed.

2.9 THE CHANGING NATURE OF IMC

IMC is a very different activity today than it was in the late 1980s (Schultz 1998). The first efforts to formalise the concept was made at the Medill School at Northwestern University in the mid-1980s, as discussed in 2.6. Today IMC is still changing and it is expected that it will continue to change in future. Schultz (1998) explains that IMC is increasingly being called *integrated communications* (IC). As IMC may be regarded as a constituent part of IC, the following discussion is applicable in an IMC context. Schultz (1998) identifies two change drivers that are impacting on and influencing the entire field of IMC, which is the constant improvement of technology used in communication programmes and management's need for accountability for the outcomes obtained from the outputs of communication practitioners.

The first major change agent is the development and diffusion of information technology (IT). Under information technology is understood the primarily electronic methods by means of which information on the marketplace, customers, prospects and stakeholders are captured, stored, manipulated and distributed among individuals and organisations, both within and outside a organisation. This technology also includes new media communication forms such as e-mail and websites, databases both internal and external and even the ability of organisations to include their customers in their communication approaches by means of IT,

such as electronic ticketing. Information technology will continue to have a major influence on the manner in which IMC is developed and practiced (Schultz 1998).

Schultz (1998) argues that the second major factor of change has been the shifting nature of management evaluation of both internal and external communication programmes. Communication practitioners have become experts in developing successful communication campaigns, but have not given as much attention to the measurement and evaluation of these funded activities. Having successfully developed processes and systems to measure the return on investment on all other areas of business, management would like to do the same with communication. According to Schultz (1998) technology makes more complex communication systems possible, and at the same time makes greater accountability probable. It is where these two factors meet that they are driving the change in what IMC is and how it is practiced.

2.10 STEPS OF AN INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION STRATEGY

According to Burnett and Moriarty (1998:110) the IMC plan evolves from the marketing plan. In the IMC plan, however, the objectives are to make the most effective use of a selection of marketing communication functions – advertising, public relations, sales promotion, direct marketing, personal selling, and packaging – and to control the communication impact of the other marketing mix elements. The overall IMC plan identifies the most efficient and effective combination of activities, media and messages.

A nine-step planning process was developed by Burnett and Moriarty (1998:111) and will be used for the purpose of the study. This particular planning process was chosen, as the steps are comprehensive and practical to apply. These steps, similar to the business and marketing planning steps, can also be used to create a plan for a specific communication function, such as sales promotion or advertising.

Step 1: Determine a problem or opportunity

During the first step an analysis of problems and opportunities is derived from a comprehensive analysis of the situation. Marketers rely on research, past experience, and a competitive analysis to identify problems and opportunities relevant the communication plan. The SWOT analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) of the marketing plan may also be reapplied at this stage. Marketing communication can solve message-related problems such as image, attitude, perception, and knowledge or information (Burnett &

Moriarty 1998:111). Duncan (2005:178) also stresses that organisations need to prioritise the elements identified by the SWOT analysis, and use them to set objectives. By means of prioritising IMC, planners can determine where to place their focus.

Step 2: Determine the objectives

The establishment of marketing communication objectives evolves from the marketing objectives as well as the problems and opportunity analysis. Marketing communication objectives can be divided into five categories: (i) creating awareness, (ii) creating understanding, (iii) creating changes in attitudes and perceptions, (iv) creating changes in behaviour, and (v) reinforcing previous decisions and attitudes. Certain marketing communication tools are better than others in achieving a given objective, which is an important factor in developing the marketing communication mix in step 4 (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:111). According to Duncan (2005:181) organisations can use consumer behaviour models, for example the AIDA sequence (awareness, interest, desire, action), to assist in setting marketing communication objectives to affect brand decision-making.

Step 3: Select the target audience

Duncan (2005:173) postulates that organisations need to advertise and promote their products and services to a selected group of consumers who are likely to purchase. In order to target a homogeneous group, **market segmentation** has to take place. Market segmentation refers to the grouping of consumers according to similar characteristics (for example past buying behaviour, demographics and psychographics/lifestyle information), needs, wants or desires. Wright (2006:402-403) refers to psychographic and lifestyle segmentation as the current dominant paradigm in consumer behavioural research and emphasises its role in creating a consumer profile (with the characteristics, needs and wants of consumers) when selecting a market segment.

Percy (1997:10) holds that the consumer is the focus of any communication programme, but when using an IMC approach they are even more important. Once the appropriate target market has been identified in the marketing plan, the marketer needs to obtain as much knowledge as possible about all the influences in the market that contribute to a positive response to the product or service. Consumers and those who may influence their decisions, are potential target audiences for communication. An important step is to link the target audience to the marketing strategy, primarily in terms of whether trial or repeat purchase is sought (Percy 1997:10).

According to Burnett and Moriarty (1998:112) targeting is particularly complex in an IMC programme. In IMC planning, a group of stakeholder audiences may be targeted because they need to be informed or involved in an organisation's activities. Because the audience may be larger than the customers, IMC planning is often more complicated than traditional marketing communication planning that targets only the consumer audience.

By looking at the consumer trends of consumers, the marketer determines what motivates the consumer to buy products or services. In Chapter 3 these consumer trends will be discussed in full. Because target audience considerations are paramount, the strategic process must begin with them (Percy 1997:10).

Step 4: Select the marketing communication mix

The activities (or tools) used to achieve the marketing communication objectives constitutes the marketing communication mix. After the target market and audience are selected, the marketer customises and refines the marketing communication mix to address the target audience as effectively as possible (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:112-113).

In IMC planning, Burnett and Moriarty (1998:113) explain, the strengths of the various tools are matched against the problems and opportunities to decide which tools are most suitable to meet the marketing communication objectives. The flexibility of having a choice among tools is important because it allows marketers to match the objectives and message needs with budgets.

Step 5: Select the message strategy

Developing a message aimed at a targeted audience group is a difficult and important process. Message strategies depend on the nature and extent of the opportunity, as well as strengths, weaknesses, and threats identified in the situation analysis (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:113). Duncan (2005:187) mentions that apart from deciding on the marketing communication mix to be used, the strategy must be supported by a "creative idea" and a strong rationale why the specific strategy ideas are sound.

According to Duncan (2005:278) a **message strategy** is an idea about how to communicate a brand message to a target audience in a creative and persuasive manner. One of the most often used selling strategies is to focus on a brand's main benefit, how a product or service satisfies consumers' needs, wants and desires (Duncan 2005:286). Consumer trend information, such as the trends described in this study, can be included in, among others, an

emotional strategy (which connects with customers and prospectives at the affective level) or a lifestyle strategy (which is a type of association strategy that uses situations and symbols of lifestyles that the target audiences can identify with or aspire to) (Duncan 2005:288-289). Due to the particular focus of this study, message strategies will not be discussed in more detail.

Although different target audiences have different message needs, messages must be consistent with the organisation, brand or product's overall message. This message or central theme focuses the marketing effort and provides consistency (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:113-114).

Step 6: Select the message delivery system or media

During the media planning process it must be determined how to reach the target audiences at their most important contact points. The development of the media strategy works closely together with the development of the message strategy and the budget analysis (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:115). Townsend (2006) also suggests that organisations need to be innovative in choosing mediums to drive their messages.

Step 7: Determine the budget

According to Burnett and Moriarty (1998:115-116) one key element that determines which tool and to what extent each tool will be used in the marketing communication mix is the budget. The ideal situation is that the budget should not be considered in the planning process until after the major strategic decisions have been made. Once the overall marketing communication budget is set, an allocation is made to each tool.

Duncan (2005:190-191) adds that marketing communication expenditure can be viewed as either a cost or investment to the organisation. The difference between these two views is that a cost is unnecessary and worth to cut down on, but an investment provides a "return on investment". The only way to determine whether a "return on investment" has been obtained is to track sales and to measure the effect of IMC programmes on sales. However, this measurement is not always performed by organisations.

Step 8: Implement the strategy

The implementation of the strategy involves three separate steps. Firstly, the manager decides on all the elements of the plan, including types of media, dates, times, creative experts, and production schedules. Then the manager must make sure that all these

decisions can be implemented and that there are people assigned to each task. Finally, the manager must monitor the activities to make sure that all decisions were implemented correctly. A successful implementation coordinates the efforts of all the specialists involved (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:116-117).

Step 9: Evaluate the results

After the implementation step, the marketing communication manager must determine if the promotional effort met the stated objectives.

Three tasks must be completed to measure the results of a marketing communication programme. Firstly, marketing communication managers must develop standards for effectiveness so that the planners, those who implement the plan, and evaluators understand exactly what the promotion should have accomplished. Secondly, the marketing communication manager must monitor actual promotional performance against the objectives, often through consumer surveys. Thirdly, the manager must compare performance measures against the standards to determine if the performance was effective and efficient (Burnett & Moriarty 1998:117).

Varey (2002:250) sees IMC as “a shift towards more personali[s]ed, customer-oriented, technology-supported marketing systems”. An integrated marketing strategy can be achieved by a cross-functional team to integrate marketing and marketing communication activities. Marketers should be aware that due to the use of different forms of messages, consistency may be absent, leading to inappropriate outcomes for marketing communication efforts which may conflict with what is being told and asked by other people in the corporation, customers, the media, and competitors. Every contact with the organisation can (but sometimes do not) generate meanings for stakeholders. These contacts with the organisation should be managed to strengthen desired relationships with all stakeholders (Varey 2002:250). The marketing communication plan provides the framework for the communication effort within the organisation. Every organisation must communicate: the IMC plan will determine how effectively the organisation will communicate.

The field of consumer behaviour provides a theoretic foundation for decisions made during the IMC planning process. The main objective of marketing communication is to affect behaviour towards the product. In the researcher's opinion, consumer information, such as Faith Popcorn's consumer trends, is important and applicable in the following steps of the IMC planning process (as discussed previously in this section):

- Step 1: Consumer trends can indicate opportunities for new products to be developed and marketed.
- Step 2: An important focus of consumer behaviour is to determine what factors (such as consumer trends) influence consumers' decision making, and must be kept in mind when determining the marketing communication objectives.
- Step 3: Consumer trends can be used in order to allow for more effective segmentation of the target audience.
- Step 4: When deciding on a particular marketing communication mix the marketer can use consumer trend information to guide him/her in using the most suitable instruments to reach the target audience.
- Step 5: When deciding on an appropriate message strategy, the marketer can use information on consumer trends, for example in an emotional or lifestyle strategy/appeal. This allows for the development of message strategies that connects with the consumer's needs and appeal to the emotions.

The importance and function of consumer behaviour and Faith Popcorn's consumer trends within IMC will be discussed in Chapter 3.

2.11 SUMMARY

Integrated marketing communication (IMC) has developed and changed dramatically since the earliest attempts to define the concept. It was argued that IMC is deemed to be a coordinated method of thinking about the planning, development and implementation of marketing communication programmes to create coordinated messages to stakeholders.

It became clear that IMC is an integral part of integrated marketing and integrated communication within an organisation. IMC comprises the fields of communication and marketing, and uses the marketing communication tools to create strategies. Various definitions of IMC exist, and it was aimed to shed a light on these different viewpoints. This chapter overviewed the nature of marketing communication and the shift from a traditional marketing approach to an IMC approach.

The origin and development of IMC was discussed from where it started in a production-oriented phase in the 1960s to the customer- and data-driven point of view of the 2000s. Technology is playing a large part in maintaining and making available data on consumers to be used when formulating IMC strategies.

The different marketing communication instruments were discussed and it was shown that the media possibilities that can be used by marketers are unlimited. It is the task of the marketer to know his/her target audience well enough to be able to select the correct types of media. It was also seen that an emphasis is placed on direct marketing and on creating unique and personalised messages to consumers (again making use of consumer information obtained from databases). In the context of the study, the empirical chapter will focus on obtaining such consumer information, with special reference to consumer trends.

It was found that IC is a more holistic approach to communication with internal and external stakeholders of an organisation, whereas IMC has a particular focus on the consumer. Since the study dealt with consumer trends in particular, it was decided to present the study within the framework of IMC and consumer behaviour.

The chapter was concluded with a discussion on the IMC planning process, and with a description of the important role that obtained information can play in consumer behaviour.

In Chapter 3 a literature overview will be provided of the consumer-centric approach followed by IMC; the role of consumer behaviour will be established; the consumer trends identified by the author Faith Popcorn will be discussed; and a brief overview will be provided of the works of other authors on consumer trends. The relevance of the consumer trends in IMC planning will also be investigated.

CHAPTER 3

THE ROLE OF THE CONSUMER IN INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

It was pointed out in Chapter 2 that the integrated marketing communication approach emphasises the importance of understanding the consumer, strategically integrating communication tools and other marketing mix elements and adapting all communication to address the needs of consumers. Shimp (2003:9) supports this notion by indicating that the IMC process should start with the consumer, and should then work back to the organisation to determine the most effective strategy for communicating marketing messages to the consumer.

Belch and Belch (2004:9) add that IMC is a concept used when doing marketing communication planning that involves the strategic coordinating of a variety of communication disciplines to successfully communicate with an organisation's customers. Keeping this in mind, consumer behaviour is a crucial theoretic field to include in this study, since marketers would like to influence their customers' behaviour.

When deciding on an IMC strategy, knowledge of consumer behaviour will be beneficial in every step followed during the planning process (see Chapter 2, 2.11). Because the consumer must be central when following an IMC approach, the organisation should start with the consumer in mind when planning.

In this study, the focus falls specifically on ten consumer trends identified by the author Faith Popcorn (1991). In order to integrate these consumer trends with the study of consumer behaviour, the objective will be to provide a background of the study of human and consumer behaviour, with specific emphasis on the variables which influence decision-making. Faith Popcorn's consumer trends can be seen as individual variables influencing the consumer decision-making process (see 3.4.1).

This chapter will focus on the field of consumer behaviour by defining the concept of consumer behaviour and considering the major models of consumer behaviour. Consumer behaviour is the third theoretic domain of this study (see Chapter 1). Once the study of

consumer behaviour had been explored, the discussion will shift to consumer trends and how they relate to consumer behaviour and to IMC.

3.2 IMC AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

People are confronted daily with issues surrounding consumer behaviour (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel 2001:3). A great deal of consumers' actions are central to their lifestyle and longing to experience a fulfilled and quality life. Therefore, it is not surprising that an expanding field of research has emerged focusing on consumer behaviour.

It is important to define the concept *consumer*. Walters (1974) in Mostert (2002:37) provides the following definition: "A consumer is an individual who purchases, has the capacity to purchase, goods and services offered for sale by marketing institutions in order to satisfy personal or household needs, wants, or desires". From the definition above, it may be noted that a referral is made to the individual (Mostert 2002:37). He proposes that the focus must first be placed on human behaviour, since consumer behaviour is based on the study of human behaviour, but from the point of view of a consumer role. Mostert (2002:37) accepts that consumer behaviour is founded in human behaviour.

3.2.1 Defining *consumer behaviour*

Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:9) explain that it is characteristic of a developing field of study such as consumer behaviour, to have divergent definitions given by various authors and academics. There is no universally acceptable definition of consumer behaviour, but a number of different definitions will be discussed below.

Hawkins, Best and Coney (1998:7) define the field of consumer behaviour as "the study of individuals, groups, or organi[s]ations and the processes they use to select, secure, use, and dispose of products, services, experiences, or ideas to satisfy needs and the impacts that these processes have on the consumer and society".

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:3), in turn, describe that consumer behaviour focuses on "how individuals make decisions to spend their available resources (time, money, effort) on consumption-related items. That includes what they buy, why they buy it, when they buy it, where they buy it, how often they buy it, how often they use it, how they evaluate it after the purchase, the impact of such evaluations on future purchases, and how they dispose of it". Individuals, as used in the definition above, can be seen as personal consumers (buying for household use) or organisational consumers (buying for organisational use).

Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:7) use the term “buyer behaviour” rather than consumer behaviour, to demonstrate their view that buyer behaviour encapsulates consumer behaviour and customer behaviour. A definition of buyer behaviour is provided by Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:9) to accommodate the similarities, minimise the differences and to justify it in terms of comprehensiveness. Such a definition is the following: “Buying behaviour comprises the mental and physical activities (behaviour patterns) of decision units (individuals, families, and organi[s]ations) which precede, determine, and follow on the decision process for the acquisition of need-satisfying products, ideas and services.”

A definition accepted for the purpose of the study, is that consumer behaviour refers to “activities people undertake when obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services” (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel 2001:6).

In the definition provided by Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2001:6) several activities are included. *Obtaining* refers to the activities leading up to and including the purchase or receipt of the product or service. *Consuming* refers to how, where, when, and under what circumstances consumers use products or make use of services. *Disposing* includes how consumers get rid of products and packaging, or choose to re-use some products.

Various other definitions and descriptions of consumer behaviour do not differ from those provided above; therefore the above-mentioned definition will be considered as sufficient for the purpose of this study.

3.2.2 The relevance of consumer behaviour in IMC

Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:15) point out that consumer behaviour was a relatively new field of study in the 1960s, with no body of research of its own. Researchers borrowed from other disciplines, such as psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology, and economics. This interdisciplinary background has provided the foundation for consumer behaviour as an emerging marketing discipline.

Du Plessis and Rousseau (2003:3-4) point out that marketing is concerned with the orientation of products or services to the market, and an important component of this decision-making process is associated with the buying behaviour of consumers in the target market. However, according to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:15), marketers have noted that consumers did not always behave as marketing theory suggested they would. Because marketing communication originates from the overall marketing strategy formulated for the organisation, the discussion which follows is applicable to IMC.

The field of consumer behaviour is rooted in the marketing concept, a marketing strategy that evolved in the late 1950s (Schiffman & Kanuk 2007:5). Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:5) explain that marketers began to realise that they could sell more goods if they produced only those goods they had predetermined specific consumers would buy. Consumer needs and wants became the organisation's main focus and this consumer-oriented marketing philosophy came to be known as the *marketing concept*. According to Assael (2004:6) the marketing concept determines that marketers must first define the benefits consumers seek in the marketplace and gear marketing strategies accordingly. Acceptance of this concept has provided the impetus for studying consumer behaviour in a marketing context. The marketing concept is based on the premise that a marketer should make what it can sell, instead of sell what it has made. While the selling concept that was held earlier, focused on the needs of the seller, the marketing concept focuses specifically on the needs of the buyer (Schiffman & Kanuk 2007:5).

Organisations realised that they had to identify customer needs by means of extensive marketing research. By doing this, marketers discovered that consumers were complex individuals, influenced by a variety of psychological and social needs apart from their survival needs. Thus, the marketing concept laid the groundwork for the application of consumer behaviour principles to a marketing strategy (Schiffman & Kanuk 2007:6).

According to Hawkins, Best and Coney (1998:7) four main facts about the nature of knowledge of consumer behaviour can be provided. Firstly, successful marketing decisions by organisations require extensive information on the consumer's behaviour. Organisations are applying theories and information about consumer behaviour on a daily basis and therefore information on consumer behaviour need to be readily available. Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003) agree that organisations should apply consumer information held in databases in order to obtain the advantage of what they call an *interactive IMC plan* (by making use of electronic media). This will be further discussed in 3.6.4.3.

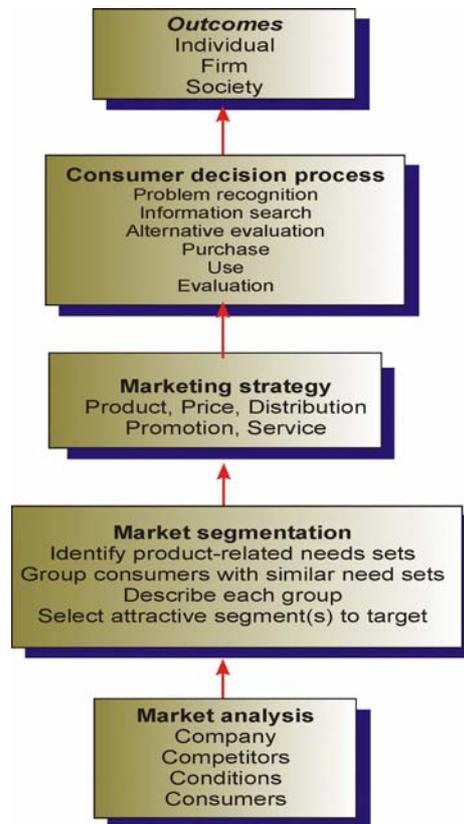
Secondly, consumer behaviour theory in general, provides the manager with the appropriate questions to ask when making marketing decisions. Thirdly, consumer behaviour is a complex and multidimensional process. Lastly, marketing practices designed to influence consumer behaviour also influences the organisation, the individual and society (Hawkins, Best & Coney 1998:7-8).

To survive in a competitive environment, an organisation must provide target customers with more value than provided by its competitors. Customer value is the difference between all the benefits derived from a total product and all the costs of acquiring those benefits.

An understanding of consumer behaviour is the basis for the formulation of marketing strategy (Hawkins, Best & Coney 1998:11), and consequently also for IMC strategy planning, which develop from the marketing plan. Consumers' reactions to this marketing strategy determine the organisation's success or failure. However, these reactions also determine the success of the consumers in meeting their needs, and they have a significant impact on the larger society in which they occur.

The following section aims to provide an insight into how marketing strategy and consumer behaviour relate. In the view of Hawkins, Best and Coney (1998:11), marketing strategy begins with an analysis of the organisation's capabilities, the strengths and weaknesses of competitors, the economic and technological forces affecting the market, and the current and potential consumers available in the market (see Figure 3.1). Based on the consumer analysis portion of this step, the organisation identifies groups of individuals, households or organisations with similar needs. Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006:43) believe that these market segments (or groups of consumers) are described in terms such as *demographics*, *psychographics*, *purchase and consumption behaviours*, *geographical characteristics*, and *situational factors*. One or more of these segments are then selected as target markets, based on the organisation's capabilities relative to those of the competition (given current and forecast economic and technological conditions).

Next, a marketing strategy is formulated which seeks to provide the customer with more value than the competition while still producing a profit for the organisation. Marketing strategy is formulated in terms of the marketing mix. As such, it involves determining the product attributes, price, communication, distribution and services that will provide customers with excellent value. This entire set of features is often referred to as the total product. The total product is presented to the target audience, which is consistently engaged in processing information and making decisions designed to maintain or enhance its lifestyle (individual consumers) or performance (organisations) (Hawkins, Best & Coney 1998:11). IMC, then, is a strategic communication approach originating from the "promotion" function in the marketing strategy (see 2.7.2 on the marketing mix).

Figure 3.1: MARKETING STRATEGY AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Source: Hawkins, Best and Coney (1998:12)

In the following section the different models of human behaviour will be briefly discussed.

3.3 MODELS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

In order to provide background information to consumer behaviour models, it is necessary to first look at models of human behaviour because they provide the context to understand consumer behaviour. Runyon and Stewart (1987) in Mostert (2002:41) describe the study of human behaviour as that it encapsulates beliefs held regarding the nature and behaviour of human beings. Humans are viewed from different perspectives: for instance, when human beings are viewed from an economic perspective, marketers may attempt to influence them with economic rewards.

Runyon and Stewart (1987) in Mostert (2002:42) further argue that models of human behaviour can be viewed as incomplete descriptions and different models may be applicable to different marketing contexts. However, models of human behaviour provide valuable

knowledge of consumer behaviour, since they attempt to provide insights into why humans, and consequently consumers, make decisions.

Mostert (2002:42) discusses four models of human behaviour, namely the Marshallian economic model, the Pavlovian learning model, the Freudian psychoanalytical model and the Veblenian social-psychological model. In addition to these four models, Mostert (2002:42) refers to the theory of Maslow's hierarchy of needs to provide a perspective on the importance of understanding the influence of needs and motivation on consumer behaviour. For the purpose of this study the models will only be discussed briefly, as they serve as theoretical background to the sections which will follow.

According to the **Marshallian economic model**, Mostert (2002:42) explains, consumers will spend their income on products that will offer the greatest satisfaction, depending on individual style and the cost. Mostert (2002:44) concludes that economic factors in isolation cannot account for all variations in the purchasing process. Furthermore, the fundamentals of how brand and product preferences are formed are omitted. However, the model offers a guide for analysing a small portion of the consumer's behaviour.

According to Gould (1979) in Mostert (2002:45), the **Veblenian social-psychological model** proposes that a human being is regarded as a so-called "social animal", and needs to conform to norms of the larger culture, specific standards of subcultures and interpersonal groups in which humans function. Mostert (2002:45-46) explains that the model implies that human behaviour and needs are formed by memberships and associations. The importance of the model to the marketer is that in order to determine the demand for products, the most important social influences impacting on such product demands should be determined. The marketer should consider the impact of different social influences, such as social class, culture, reference groups and face-to-face groups.

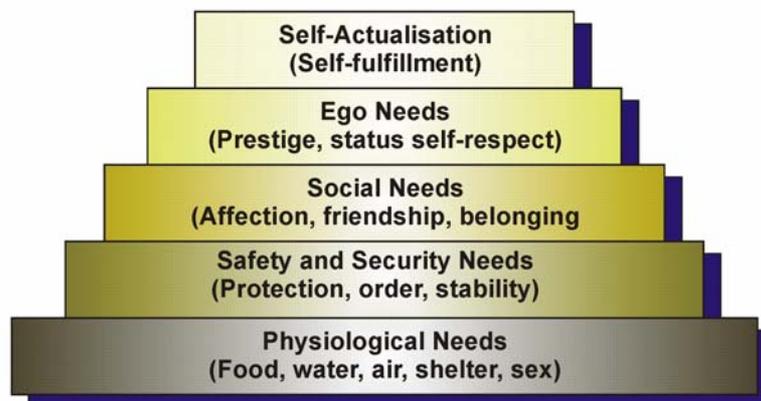
The third model provided by Mostert (2002:46) is the well-known **Pavlovian learning model**. This model has its origin in the work of the Russian scientist, Pavlov, who conducted experiments by ringing a bell each time before feeding a dog. Pavlov discovered that salivating was caused when the dog heard the bell, whether food was available or not. The conclusion was reached that learning took place due to a process of association and that a large section of human behaviour was conditioned in a similar way. This is also known as "classical conditioning" (Wright 2006:168-169). Wright (2006:169) concludes that the value of the model offered to the field of marketing is that guidance is provided to marketers in how to create positive and pleasant associations with the brand through the pairing of stimuli. In

order to be effective, marketing communication messages should arouse strong emotions or drives in a person.

The fourth model used by Mostert (2002:49) is the **Freudian psychoanalytical model**. Armstrong and Kotler (2005:155) summarise the theory by indicating that Freud assumed that people are mostly unconscious about their psychological behaviour and do not fully understand their own motivations (which make them even more difficult for a marketer to understand). An example is provided of a consumer wanting to buy an expensive camera in order to take on a new hobby or career. At a deeper level, his/her reasons may include the desire to impress others with his/her creative talent. At an even deeper level, the motive for the purchase may be attributed to the need to feel young and independent. A benefit to marketers is that motivational research can offer beneficial insights and inspiration in terms of marketing communication messages. Belch and Belch (2004:109-111) support this view by arguing that insights gained from motivational research can often be used as a basis for advertising messages aimed at deeply rooted feelings, hopes, aspirations and fears of consumers. When marketers apply these insights into emotional appeals, it is often more effective than rationally based appeals.

Mostert (2002:52) also provides the **Maslow's hierarchy of needs**, which provides insight into the theory of human motivation based on a hierarchy of human needs. Sheth and Mittal (2004:164) explain that according to psychologist Abraham Maslow, human needs and wants are arranged in a hierarchy. Higher-level needs are dormant until lower-level needs are satisfied. According to Sheth and Mittal (2004:164) Maslow's hierarchy of needs consists of (from lowest to highest): physiological needs; safety and security needs; social needs; esteem and ego needs; and needs for self-actualisation. Other authors also provide discussions on Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Hawkins, Best & Coney 1998:367; Du Plessis & Rousseau 2003:228; Schiffman & Kanuk 2007:99).

Sheth and Mittal (2004:164) show that a person progresses to higher-level needs if the lower-level needs are satisfied and a person regresses to lower-level needs should these needs become unsatisfied again. Maslow does not distinguish between needs and wants, but most contemporary books on marketing do. According to this distinction, only the first two needs in Maslow's hierarchy would be *needs* while the last three are *wants* (see Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2: MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF HUMAN NEEDS

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:99)

Hawkins, Best and Coney (1998:367) consider Maslow's theory as a useful guide to general behaviour, but not an ironclad rule. Examples exist of individuals who sacrificed their lives for ideals, or who gave up food and shelter to seek self-actualisation. However, such behaviour is regarded as exceptional and indicates the general validity of Maslow's overall approach. It can be noted that any given consumption behaviour can satisfy more than one need. Likewise, the consumption behaviour can satisfy different needs at different times. For example, the consumption of *Perrier* could satisfy both physiological and esteem needs, only physiological needs, or only esteem needs, or perhaps social needs or even safety needs. Marketers often base their appeals on one or more of Maslow's need levels.

Section 3.3 provided a short overview of the different theories on human behaviour. In the following section the focus will fall on the models of consumer behaviour which were developed to build on the theories identified by the human behaviour theorists.

3.4 MODELS OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

The theories of human behaviour, as discussed in 3.3, provided an overview of a selection of models created around human behaviour and its influence on consumers. These models, however, only focused on certain aspects of human behaviour, and as a result the study of consumer behaviour focused on analysing the consumer even further and developed more complex models.

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:143) describe a model as "nothing more than a replica of the phenomena it is designed to represent". It can be said that a model represents the reality of something and aims to illustrate relationships between different elements of a system or

process. Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:143) identify the following advantages of the development of models:

- Explanations are provided for human behaviour;
- A frame of reference is provided for research; and
- A foundation is provided for management information systems.

Sinclair (1997:17) provides an insight into the models created around consumer behaviour. Prior to the development of these models there was a strong belief that advertising alone could lead consumers through a series of mental steps, which would result in a desired action. The new models made it clear that advertising was only one input into an often complex process.

According to Sinclair (1997) the three best-known models were those of Nicosia (1966), Howard and Sheth (1969) and Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1968). A feature of the **Nicosia model** of consumer behaviour was an emphasis shift from the consumer's purchase behaviour specifically to that of the decision-making process which leads to the purchase. Although certain criticisms have been expressed against the model, it can be regarded as a valuable pioneering contribution towards refining the theory on consumer behaviour (Chisnall 1995:206-207).

On the other hand, the **Howard and Sheth model** is a very comprehensive model and includes content variables (that is, brand comprehension, personal and situational attitudes, intention and confidence) and structural variables (that is, the media selection process and perceptual bias) which influence the decision-making process (Chisnall 1995:205-206). Due to the particular focus of the study, these models will not be discussed in detail.

The Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model (1968) has been refined and is now known as the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard model (EBM), after the three authors of the book on consumer behaviour in which the model is featured. Alternative models of consumer behaviour were considered, but since the EBM model provides the latest theory on consumer behaviour (Mostert 2002:95), it is used to create an understanding of the role that marketer-controlled communication (the entire promotional mix) play in the decision-making process (Sinclair 1997:17).

Sinclair (1997:18) suggests that if the EBM model or advertising is to be understood, it is essential to acquire a fundamental understanding of some important psychological theories.

Theories commonly discussed in advertising and related literature are concerned with perception, memory, involvement, attitudes, personal values and cognitive dissonance. Due to the focus of this study, this will not be discussed in more detail.

The psychological aspects of consumer behaviour are important to the marketer to develop an understanding of how a consumer thinks and behaves. In the following section one of the models, namely the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (EBM) model of consumer behaviour, will be discussed to provide an overview of the process, showing the purchase and its outcomes.

3.4.1 The Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (EBM) model of consumer behaviour

The model of consumer behaviour developed by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard was based on the original work on the subject by Engel, Kollat, Blackwell and Miniard. These authors have revisited the model over decades and it has seen many changes from its original 1968 version (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard 1990:475; Engel, Blackwell & Miniard 1995:154; Blackwell, Miniard & Engel 2001; Blackwell, Miniard & Engel 2006:70).

According to Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1978) in Mostert (2002:78), the Engel, Kollat, Blackwell model (referred to as the EKB model) was a revision of a previous version of the model and had several purposes, namely:

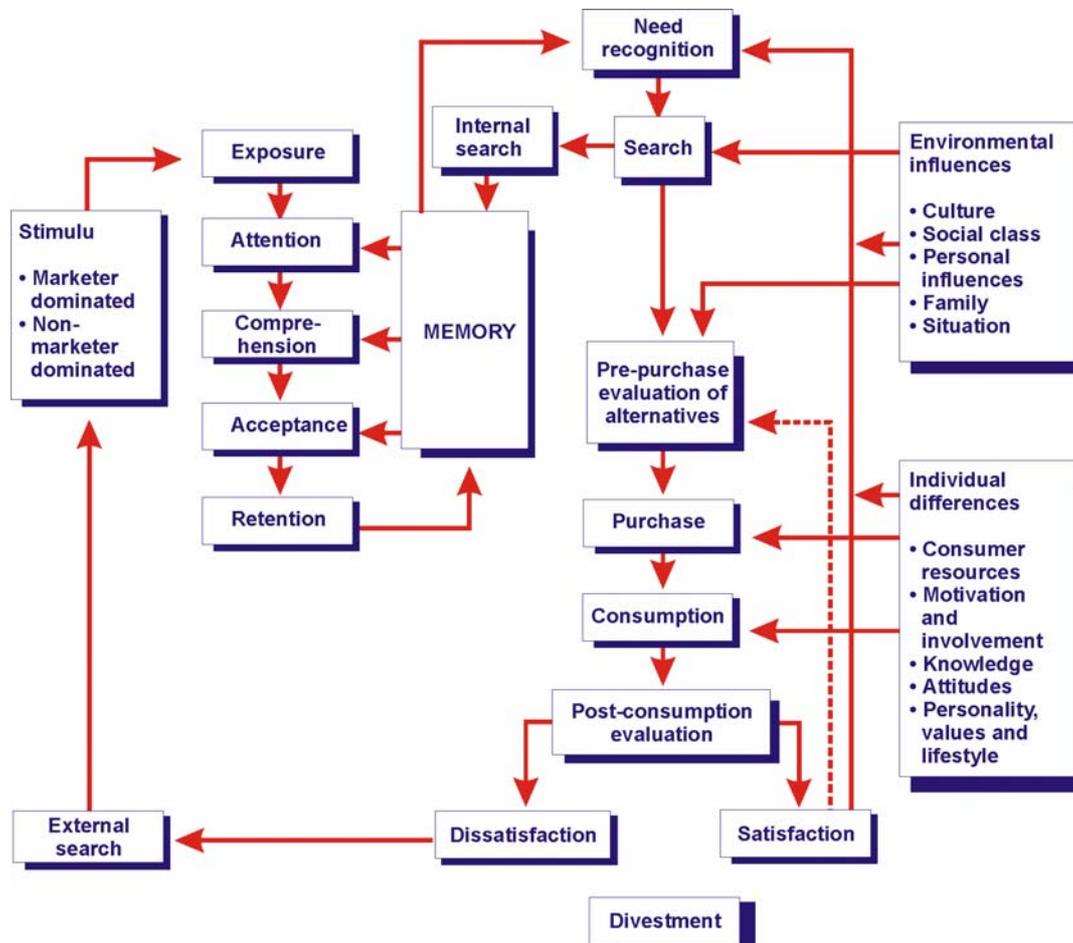
- (i) "the interrelationship between stages in the decision-making process and the endogenous and exogenous variables which are highlighted;
- (ii) to clarify the relationship between attitudes and behaviour as well as the introduction of beliefs and intentions as explicit variables and the introduction of normative compliance; and
- (iii) to define variables with greater precision and specify functional relationship for the purpose of empirical testing."

After revisions, and the addition of the author Miniard, the model became known as the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard model (EBM) (Mostert 2002:77-79).

According to Sinclair (1997:29) the concept of involvement is fundamental to the EBM model, because the model has been designed to apply to the spectrum of problem solving. If a purchase decision is of a high-involvement nature, involving considerable perceived risk, the full, extended problem-solving procedure will be followed. At the opposite end of the involvement scale, where there is little or no risk, the author concludes that the process will

still be followed but the degree in which each step is followed will be affected. The most recent complete EBM model is provided in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: A COMPLETE MODEL OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR



Source: Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006:85)

Two hypothetical constructs form the foundation of the EBM model. Firstly, information processing deals with the manner in which consumers are exposed to external stimuli, upon which information may proceed through a series of steps to result in retention in the long-term memory store. The second construct is the decision-making process itself, starting with need recognition and culminating in satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This construct is the most detailed of the various processes, since it plots the progress through internal and external search, demonstrates the alternative evaluation that then takes place, shows how this feeds the process of attitude formation, and finally culminates in purchase and the outcome of the purchase (Sinclair 1997:30-31).

According to the EBM model, the consumer decision-making process is influenced and formed by a number of factors and determinants, categorised in three categories, namely (a) individual differences, (b) environmental influences and (c) psychological processes. The following discussion will deal with these three categories, based on Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:143-154), Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006:70-88) and Mostert (2002:81-91). The components associated with each category will also be included in an attempt to explain the decision-making processes of consumers suggested by the EBM model.

A. Individual differences

The EBM model proposes that consumer behaviour is affected by five major categories of individual differences, namely consumer resources; knowledge; attitudes; motivation; and personality, values and lifestyle.

(i) Consumer resources

An individual consumer brings three main consumer resources into the decision-making situation, namely *time*, *money* and *information reception and processing capabilities*. In general these resources are not available in great quantities, and therefore a consumer will decide carefully how to allocate the available resources.

(ii) Knowledge

Knowledge is defined as the information placed in a consumer's memory. It entails a variety of information, such as the availability and characteristics of products and services. Information placed in memory regarding products or services include *product knowledge*, in other words, product category or brand awareness, product terminology, product attributes and beliefs about the product category and specific brands; *purchase knowledge*, in other words, information concerning the decisions about when and where the product should be purchased; and *usage knowledge* - in other words, information on how a product can be used.

(iii) Attitudes

An attitude can be viewed as an overall evaluation of positive and negative alternatives. Behaviour is strongly influenced by attitudes towards a brand or product. Attitudes influence future choices and are difficult to change, even though it is a common marketing tool. Therefore it is important for marketers to have a thorough understanding of consumers' attitudes.

(iv) Motivation

Need is a central variable in motivation. It can be defined as consumers' perception of the difference between an ideal state and the current state, sufficient to induce a behaviour. Energised behaviour is brought about when need is activated and is channelled toward certain goals that have been learned as incentives. These needs fall into two basic categories, namely *utilitarian* (functional, practical benefit) or *hedonic* (subjective and emotional benefits).

(v) Personality, Values and Lifestyle

Individuals are unique in many ways which affect how they make decisions. Personality, values and lifestyle encompass what is known as psychographic research, with the focus on individual traits, values, beliefs and preferred behaviour patterns which is found among different marketing segments.

Personality is defined as consistent responses to environmental stimuli, and is the particular pattern of organisation that makes one individual unique and different from other people.

Values represent consumer beliefs about life and acceptable behaviour. Furthermore, values express the goals that motivate people and appropriate ways to attain those goals. Values can be either personal or social. Social values define "normal" behaviour for a society or group, whereas personal values define "normal" behaviour for an individual.

The concept *lifestyle*, on the other hand, is popular when trying to understand consumer behaviour. Marketers using lifestyle information attempt to relate a product or service through marketing communication to the everyday experiences of the target market. Lifestyles can be defined as patterns in which individuals live and choose to spend time and money. Lifestyles reflect an individual's activities, interests, and opinions (AIOs) and is often used interchangeably with the term *psychographics*. Individuals use constructs such as *lifestyle* to make sense of the events happening around them and to interpret, conceptualise and predict events. People also aim to reconcile their values with events. A construct system is personal and continually changes in response to an individual's need to conceptualise cues from a changing environment to be consistent with his or her own values and personality.

Values are relatively long-term, while lifestyles change over time. Successful marketers aim to research trends in lifestyles of their key target markets and reflect those trends in their marketing communications.

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:451) define psychographics as “the use of psychological, sociological, and anthropological variables, such as benefits desired, self-concept and lifestyle to determine how the market is segmented by the variety of groups within a market, and their considerations when making a particular decision about a product, person, ideology, or hold an attitude or use a medium”. Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:451-453) propose that the term is often used interchangeably with AIO measures or statements to describe the activities, interests and opinions of consumers. *Activities* are seen as actions such as shopping, doing sports or reading a book. *Interests* can be seen as a special and continuing attention to an object, event or subject. *Opinions* are answers provided in response to specific situations where a question is asked. Opinions can be used to describe interpretations, expectations, and evaluations of certain aspects in consumers’ lives. These AIO statements may be specific, referring to statements that are product specific and that identify brands associated with a product or service, or general, focusing on lifestyle statements that are not applicable to a brand in particular. These authors suggest that marketers should use AIOs to better understand the lifestyles of their core customers in order to communicate more effectively with people in that segment. Table 3.1 provides different categories for AIO statements.

Demographic variables also influence individuals and may include age, education, income, gender, occupation, family size, geography, etc. (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel 2006:236).

Table 2.1: AIO CATEGORIES OF LIFESTYLE STUDIES

Activities	Interests	Opinions
Work Hobbies Social events Vacation Entertainment Club membership Community Shopping Sports	Family Home Job Community Recreation Fashion Food Media Achievements	Themselves Social issues Politics Business Economics Education Products Future Culture

Source: Blackwell, Miniard & Engel (2006:279)

B. Environmental influences

Environmental influences impacting on consumers’ decision-making process include culture, social class, personal influences, family and the situation or context.

(i) Culture

From a consumer behaviour perspective, culture refers to the values, ideas, artefacts and other meaningful symbols supporting individuals to communicate, interpret and evaluate as members of society. The core values of a society define how products are used with regard to their function, form and meaning. Culture also provides positive and negative valences for brands and for communication programmes and defines the ideology of consumption. The EBM model emphasises that culture provides individuals with a sense of identity and an understanding of acceptable behaviour in society. Attitudes and behaviours influenced by culture include the sense of self and space, communication and language, dress and appearance, food and eating preferences, time and time consciousness, relationships, values and norms, beliefs and attitudes, mental processes and learning, as well as work habits and practices. In addition, ethnic groups may be formed around nationality, religion, physical attributes, or geographic location.

(ii) Social class

Social class is defined as divisions in a society into which individuals or families sharing similar values, lifestyles, interests and behaviour can be categorised. Important in the study of consumer behaviour is that social class influences how people spend their time, how they select their products, and where and how they acquire goods. Consumers tend to associate brands of products and services with specific social classes.

(iii) Personal influences

Personal influence by individuals with whom consumers associate often plays an important role in decision-making, especially when there are high levels of involvement and perceived risk and the product or service has public visibility. This influence can occur in the form of pressures to conform to group norms, a desire for psychological association or the acceptance of advice from opinion leaders.

(iv) Family

The family is an important focus of research, since it is often the primary decision-making unit. It has unique roles and functions, often resulting in simultaneous co-operation and conflict. Moreover, family members often act as both buyers and users of products in the household.

Family members may have different roles, including the initiator (individual thinking about buying products and gathering information to assist in decision), influencer (individual whose opinions are important in decision to buy), decider (individual with the financial authority to decide on patterns of spending), buyer (individual handling the purchasing of products), and user (individual using the product). The influence of spouses, children or other family members varies depending on the financial resources of family members, the type of product, the life cycle stage of the family, and the buying decision stage. These variables are important in understanding family decision-making.

(v) Situation

According to the EBM model, the final environmental influence impacting on consumer behaviour is that of the situation or context, since behaviour changes as situations change. Marketers often capitalise on situational influences to influence consumer behaviour. It is important to consider each situation because changes impact on consumers and can make them unpredictable. Retrenchments from work, for example, result in reduced spending, or a new baby may result in the purchasing of different types of products.

Consumer situations can be divided into three main types, namely communication, purchase, and usage situations. *Communication situations* can be defined as those settings where the consumer is exposed to personal or non-personal communication. Personal communication may be viewed as conversations consumers might have with other individuals, while non-personal communication would involve a variety of marketing or consumer communication messages.

Purchase situations refer to those contexts in which consumers acquire products or services. The purchase situation can affect consumer behaviour through influences arising from the information environment, the retail environment and the influence of time.

The information environment, which refers to the product information available, also influences the purchasing situation. Characteristics of the information environment may include the availability of information, the amount of information provided and the mediums through which information is presented and organised.

The retail environment refers to the physical or tangible properties which a retailer can control, such as store atmosphere for instance, music, layout, colours, point-of-purchase materials and salespeople.

The influence of time is an important aspect of situational influence, since the demand for many products is highly time sensitive, for example during the Christmas season. Other time influences may include the events before the purchase, for instance the urgency of the purchase, time passed since the last purchase or the time left until payday.

Usage situation refers to those settings in which consumption of the product or service occurs. The social context that characterise a usage situation can have an important influence on consumer behaviour.

C. Psychological processes

Finally, the psychological processes in the EBM model comprise the decision-making process behaviour of consumers which, in conjunction with the environmental influences and individual differences, forms a complete consumer behaviour and decision model. The decision-making process in the EBM model comprises the following components: need recognition, search for information, information processing, pre-purchase alternative evaluation, purchase, consumption and post-purchase alternative evaluation as well as divestment.

(i) Need recognition

The initial stage of the decision-making process is need recognition, which occurs when the consumer senses a difference between what is perceived as an ideal state of affairs compared to the actual state at any point in time. Need recognition is therefore a state of desire that initiates a decision-making process that occurs throughout the interaction of individual differences and environmental influences.

(ii) Search for information

The next stage of the decision-making process is internal search into memory to determine whether enough is known about options to allow a decision to be made without further information searches. An external search will usually follow if there is not sufficient information available. Individual differences and environmental influences affect the tendency to engage in external search. For example, some consumers are cautious and unwilling to purchase products without searching extensive and detailed information, whereas others may purchase products without comparing alternatives.

External sources used when searching for information are categorised as either being marketer dominated or other. Marketer dominated sources refer to any activities by suppliers

for the purpose of providing information or persuasion, including for example advertising and point-of-sale material. "Other" external sources of information include for instance, word-of-mouth from other individuals, product rating and consumer reports.

(iii) Information processing

Information processing includes the following steps:

Exposure, as a first step, occurs from physical proximity to information and persuasive communication that allows the opportunity for one of more senses to be activated.

Attention to information will most likely occur if the incoming message and its contents are considered relevant. At this stage of the process, consumers may ignore marketing-dominated messages, thereby using their capabilities of selected attention.

The third stage of information processing, **comprehension**, is concerned with the interpretation of a received stimulus and analysed against categories of meaning stored in memory. The marketer hopes for accurate comprehension of the message.

Acceptance, the fourth stage of information processing, refers to the persuasive effect of a message stimulus. If the message is accepted, this persuasiveness may be reflected by influencing knowledge, attitudes, and even changes in consumer beliefs and attitudes.

The final step in the process is **retention**, where the objective of the marketer will be for this new information to be accepted and stored in memory for future use.

It is important for the marketer to note that the message will only be accepted if the information is relevant for the individual in terms of his or her motivations and needs.

(iv) Pre-purchase alternative evaluation

The third stage of the EBM model refers to the pre-purchase alternative evaluation, which can be defined as the process through which alternatives are considered, evaluated and selected to meet the consumer's needs.

Evaluation criteria are particular features or attributes that are used to decide between different options, such as price, brand name and country of origin. The evaluative criteria depend on different situational, product and individual factors.

(v) Purchase

Purchasing takes place in either a retail facility or at home, and often there is a need for more information from a professional salesperson. The decision and evaluation process does not necessarily take place at the point of purchase.

(vi) Consumption and post-consumption alternative evaluation

Recently, marketers have become more interested in how consumers *consume* goods, in contrast to the main concern of marketers in the buying behaviour. A shift toward customer satisfaction and retention has taken place, and therefore marketers should also focus on ensuring consumer satisfaction with the purchase and the consumption of products in an effort to retain consumers. Marketers need to focus on obtaining intimate knowledge of how products are used, consumed and disposed of.

The consumer continuously evaluate the product or service during consumption and this will lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The EBM model indicates the importance of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the purchase and consumption of a product, where satisfaction provides feedback to pre-purchase alternative evaluation by means of reinforced buyer loyalty, assisting the consumer with future alternative evaluation and choice, whereas dissatisfaction can lead to complaints, negative word-of-mouth and a need for external search for information on alternatives.

(vii) Divestment

The final stage of the decision-making process model is divestment, where the consumer decides on options such as the disposal or recycling of the product or marketing the product again.

3.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF CONSUMER TRENDS

The decision-making process of the EBM model of consumer behaviour (see 3.4.1) is influenced by **environmental influences** such as culture, social class, personal influence, family and situation, as well as **individual differences**, namely consumer resources, motivation and involvement, knowledge, attitudes, personality, values and lifestyle.

The nature of the consumer trends identifiable among certain market segments are directly influenced by these environmental influences and individual differences. All these influences and differences may have implications for the marketer (some more than others, depending

on the type of product or service), and are therefore directly applicable when developing marketing strategies. From a marketing perspective, Armstrong and Kotler (2005:95) elaborate that cultural characteristics, namely institutions and forces that affect a community's values, perceptions, preferences and behaviours, can also have an influence on individuals' marketing decisions.

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:39) describe market segmentation as the process of designing or featuring a product or service that it will make a particularly strong appeal to some identifiable section of a total market. Many variables can be used to segment a market, such as categories, geographic, demographic, psychographic, and behavioural variables. Geography variables may refer to the study of demand related to geographic areas, including state, provinces and countries. Demographic variables refer to the study of the size, structure, and distribution of a population. Psychographic variables were defined as the actions, interests and opinions of consumers (see Section 3.4.1) and behavioural variables may include consumer benefit, extent of product or service use and loyalty and usage situation. This study focus on consumer trends with an emphasis on the variables of demographics and psychographics/lifestyle.

According to Assael (2004:280) lifestyle variables are defined by how people spend their time (activities), what they consider important in their environment (interests) and what they think of themselves and the world around them (opinions). Lifestyle factors are relevant to marketers on two levels:

- (i) Broad lifestyle trends, such as changing male/female purchasing roles, have altered the habits, tastes, and purchasing behaviour of consumers.
- (ii) Lifestyles can be applied on a product-specific basis. For instance, *Weigh Less* has identified the needs of a health-oriented consumer to better understand the needs of this group by creating support groups and a range of low-fat products.

Assael (2004:280) concludes that lifestyle characteristics specific to certain consumers and product categories must be defined and measured if they are to be useful to marketers. In this regard, the South African Advertising Research Foundation (SAARF) Universal Lifestyle Measurement (LSM) is a unique means of segmenting the South African market to assist marketers. This measure is a multivariate segmentation tool constructed from 29 individual variables (SAARF 2005).

Because of the particular focus of this research study, the LSM groups will not be used since particular variables identified by the SAARF, will also have to be included in the measurement instrument to draw any correlation. An analysis of this effect is recommended for further studies.

From an organisational perspective, Kresch, Boyd and Haller (1983) emphasise that an analysis of consumer trends can be a powerful strategic tool for determining how and where to allocate resources. It can assist in identifying corporate strengths and opportunities, unify corporate objectives, and serve as a point of departure for the management of technology, new product development, acquisitions and marketing.

An important task for marketers is to understand how groups of consumers (segments of the total) vary from other consumers and how these behavioural differences affect segmented marketing programmes of organisations (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard 1995:39). When a marketer are informed about how consumers vary they will have more insight into ways they can adapt their marketing programmes to address these consumer segments. Armstrong and Kotler (2005:96) emphasise that it should be important for marketers to predict changes in society in order to see new opportunities or threats. In the following section the ten consumer trends identified by Faith Popcorn in 1991, will be discussed.

3.5.1 The consumer trends by Faith Popcorn

Faith Popcorn started a marketing consultancy firm in 1974 called *BrainReserve*. Her firm offers a variety of services including *BrandRenewal*, which helps organisations to breathe new life into fading brands; *BrainJam*, which uses the trends as a background to generating new ideas; *FutureFocus*, which provides marketing strategies and concepts that create long-term competitive advantage; and the *TrendBank*, a database of *BrainReserve's* trend information including culture monitoring and consumer interviews (Popcorn 1991:11; 191-196).

According to Kotler (2003:29) a major source of ideas can come from futurists such as Alvin Toffler, John Naisbet and Faith Popcorn and the trends they have identified. Faith Popcorn became famous for her creative labelling of the trends, including *Anchoring* (religion, yoga), *Being Alive* (vegetarianism, meditation), *Cashing Out*, *Clanning*, *Cocooning*, *Down-Aging*, *Fantasy Adventure*, *99 Lives* (multitasking), *Pleasure Revenge*, *Small Indulgences* and *Vigilante Consumer*. Faith Popcorn would consult major American companies on how aligned the organisation's strategy is with these major trends, and would often tell an organisation that it was "off-trend" in several ways.

According to Kotler (2003:30) the main objective of marketing is to observe consumers' needs and to aim to fulfil them. The organisation identifies needs by listening to or interviewing customers and then prepares an appropriate solution to fulfil each need. In today's world organisations provide answers to most customers' needs.

Additional needs will be created even if existing needs are satisfied. Kotler (2003:31) points out that certain events in the world can stimulate new needs. The tragedy of 11 September 2001 increased the need for improved security in the air, food supply and transportation in America. Certain trends can create new needs, such as the interest in *Down-Aging*. As people get older they want to feel and look younger, and this leads to buying behaviour that results in feelings of youth. Successful marketers must attempt to anticipate the next need and not only confine their attention to existing needs (Kotler 2003:30-31).

In Chapter 1 an introduction was provided to Faith Popcorn's ten trends as discussed in her work *The Popcorn Report* (1991). In her next work, *The Popcorn Report: Faith Popcorn on the Future of Your Company, Your World, Your Life* (1992), she discusses the same ten trends, but adds new insights and developments to these trends that she has gained since she wrote her book in 1991. The fact that the same trends have developed over a period of one year illustrates that consumer trends are not static and changes as time continues. It was decided to include these original ten trends in the study, since her later works still included the same trends (Popcorn 2008).

In their book, *Clicking: 16 Trends to future fit your life, your work, and your business*, the authors Popcorn and Marigold (1996:4-5) describe "clicking" as (an individual or organisation) being prepared to be synchronised with what is in store for the future. Organisations that would like to profit from understanding their consumers, need to be flexible. One has to discover new paths to follow towards a more successful life and career. The trends that they describe are a way to look at the growth markets of the future and help spark ideas for large or small successful organisations or those legions of people who have created blueprints (on paper or in their dreams) for starting their own businesses. According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:13) neither life nor the trends have remained unchanged in the years since *The Popcorn Report*. Yearly new trends were added to these existing trends. This will be discussed in 3.5.2.

Another book, namely *EVEvolution: The eight truths of marketing to women*, were written by Popcorn and Marigold in 2000. Their focus was on the trend that the way women think and behave is impacting on business and causing a marketing shift away from a hierarchical

model towards a relational one (Popcorn & Marigold 2000:x). The specific scope of this study, however, excludes the content of this book and it will not be discussed further in this dissertation.

The trends identified by Popcorn and Marigold are shaping the American society and will continue to shape it in future. In their publications, Popcorn and her co-author Marigold discussed each trend by means of providing examples of the trend, and they also present new ideas of what needs to be done to communicate their marketing messages effectively (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:12-13).

According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:33-34) trend knowledge is invaluable to successful marketers, to enable them to anticipate consumer behaviour, offering consumers products or services before consumers have identified their needs. The consumer trends, however, do not apply to people from all economic backgrounds. If a region or country is under severe economic constraints, the consumers cannot be considered an active and viable part of the market segment where these trends are identifiable. Otherwise, the authors declare that the trends are not only national (in the USA), but global in scope. Wright (2006:392) adds that a wealthy consumer will long for more emotional and lifestyle benefits in products and services, in addition to merely functional (food, clothes, shelter) benefits. Therefore it can be said that an economically active person will be more likely to demonstrate the consumer trends.

The Maslow Hierarchy of Needs discussed in Chapter 2 can also be applicable in this instance, since the most basic needs must first be fulfilled before more complex needs can be identified and fulfilled.

Using the trends as a "screen" can prevent marketers from making wrong marketing decisions. The authors illustrate the reasons why marketers should follow the trends by providing examples of how other organisations have used the trends as a tool in their marketing ventures. The trends can provide a guide for marketers to improve their strategies (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:34).

According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:34) their trends provide marketers with a clear profile of the marketplace, describing both which consumer activities are starting to happen and what will be happening in the future. The trends serve as early predictors of how people are feeling, what new products and services will be sought after (as well as which ones will be rejected), and where any present shortcomings in need fulfilment are located. Success is ensured by having a clear picture of the future.

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:34-36) draw a distinction between trends and fads. A fad can be defined as a quick trick to make money, but as soon as it has become fashionable, the fad is over, for example clothing fashions that come and go. On the other hand, trends are inclusive and broad. In other words, these trends can pertain to a wide target audience and cover various product and service categories. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:36) propose that if **four or more trends** are evident in an organisational or marketing communication plan, it promises to be successful in reaching the target audience. In cases where the product or service is applicable to three or less trends, the chance is great that the marketer is picking up on a fad, or reaching a small segment of the marketplace.

To illustrate how the trends are made relevant to products or services, Popcorn and Marigold (1996:36) provide the example of a herb gardening business. The trends that support a business in herbs are *Cocooning* (people staying home, improving their nest, weekend chefs); *Fantasy Adventure* (herbs are still considered somewhat exotic, non-threatening outdoor adventure); *Cashing Out* (a quest for the simple life, realness); *Being Alive* (herbs are good for you, part of growing interest in holistic alternatives); *Anchoring* (a return to spirituality and a knowledge of the past, other cultures' reliance on herbology); and a less important "fit" with *Ergonomics* (herbs can make things individualistic); *Female Think* (women have always cleverly used them for cooking, perfuming, and curing ills); *Small Indulgences* (they add something nice for little pocket change); and finally, *SOS* (environmentally correct). In the above-mentioned example, a marketer could be sure that a great number of trends are identifiable (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:36-37).

According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:43), a trend cannot be created by an individual such as a marketer, but can only be observed. Marketers cannot change a trend, but only consumers' minds about believing in and acting on the trends. Trends are lines of energy. *BrainReserve*, Popcorn's futurist marketing company, isolates these lines to make them easier to identify, but each consumer is affected in some way by all these trends.

The art is in predicting trends, scanning the current culture for signs of the future. Indicators of these trends are everywhere in the world surrounding the consumer – in restaurants, bars and clubs; on the streets; in the music listened to; in the magazines read; or even television programmes watched. Marketers should take note of the messages conveyed by governments and what type of products or services businesses are selling (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:43).

Faith Popcorn and her company make use of different methods to determine which trends are relevant to consumers' future, for instance regular consultations with a panel of experts in different fields, called a *TrendBank*; regular interviews with about 4 000 consumers annually on twenty different product categories; reading approximately 350 publications monthly in several languages; attending movies/theatre/concerts; listening to the most popular music, keeping up with the best-seller list; and brainstorming new ideas with their staff, clients, and the panel of thousands of experts across the world. These activities assist them in determining the "culture" and become the basis for *BrainReserve's* advice on how marketers can adapt for the future (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:47).

The practical implication of these trends is that if marketers study the culture, they will obtain the skill to identify early indicators of change in consumer behaviour. Marketers must capitalise on these trends. Unforeseen crisis, for instance an energy shortage, a natural disaster (hurricanes, earthquakes etc.), or a war may cause minor alterations in the trends. These temporary circumstances, however, do not cause permanent influences in trends. Trends are viewed as long-term since they continue for an average of ten years or longer, long enough to base business decisions on. Marketers can rely on the integrity of the trends to interpret the current climate and project into the decade and beyond (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:48).

The trends should be important to marketers to find ideas that can support their products or services to be more profitable. Even though certain products or services are currently available, marketers can obtain creative suggestions from the trends and determine how to improve their offering to satisfying the consumer (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:48-49).

Faith Popcorn's trends are clearly in evidence in South Africa (Anon. 1993). There are for instance, publications that are obviously in par with the trends of Popcorn. The South African magazine *Getaway*, probably the most successful magazine launched in the last four years (since 1993), is in synch with at least five Popcorn trends – *Fantasy Adventure*, *Being Alive*, *Cashing Out*, *Wildering* and *Save our Society*. Another publication launched in the 1990s, *House and Leisure*, was targeted firmly at *cocoons*. On the other hand, Flatters (2004) writes from a United Kingdom perspective that research has shown that there are major trends influencing how the British Standards Institution must set standards to meet consumer needs. It can be pointed out that the trends described by Flatters (2004) illustrate interesting similarities to Faith Popcorn's consumer trends of *Egonomics*, *Fantasy Adventure*, *Cocooning* and *Vigilante Consumer*.

In the following section, Faith Popcorn's ten trends identified in 1991 will be discussed in more detail. Each trend will be discussed by providing information from her 1991 book, as well as insights available from later works.

3.5.1.1 Trend 1: Cocooning

According to Popcorn (1991:27) the trend of *Cocooning* was first predicted in the late seventies. The word *Cocooning* has become such a part of the American psyche that it entered both the national and international consumer vocabulary. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:29) defines this stay-at-home trend as a reflection of the consumer's strong desire to build comfortable environments in order to protect themselves from what is perceived as harsh and unpredictable realities of the outside world. Assael (2004:291) adds that the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks in America reinforced a more home-oriented lifestyle. Many consumers felt safe staying at home among friends and relatives rather than travelling or going to entertainment events. Characteristics of *Cocooning* may include the desire for insulation, avoidance, peace, protection, cosiness and control – to be protected against harassments, assaults (physical and emotional), recession, and AIDS (Popcorn 1991:28-29).

Early indicators of the *Cocooning* trend were that consumers were moving from a "going out" lifestyle to that of retreating and staying at home when they wanted to escape. People began to buy more home entertainment products, comfort foods, delivery services and pets. Consumers also had a major preoccupation with remodelling and redecorating their homes (Popcorn 1991:28). According to Popcorn (1992:202) money spent on home improvements or remodelling had increased with 6% from 1991 to 1992. The growing trend of home-improvement is also supported by Celente (1998). To illustrate a similar interest, the South African consumer has a selection of home-improvement, gardening and decorating magazines to choose from, for instance *Tuis*, *TuinPaleis*, *Home Owner*, *Elle Decorating*, *Condé Nast Home and Garden*, *Garden and Home*, *The Gardener* and *SA Gardening*.

Popcorn (1991:29) reports that *Cocooning* has evolved as a consumer trend through the decades. The consumer is going into emotional as well as physical withdrawal. People started screening their telephone calls, and in the 2000s it has become very easy to identify callers on a land line or cell phone.

Popcorn (1991:29) identifies four new developments, namely the *Armored Cocoon*, the *Wandering Cocoon*, the *Socialised Cocoon* and *Cocooning at the Office*. *Cocooning* is not exclusively about the home, but about a state of mind, namely self-preservation.

(i) The armored cocoon

An indicator of the trend of the *armored cocoon* is that of gun ownership that rose with 53% between 1983 and 1986, to more than 12 million in America. The number of women who were considering buying a weapon quadrupled. Popcorn (1991:29) postulates that one should look for major growth in the “paranoia” industries: home security systems, anti-snooping devices, computer watchdog systems linked to private guards and emergency help. In middle and upper class areas in South Africa, a large number of houses are surrounded by 6-foot walls, some with electrical fencing, remote controlled gates and garage doors and house alarm systems. Some neighbourhoods are built in security areas. An additional effective method to protect the consumer’s cocoon is the use of guard dogs (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:55): in South Africa the breeding of larger breeds of dogs, for instance the boerbull, has become a profitable business.

According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:51-54) the trend of *Cocooning* has changed in the 1990s: where consumers once *cocooned* because it was fun, they now *cocoon* out of fear. It is almost impossible to move from *cocoon* to *cocoon* without tension. When South African motorists drive in certain areas, they venture out carefully to avoid falling prey to crime. Places in consumers’ lives where they once felt secure have all disappeared. Violence (on the roads, in schools, at workplaces, at homes) has risen sharply in the 1990s, and continues to rise in the 2000s.

According to Popcorn (1991:30) the marketer must note that the *armored cocoon* is not merely a physical environment, but to respond to this trend marketers must shift their focus away from traditional means of access to the consumer – both physically and emotionally – and into the *cocoon*. Marketers must not expect consumers to approach the organisation anymore. Organisations will have to reach them in the *cocoon* itself.

(ii) The wandering cocoon

Popcorn (1991:30) noticed that consumers had the tendency to see their vehicles as a continuation of their *cocoons* at home. Cars became more comfortable and personalised, since drive time became a “protected escape”. The author also adds that even airlines must create a feeling of *cocooning* in their aircrafts by informing passenger of the aircraft’s maintenance schedule.

As a consumer’s home-away-from-home, a car is something to be protected from harm (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:54-55). In South Africa, the vehicle tracking system has become

a necessity for individuals and business owners. To “get your own back” has become important, since insurance cannot always refund the “value” that was lost. New models of cars are equipped with immobilisers, alarm systems and even anti-hijacking technology.

Snider (2004) elaborates on the *cocoon* trend of Popcorn, by saying that people are seeking a sanctuary during their commutes. Apple iPods shut out the noise of the outside world, and in cars, vehicle guidance systems keep the consumer from getting lost. Consumers want life on their terms as much as they can.

(iii) The socialised cocoon

Cocooning can also be viewed as a new way of connecting with other individuals. Entertainment at home has become very popular, and consumers select their company to enjoy *cocooning* activities at home. For instance, traditionally people enjoyed going out to bars to have a drink, but it seems that nowadays a large number of people enjoy having friends over to their homes for drinks (Popcorn 1992:202). Snider (2004) adds that people enjoy having friends over to enjoy their homes, as well as having their children socialise at home, in order for them to protect them from outside harm.

According to Snider (2004) signs that people are seeking a sanctuary at home may include the tendency towards incorporating restaurant-style kitchens, luxury spas and big-screen television equipment in their homes. He estimates that the average consumer would spend 78 hours watching movies at home in 2004, versus 13 hours at theatres.

(iv) Cocooning at the office

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:58-59) provide an example of *cocooning at the office* of Ameritech Consumer Services in America, where soothing sounds can be heard when entering their offices. The look of the business is residential with stuffed furniture, a small dining room, a work-at-home area, and a home entertainment centre. Likewise, at the NWU, a residential house on campus has been renovated to house the offices of the Department of Marketing and Communication. The offices have their own lounge area with leather couches, an outside entertainment area and a private garden for employees and clients.

Assael (2004:292) proposes that an additional dimension of a more home-oriented consumer is the greater opportunities for working at home, made possible by the information revolution. Some organisations even employ staff members who work from home via the Internet to save time and to free employees from non-productive office distractions.

In Anon. (1993) it is evident that South Africans are tending to cocoon in their homes. In Retief (2006) a well-known South African author and public speaker, Dr Graeme Godrington, explains that the borders between the home and workplace have faded, or even fallen away. With an outdoor living culture as in South Africa, flexible working hours have become more popular. Codrington also suggests that a work/life balance is not really possible since the working environment has become too dynamic and too demanding. A person must become part of this working environment if he/she would like to achieve, and there is a work/life integration where work and personal life form one entity (Retief 2006). The trend of *99 Lives* is also illustrated by this phenomenon (see 3.5.1.9).

Armstrong and Kotler (2005:97) discuss a different viewpoint and explain that observers in the United States of America have noted a shift from a “me society” to a “we society” in recent years, where people are venturing out of the “cocoon” to socialise and interact with other people. Armstrong and Kotler (2005:97) postulate that this could lead to a greater demand for products and services that support social actions between people, such as health clubs or family holidays.

It could be inferred that the trend of *Cocooning* was more noticeable for some years and for some years less noticeable in society. Marketers need to be aware of this tendency to adapt their campaigns accordingly. *Cocooning* is a trend that emerged in the 1980s (Armstrong & Kotler 2005:97) and which still persist today.

3.5.1.2 Trend 2: Fantasy Adventure

Fantasy Adventure is the second trend identified by Popcorn (1991:34). It refers to the seeking of a mechanism to relieve stress in an imaginative and adventurous way, but without any risks involved, for instance playing video games, travelling or visiting a fun park. According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:79) the *Fantasy Adventure* trend relies more on the adventurous flights of fantasy than on the great risk of high adventure.

Fantasy Adventure can be the experiencing of different foods, such as foods made from exotic spices, or foods originally from different countries (Popcorn 1992:203-204). Another manifestation is the booming four-wheel-drive vehicle business, where vehicles originally designed for sand dunes and mountains are now driving on our city roads (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:80-81). South African examples include anything from wearing a *Jeep* hiking jacket to work or driving a *Harley Davidson* in Sandton during rush hour.

(i) Wildering

A newer form of the *Fantasy Adventure* trend is *Wildering*. As a subcategory of *Fantasy Adventure*, *Wildering* deals with the modern person's desire to break away from everyday life to test themselves against nature. Consumers have the desire to experience adventures in nature, but would also like to have access to the luxuries of home (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:81). Many South African travellers enjoy adventure trips to Kilimanjaro. The hiking trails are difficult and the terrain tough to overcome, but guides carry their tents and food to the camping site, where everything is prepared for the traveller in advance – therefore the luxuries of home are available away from home. Adventure sports, for instance bungee jumping, abseiling, quadbiking, etc. have become very popular in South Africa. South Africans are heading for the great outdoors in their four-by-fours to an increasing degree (Anon. 1993).

Certain adventurous computer games are very popular, where consumers can act out their dreams in a very real environment, but without any harm (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:86). However, some ways of escaping to a different world can be more dangerous, such as using drugs (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:87).

Examples of *Fantasy Adventure* (Anon. 1993) in South Africa include the *Lost City* in *Sun City*, *Ratanga Junction* (the amusement park in Cape Town), and events such as the *Big Shot Show* in Johannesburg (an exhibition event for the hunter and gun owner). Fragrances that reminds us of exotic places and people, such as *Havana* cologne from *Aramis*.

3.5.1.3 Trend 3: Small Indulgences

Another trend, labelled *Small Indulgences*, can be defined as consumers finding ways to reward themselves with affordable luxuries (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:30). Consumers do not have a great deal of job security. They are not sure whether their skills will remain marketable or that their pension funds will be sufficient when they retire. Therefore consumers feel entitled to a degree of ego gratification, and feel that they can reward themselves with affordable products or services of good quality (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:114).

According to Popcorn (1991:39-41) consumers have always enjoyed rewarding themselves, but now a sense of entitlement has developed. Consumers are desiring an emotional reward by acquiring items that do not overextend their finances. The trend is about choosing one small category in the consumer's life, and buying the best that can be afforded, for instance

buying cheese at a gourmet food shop, regular visits to a beauty salon, designer shoes, or as Popcorn (1992:206) adds, handmade jewellery or aromatherapy sessions. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:115) also cite examples like fresh bread, flavoured coffee, or an overnight stay in a pretty guest house. The “small indulgence” is experienced as a product or service of quality, rather than a desire for quantity.

A developing variant of the trend, according to Popcorn (1991:42), is “indulging at a discount”, which is a direct evolution of the “quality-at-any-price undercurrent” of *Small Indulgences*. Consumers are looking for the best quality at the best price they can find to result in a feeling of instant gratification. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:122) also propose that consumers experience satisfaction when they are able to combine quality and convenience by buying at affordable shops. Even if the economic environment is prosperous, consumers still experience uncertainty, and therefore the niche market created by *Small Indulgences* will remain profitable in future.

3.5.1.4 Trend 4: Egonomics

Egonomics entail the trend that consumers are striving to be acknowledged as individuals, different and unique, and they enjoy products which are customised and accompanied by excellent personal service (Popcorn 1991:43-44). Popcorn and Marigold (1996:30) point out that the development can be viewed as a direct response to the sterile computer era, and a move towards making a personal statement.

Marketers need to focus on the consumer's need for personalisation with regard to product concept, product design, the possibility of rendering a customisation service, or personal service. *Egonomics* shift the emphasis from the organisation's priorities to those of the consumer. The consumer would like to view the product or service as an extension of his/her ego, a method to express him/herself (Popcorn 1991:44).

Examples of *Egonomics* may include the selection of a specific magazine according to the consumer's preference, watching specific channels on TV, joining a specific religious or special interest group, clothes being designed individually, shoes “custom-fitted” to consumers' feet, “built-to-your-body” bicycles, “custom-blended” cosmetics, customised home furnishings, etc. (Popcorn 1991:47-49). Popcorn and Marigold (1996:155-157) have also found that individuals would like to express themselves more by following art classes, writing poetry or novels.

Consumers now reveal more about themselves by being honest about divorce, incest, sexual harassment, alcoholism, facelifts, breast cancer etc. – possibly in an attempt to establish their individuality. Tattoos have also become popular to customise the body (Popcorn 1992:208-209). Technology will continue to play a major role in *Egonomics*, for instance using a computer to assist in choosing wall paint colours for one's home.

In 1996, Popcorn and Marigold commented that *Egonomics* can be observed in a variety of products and services. *Egonomics* can be viewed as the integration of business and personal life: shops' business hours are adapted to the schedules of their customers; products are developed with the consumer in mind; or organisations are creating interactive ways to communicate with their customers (for instance toll-free numbers) (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:146).

The application of the trend of *Egonomics* in business, can be viewed as an extension of a customer-centric approach. For instance, clients exercising at *Virgin Active* gyms can also enjoy healthy snacks and drinks afterwards in a cosy health bar. The company thought of ways to make going to the gym more pleasant, and determined that consumers would like to be able to enjoy healthy refreshments. According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:149) the correct application of *Egonomics* enables an organisation to turn a consumer problem into a profit, while gaining customer loyalty. Another example in Popcorn and Marigold (1996:153) is the unique approach of *Virgin Atlantic Airways*, who offer massage and reflexology therapy on their flights. It is obvious that the quality of the basic airline service should also be in place before any extras will impress customers.

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:157) suggest that consumers are striving towards the recognition of their individuality by means of self-actualisation, self-awareness and self-definition. Marketers who realise the importance of *Egonomics* and would like to prosper, must formulate marketing communication messages to magnify a person's sense of self-worth.

Armstrong and Kotler (2005:96-97) point out that in more recent years a shift has taken place from self-indulgence and materialism to consumers adopting more conservative behaviours and ambitions. Armstrong and Kotler (2005:97) explain that consumers are spending money on products and services that improve their lives instead of boosting their images. Marketers should take note of the need for products or services that add true value to people's lives instead of adding glamour. Armstrong and Kotler's (2005:96-97) viewpoint on

this matter can perhaps be linked to Popcorn's (1991) trend of *Being Alive* (see 3.5.1.7), with the emphasis on the consumer's well-being.

3.5.1.5 Trend 5: *Cashing Out*

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:30) define *Cashing Out* as the trend of working women and men, while questioning the intrinsic value of their high-powered careers, opting for more fulfilment in a simpler way of living. American consumers are striving towards a life more worthwhile and rewarding than the rushed lives they are living, by wanting to give up the fast-track and "move to the country", or to buy things that remind them of a better life, for instance hiking boots or an off-road vehicle. This low-keyed trend recognises that quality of life is more important than the position held at a company. Popcorn (1992:210) also notes that the ongoing recession in America has pushed many corporate type persons into becoming instant entrepreneurs. Popcorn (1996:227-237) draws a distinction between different manifestations of cashing out, namely cashing out to the cocoon and cashing out to the country.

(i) Cashing out to the cocoon

In early years, consumers were drawn away from their homes by factories. When the Industrial Revolution was replaced by the Age of Information, the office took the place of the factory. There is a tendency for more individuals to work from their homes on a part-time or fulltime basis. Some organisations are also creating more relaxing work environments by dressing more informally, or opting for flexible hours. Organisations can even allow some of their staff to work from home (Popcorn 1991:51-55). This tendency is described as *Cashing out to the cocoon*. In South Africa a large number of employees are forced to *cash out* after retrenchments when large organisations are compelled to transform for political reasons. These individuals have the opportunity to become entrepreneurs in small businesses, perhaps from home. This trend has evolved to a greater level over the years (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:224). Consumers have a lack of trust in the corporate life, and technology has made it easier to create home offices. More young women opt for starting their own businesses from home, since the expenses for high-quality childcare are very high. In America being a stay-at-home mother has become a status symbol (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:228).

Home-based business owners are a huge market of potential customers in America and they have unique needs, for instance specialised insurance for computers, custom e-mail packages, etc. (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:231).

Smaller businesses, where opportunities seem unlimited, are flourishing in the American economy. More individuals, even top professionals, are following their hearts to start low-stressed businesses. The editor of the magazine *Simple Living* in America, for instance, who has a law degree but chooses to spread the word about consuming less and enjoying life more (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:225-226).

(ii) Cashing out to the country

According to Popcorn (1991:53) and Popcorn and Marigold (1996:233-236) some consumers have the desire to move to the country with its promise of safety, comfort and old-fashioned values. If consumers cannot make the real move, they opt for other activities, such as camping, bird watching, gardening, a vacation at a farm resort, or buying off-road vehicles. Other examples may include outdoor clothes, returning to church, decorating homes and gardens in a country style, or listening to music which reflects the consumer's culture. A number of professionals are also venturing into farming as a second income. The success of South African magazines such as *Weg*, *Getaway* and *Country Life* make it apparent that people are looking for an escape from their daily urban lives. Cremer (2007) writes that some people have realised the value of simpler lives, and that it explains the growing demand for smaller homes in tranquil areas to suit the needs of people who no longer wish to be part of the nine-to-five rush of everyday life.

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:231) estimate that the trend of *Cashing Out*, like *Cocooning*, will become even more popular over the next few years. Large numbers of consumers desire a life that is easier, happier, simpler and filled with personal satisfaction (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:237).

3.5.1.6 Trend 6: Down-Aging

Popcorn's sixth trend is known as *Down-Aging*. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:30) define *Down-Aging* as the nostalgia for a carefree childhood which let consumers introduce a new sense of lightness into their often-too-serious adult lives. This trend involves accepting the reality of ageing, but reviving the child in one's self by taking part in life almost in a child-like way. Popcorn (1991:56) stresses that the population is becoming older, as is clear from demographic statistics. Minding the fact that a larger portion of the community is older, there

is a refusal to be bound by traditional age limitations. Most importantly, however, there is a concern for health and longevity among consumers, and products that satisfy these needs are in demand (Popcorn 1991:57). Examples of *Down-Aging* include the accelerated research in anti-aging skin care ranges; supplements claiming to improve memory (Popcorn 1991:58); 80-year-old marathon runners; women having children over the age of 40; the variety of books on ageing gracefully; an increase in plastic surgery; *Coca-Cola* with their advertising motto of namely *Always Coca-Cola*; and retro clothes (Popcorn 1996:264-274). Popcorn (1991:59) argues that *Down-Aging* also entails redefining-down the idea of age: 40 now is what 30 used to be; 50 is now what 40 used to be; and 65 is now the beginning of the second half of one's life, not the beginning of the end.

Popcorn (1991:60) feels that the USA, and also most other countries, are in search of a good time. *Down-Aging* is the means by which adults try to reconnect to their carefree childhoods, rather than the more serious adulthood in which they find themselves. Adults wear cartoon pyjamas to bed, buy board games they played as children for their own children (*Monopoly* or *Cluedo*) and play video games. Although there is a direct nostalgia value in all of this, *Down-Aging* entails more than simple nostalgia. People are chasing after the promise and hope of childhood, whereas earlier generations drew a distinct line between the pleasures, pursuits, and purchases that were appropriate for childhood and those that were appropriate for adults.

Popcorn (1991:61) stresses that, as with all other escapist trends, there is also a darker side to *Down-Aging*: a consumer fear about the very real threats to a safe and prosperous future. Sufficient money for retirement is by far the greatest financial concern for people aged 35 to 49. With *Down-Aging*, the consumer is refusing to grow up and to accept adulthood, even only for brief periods each day, and they try to do things that make them feel young again.

Popcorn (1991:57-58) notes that there has been a reinterpretation of the concept of aging, and that less emphasis is placed on the negative aspects of aging. These consumers demand products and services to suit their changing needs. Marketers, Popcorn (1991:61) continues, can see opportunities in all products and services that make the consumer feel better, make them laugh and make them have fun. Organisations can be sure that this generation will grow old with a stylish vengeance, putting in more energy into preventing aging, and into controlling the way growing old makes them feel, than any generation that came before.

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:65) remark that consumers whose chronologic age is older but who feel, think and buy young, are a rapidly growing market segment. Cognitive

age (the age one perceives oneself to be) is measured in terms of how people feel and act, express interests, and perceive their looks. According to Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995:60-70) the "young-again" market places emphasis on experiences such as travel, activities with persons in similar situations, and staying in touch (rather than acquiring material goods). In addition, physical qualities are also important in products purchased by mature markets, for instance comfort, security and convenience. They want convenience when they make use of banking or other services. An effective approach to marketing is to create affinities between the product and some interest of the mature generation, such as stressing the role of grandparenting. Popcorn (1992:213) concludes that if marketers think young, consumers will support the organisation's products or services.

3.5.1.7 Trend 7: Being Alive

The seventh trend, namely *Staying Alive* or *Being Alive* (as it was described in later works), entails the quest for health and a longer life and signifies negativity with regard to experts' opinions and the safety of products they have been using for years. The consumer is investigating the source of food supplies and also the ingredients of medicines. Alternatives are considered as the consumer is seeking for a better quality life (Popcorn 1991:62).

Examples of this "positive" trend include an underlying negativism that our foods can be dangerous to our health; exercise performed incorrectly can cause injuries; people are afraid of disease, especially those caused by an unhealthy lifestyle; harm can be caused by medicine; organic foods have become mainstream; foods can be engineered to act as preventative medicine; and the consumer makes use of alternative ways of staying healthy, such as homeopathy, reflexology, acupuncture, or herbology (Popcorn 1991:62-67).

Popcorn (1991:67) goes on to explain that the consumer will increasingly become in charge of his/her medical care. In South Africa, for instance, the health insurance company, *Discovery Health*, already rewards its clients for acting preventatively and staying healthy and fit. There is a collective awareness that consumers have to take care of themselves. Self-health care is a big future market, predicts Popcorn (1991:64).

In the years since Popcorn's book was published in 1991, Popcorn and Marigold (1996:239) noticed that there was a growing awareness that a new concept of "wellness" can add generous years of good health. A shift has taken place from merely *Staying Alive* to *Being Alive*, or enhancing the quality of their lives. They postulate that a new, integrated vision of health will be emerging, embracing a concept of wellness. Consumers will be eating foods that will foster the total package of physical, emotional, spiritual, and mental health. People

are already drinking certain beverages with this in mind: coffee for energy, herbal tea for relaxation and sports drinks for stamina. It is even envisaged that diets will be specifically designed to fit one's DNA to prevent disease (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:242-243).

According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:260) the trend of *Being Alive* is transforming by the day. As the discussion highlighted, there are a wide variety of places where this wellness trend can be noticed.

3.5.1.8 Trend 8: The Vigilante Consumer

The trend of the *Vigilante Consumer* presents a more inquisitive and sceptic consumer, not accepting the promises, poor quality and poor service organisations throw their way. Consumers are looking for a more "human" organisation, taking honest responsibility for their actions, for instance a record company taking social responsibility for the environment (Popcorn 1991:169). Popcorn and Marigold (1996:30) draw attention to the various ways the frustrated, often angry consumer can manipulate the marketplace through pressure, protest, and politics. As an example of the action of the *Vigilante Consumer*, Popcorn (1991:70) cites the case of a mother in the USA who persuaded four major corporations to withdraw their advertising from the time-slots during "Married... with children" as she considered it to be inappropriate for family viewing.

Popcorn describes how her firm first started tracking this new consumer behaviour in the late 1970s and early 1980s, which was then more about product quality. Consumers became their own product investigators, researching product quality before they made their choice. These consumers became tired of constantly investigating products for good quality and resentment grew towards organisations as they found products to be of poor quality. The *Nestlé* company were accused of providing Third World countries with powdered baby food that caused malnutrition; deadly pesticides were found on table grapes; and children's toys caused fatal injuries (Popcorn 1991:71-72). The underlying theme of the *Vigilante Consumer* is a lack of trust (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:281).

This lack of trust is also stressed by Armstrong and Kotler (2005:97), who discuss people's view of organisations as a cultural value that has changed over years. They support Popcorn (1991) and Popcorn and Marigold (1996) by reporting that in the late 1980s a decrease in confidence and loyalty levels were seen towards America's business and political organisations. After the downsizing in the 1990s people became cynical and distrustful. As a result people experienced their work as a mere means of earning money, and not as

satisfying. Armstrong and Kotler (2005:97) advise that organisations need to yet again win consumer and employee confidence. Edelman (2003) agrees that consumers have become more critical and sceptical towards authority figures (such as organisations), and expect greater information and engagement from brands.

Even in the 1990s consumers remained furious and Popcorn (1991:73) advised smart marketers to listen to consumers. As mentioned before, examples of this give consumers and organisations alike the opportunities to act as heroes. *Coca-Cola*, for instance, ignored the basic rule of customer relations by never really asking their consumers what they wanted. This resulted in the fiasco of *New Coke*. *Coke* responded quickly, however, and returned with *Coke Classic* after listening to the consumer, thereby mending the relationship.

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:283) argue that the *Vigilante Consumer* can also be seen as “warrior parents”, fighting for the well-being of their children and their futures. They provide examples of consumers boycotting organisations who do not act responsibly towards the consumer, community or environment. The consumer is acting against anything from standing unentertained in queues, unhealthy ingredients in food to pollution.

The consumer wants accountability from organisations, and demands to know who the person responsible for the organisation is. Markets are fast becoming niches, and as these niches grow smaller, consumers gain more stature. Marketers will have to act fast to revolutionise their packaging and distribution, detoxify their products and set standards for themselves that meet the standards of the consumer (Popcorn 1991:76). A South African example of the *Vigilante Consumer* is the consumer section in the newspaper *Rapport*, where the consumer writes to the newspaper about poor service or quality experienced, and the newspaper gives an opportunity to the organisations to respond. Another well-known example is the consumer advocate Isobel Jones, who was followed avidly by consumers, turning away from an old complacency to being assertive (Anon. 1993).

According to Popcorn (1991:76) gimmicks like “new” or “newly improved” on products will not sell a product to consumers anymore. What will make consumers buy is a feeling of a partnership with the seller, and a feeling that they are buying for the future. Guarantees will have a new and expanded meaning – when something goes wrong it must be fixed faster and a “loan” item will become standard in the case of phones, home faxes, computers and other essential items, as well as cars. Return policies will no longer punish the consumer for changing his/her mind.

The *Body Shop* is a well-known example of a company with an ethos of doing good, ranging from “no cruelty against animals” to aiding native projects in remote countries. According to Popcorn (1991:77) the first organisation in every product category to initiate such advantages will pull ahead and force its competitors to follow suit. The *Vigilante Consumer* will be dictating the organisation in the future, and no corporation can afford not to listen.

3.5.1.9 Trend 9: 99 Lives

The consumer's life has become one of multiple lives all combined in one. According to the ninth trend, an individual is expected to have *99 Lives* to be successful in life, and marketers who acknowledge this fact and provide services and products that will be time-saving, will be winners (Popcorn 1991:78-80). Popcorn and Marigold (1996:30) describes the trend of *99 Lives* as a new look at the modern motto of “too fast a pace, too little time”, which forces consumers to assume multiple roles in order to cope with their busy, “high-tech” lives.

Many changes have taken place in consumers' lives, including taking up multiple roles. There are people who raise children as single parents, and must double as the mother and the father, while also being the breadwinner. Some have multiple jobs because they are enthusiastic and are following two different careers out of sheer enthusiasm, while others need more than one job due to financial constraints (Popcorn 1991:79).

According to Popcorn (1991:80) technology has brought information to consumers faster than they can assimilate it. Information technology not only makes information available to the consumer, but makes the consumer available to the information. Nowadays people are available everywhere they go by means of cell phones. By means of faxing and e-mails, individuals' words are available instantly to communicate to others.

The answer to the stressful lives of consumers living *99 Lives* is simplify consumers' lives with products or services that give them more time to do things that make their lives worthwhile. Popcorn (1991:82) argues that Americans have streamlined food intake to a “quick bite” throughout the day by replacing traditional sit-down meals with smaller snack-size meals. Even the meals that consumers sit down for are pre-prepared and are cooked faster. Consumers are even expecting fast food to be served faster.

Popcorn (1991:83) was of the opinion that the buzzword for the streamlined 1990s would be “multifunctioning”. Consumers will appreciate it if they can do one stop at a shop and get a few tasks completed. For example, in South Africa one can do your grocery shopping at *Pick 'n Pay*, while settling one's electricity bill and traffic fines at the cashier.

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:208) suggest that the consumer has moved away from concerns about not having enough time, to expecting organisations to know that they need instant gratification.

Popcorn (1991:84) advises marketers to help consumers save time by cutting back on everything that is not necessary. Organisations must develop services that will unburden consumers. An example in South Africa is certain garden services that will look after the neatness of the garden, feed plants and do the lay-out of beds and replace plants if they die. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:208) provide an example of a domestic service that helps home-owners by photographing each corner of their homes before cleaning, and then returning everything to its original place. They interview the client to find out exactly what they prefer and do their shopping for them. They organise deliveries to the house and will even buy entertainment tickets, if required. The home-owners can continue to exchange ideas and life plans, without being interrupted by daily chores. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:215-216) elaborate on this trend by reporting that consumers crave for downtime and private time. People crave for a quiet moment during weekends, without phones ringing (especially those telemarketing phone calls).

An example of how organisations can gain from understanding the *99 Lives* trend is by acknowledging that it is not how long you work, but how well you work. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:218) provide examples of very successful people who only work five hours per day, which allows them to be much more creative.

3.5.1.10 Trend 10: SOS (Save our Society)

The final trend, namely SOS or *Save our Society*, refers to any effort that contributes to making the world of consumers a socially responsible environment. The consumer stops buying from an organisation who pollutes or lacks the spirit of saving society (Popcorn 1991:86). Popcorn and Marigold (1996:31) add that consumers must rediscover a social conscience based on a necessary blend of ethics, passion and compassion, in order to protect the endangered planet.

According to Popcorn (1991:86-87) the SOS trend indicates that consumers are valuing the environment, education and ethics. Acting responsibly is no longer an option; it is compulsory. The best news for the environment is the growing recognition that decency can be profitable – and increasingly tax deductible. A company such as *Nedbank* in South Africa

aims to act socially responsible by creating programmes such as the affinity credit cards contributing towards the environment, sports and cultural development.

Nearly one half of Americans have taken some kind of environmental consumer action in 1990: 54% stopped using aerosol sprays, 49% bought products made from recycled materials, 34% reduced their use of paper towels, and 34% did not buy a product because of concern for the environment (Popcorn 1991:88). Popcorn (1991:89) further illustrates the SOS trend with her example of two school teachers who co-founded *Education 1st!* in America, an organisation dedicated to improving education through entertainment resources.

Anita Roddick, owner of *The Body Shop International*, went to inspiring limits to make cosmetics (and cosmetic packaging) that are as caring for the environment as they are to the consumer. Since traditional paper-making techniques are destroying forests, she has set up workshops in Nepal to start an industry producing shopping bags and gift tags from a "paper" made of banana leaves and water hyacinths (Popcorn 1991:90). Armstrong and Kotler (2005:98) agree with this concern about the environment. They indicate that in recent years consumers are recognising that nature can be destroyed by mankind, and is something to be appreciated. According to them, this love of nature has led to an increased interest in camping, hiking, fishing, bird-watching and other outdoor activities (Armstrong & Kotler 2005:98). This tendency can possibly be linked to more of Popcorn's (1991) trends, such as *Fantasy Adventure*, *Cashing Out* or *Being Alive*.

Organisations are looking at alternatives for petrol; recycling has become a way of life for a large group of Americans; and organisations and individuals are fighting for animal rights and the environment (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:312-319). An example of the SOS trend may include a report by a British economist, sir Nicholas Stern, who proposed a plan to combat global warming. He suggested that an investment of 1% of the gross domestic product per year will be sufficient to assist actions to stabilise earth warming by the middle of this century. The question is not whether the world can afford to do something, but if the world can afford to do nothing. Stern also warned that the habits of consumers must change – if necessary by means of laws and regulations to force people to live more energy-efficiently (Malan 2006).

People are also volunteering more. According to Popcorn (1991:90), nearly half the American population now volunteers for such activities as raising money to fight disease and to assist the poor, elderly or disabled. In America there is an interest in "volunteer vacations" where individuals offer their services to help people in need. Charity events are held more

often and people are more interested in ethics and are becoming involved in debates about social and environmental responsibility (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:321-322). Armstrong and Kotler (2005:98) also report that an increasing number of Americans are becoming more patriotic in recent years.

Popcorn (1990:92) proposes that marketers must make use of “cause marketing”, where each purchase expresses a point of view about the environment, social and political issues. Included in the cost of goods to the marketer is money that goes to support a worthy cause. If marketers are to profit from the SOS trend, they need to become part of a collective effort to help save things that are priority to consumers (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:323). Duncan (2005:560) agrees that an organisation can benefit from an association with a worthy cause by means of “cause marketing”. He also adds that organisations can make use of “mission marketing”, which is related to “cause marketing”, and refers to the organisation’s mission being used as a selling strategy in order to differentiate and add value to the brand. The organisation’s socially responsible mission directs all its management decisions, and therefore the organisation can build its IMC strategy on this foundation. Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006:687) provide the example of the company *Amazon.com*, which announced their mission in 2005 as “starting with the customer and working backwards”, illustrating their consumer-centric approach. Duncan (1993) stresses that IMC must go beyond the “one voice, one look” objective and manage or strategically influence every form of communication to affect consumers’ perceptions. Duncan (2005:562) concludes that both cause and mission marketing makes a strong appeal to the consumer’s emotions.

Popcorn’s ten trends may be difficult to define and to narrow down clearly because some concepts may be interrelated. Examples provided to indicate a specific trend in the above section, might also be applicable to other trends. To illustrate this point, the example may be given of the work of Jamie Olivier, British chef, television personality and cookbook writer, who is well-known for his relaxed style and unconventional way of preparing food. According to Smuts (2005) he is one of Britain’s most highly paid stars. A resemblance emerges between Jamie Olivier’s “brand” and the trends such as *Cocooning* (the consumer can turn his kitchen into a true cocoon of food pleasure); *Fantasy Adventure* (he creates new experiences with food for the consumer); *Small Indulgences* (the consumer can experience something special without paying too much); *Cashing Out* (the consumer can escape into a relaxed moment experiencing good things); *Egonomics* (the consumer can create something unique in the kitchen) and *Being Alive* (the consumer can cook with organic and fresh ingredients which are healthy for him/her). The adherence to the trends may explain Jamie Oliver’s success in marketing his brand to consumers.

In the following subsections new trends identified by Popcorn are discussed.

3.5.2 Additional trends identified by Faith Popcorn

As explained earlier, consumer trends are in the process of constant evolution and development. Therefore different trends will be identifiable as the years pass and Faith Popcorn reports on these changes each year. In 1996 the authors Popcorn and Marigold reported on 16 trends. These trends included the ten original trends from Popcorn's 1991 work, as well as 6 new trends. For the purpose of this study, these trends will only be discussed briefly:

(i) Clanning

This trend can be defined as the inclination to join, belong to or associate with groups of similar types of people, providing a secure feeling that a person's own belief systems will somehow be validated by consensus (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:29).

It can be considered as the contrary of the *Egonomics* trend. Instead of the consumers insisting on their individualism, they assert themselves as being part of a group. Popcorn holds that it is not surprising given the way *Cocooning* has swept – and is sweeping – America: consumers' tendency to remain within the safety of their homes has made them want to reach out and connect to people of like kind. Another way to look at *Clanning* is that it is a reaction to consumers' overcommitted lives. The more fragmented their identities and fractured their days, the more they need to ground ourselves. They need to declare their "us-ness" versus "them-ness". *Clanning* can include sports and leisure clubs; university alumni; religious groups; economic interest, political and even negative associations, for instance gangs (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:65-68).

(ii) Pleasure Revenge

The newly emerging trend of *Pleasure Revenge* refers to the consumer being tired of self-deprivation and ready, willing, and able to pursue pleasure (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:95). After years of restraint people have come to realise that even if they do everything right, bad things still happens. They get laid off at work, and they still become ill even after doing all they could.

According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:97-98) American's willpower is weakening increasingly. People are buying sweets, fatty foods, snacks and take-aways. Even exercising has become redundant, and people are looking for easier ways to keep in shape

by means of diet pills and passive training equipment (Popcorn & Marigold 1996: 100-101). Popcorn and Marigold (1996:102-104) also report that consumers have stopped being apologetic about cigarette smoke, and there are even positive reinforcements about smoking in advertisements.

(iii) Anchoring

Anchoring, in Popcorn and Marigold (1996:30), is a trend that tracks the recent phenomenon of reaching back to consumers' spiritual roots, taking what was comforting from the past in order to be securely anchored in the future. Spirituality is at the very heart and soul of the *Anchoring* trend. Being *anchored* means taking part in a grander scheme where you have the opportunity to look at the bigger picture. People are returning to churches and mega-churches are developing. Consumers are buying Christian and other types of religious music and books and practicing yoga. People show an interest in genealogy and are looking into their ancestry. The *Anchoring* trend is described as a time of spiritual upheaval and religious revival: a time to dig into the core principles of the past to provide some sort of *anchoring* for the unknown ahead (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:126-143).

Armstrong and Kotler (2005:99) also reports on this trend by saying that in recent years futurists have noted a renewed interest in spirituality, perhaps as a result of people looking for meaning in their life. These authors advise that marketers should be aware of this new spiritual sensitivity since it presents unique marketing opportunities for brands.

(iv) FemaleThink

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:30) describe *FemaleThink* as a trend that reflects a new set of business and societal values, encouraging people to shift marketing consciousness from the traditional goal-oriented, hierarchical models to more caring, sharing familial models. *FemaleThink* explains the different way women see, hear, sense, want, approach, view, and purchase things. Women are familial and process-interested, while most men are hierarchical and action-oriented. According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:183) the end result of *FemaleThink* for both men and women is that people and organisations in every category can be responsible, caring, and sensitive about their place in the larger universe.

(v) Mancipation

The trend of *Mancipation* incorporates a new way of thinking for men, where they experience the freedom of being an individual (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:30). According to Popcorn and

Marigold (1996:191) *Mancipation* means the emancipation of men or otherwise, the flipside of *FemaleThink*. Popcorn (2002) defines *Mancipation* as the man's new role as mom and caregiver. This trend also manifests in the increased number of mail nannies who offer to step in to teach children.

(vi) Icon Toppling

This trend can be seen as a new "socioquake" that has transformed mainstream America and the world, forcing people to question and often reject people acting as their monuments of business or government, the long-accepted "pillars of society" (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:30-31).

Consumers are distrusting authority, and the larger the corporation, the more they are suspicious. There are mistrust in the police, prison system and the post office. Consumers are experiencing lay-offs from large organisations; families are falling apart; and the school system is disintegrating. People enjoy reading and seeing well-known people's embarrassments and ill-fortune; hence the success of tabloid magazines and newspapers. Even the church's leaders are questioned when Catholic priests are found guilty of child abuse (Popcorn & Marigold 1996: 297-309).

Icon toppling is about the failure of belief systems and institutions that have dominated consumers' thinking and way of life for years. However, where there is failure, there is also opportunity, Popcorn and Marigold (1996:309) emphasise. For instance, if someone has lost their belief in formal religion, he/she can create his/her own brand of ritual through Zen, yoga or meditation.

To illustrate that each year new trends develop or existing trends are still present, the following section will provide an idea of Popcorn's forecasts. In Popcorn and Marigold (2000:x-xx) the authors provide a list of trends described by *BrainReserve*. Trends from Popcorn (1991) and Popcorn and Marigold (1996) are included here, as well as new trends. For 2000 the trends were predicted as follows:

- *Anchoring* (see 3.5.2 (iii));
- *AtmosFear* (polluted air, contaminated water and poor quality food create consumer doubt and uncertainty);
- *Being Alive* (see 3.5.1.7);

- *Cashing Out* (see 3.5.1.5);
- *Clanning* (see 3.5.2 (i));
- *Cocooning* (see 3.5.1.1);
- *Down-Aging* (see 3.5.1.6);
- *Egonomics* (see 3.5.1.4);
- *EVEolution*: The way women think and behave is impacting on organisations, causing a marketing shift away from a hierarchical model towards a relational one;
- *Fantasy Adventure* (see 3.5.1.2);
- *FutureTENSE*: Consumers, anxiety-ridden by simultaneous social, economic, political, and ethical chaos, find themselves beyond their ability to cope with today or imagine tomorrow;
- *Icon Toppling* (see 3.5.2 (vi));
- *99 Lives* (see 3.5.1.9);
- *Pleasure Revenge* (see 3.5.2 (ii));
- *SOS (Save our Society)* (see 3.5.1.10);
- *Small Indulgences* (see 3.5.1.3); and
- *Vigilante Consumer* (see 3.5.1.8).

Faith Popcorn's firm, *BrainReserve*, regularly publishes her predictions on the internet. The researcher was able to obtain her latest trends ranging from 2002 to 2006. For 2002 her 10 top predictions included the following trends (Popcorn 2001):

- *Armored cocoon* (see 3.5.1.1 (i));
- *Mancipation* (see 3.5.2 (v));
- *Glutinous gourmet*: The compulsive desire to eat expensive, gourmet-type food in large quantities;

- *Deskperation*: Being in a job that a person dislikes, but grateful to have a job during economically trying times;
- *Multiple retirement*: The practice of taking long breaks between careers;
- *Mandatory volunteering*: Volunteering motivated by the need to have it on a resume versus truly altruistic motives;
- *Sex-E*: Using the internet to find sexual fulfilment;
- *Mood management*: Gaining control of, and altering moods; and
- *DupeProof consumerism*: A consumer movement fought at the store level that leaves many retailers in the dust.

For 2003 Popcorn forecasted that existing trends like *Cocooning*, *Anchoring*, *Being Alive* and *Pleasure Revenge* would still be prominent. The following are the main trends manifesting from these existing trends (Popcorn 2002):

- *Food coaches*: Consumers would make use of trained individuals to help them with a solution to control obesity;
- *Family first*: There would be a new focus on “need reduction strategies” in order to increase time spent with family rather than time spent working and making money;
- *Manity*: Men would realise they would not lose their machismo by caring about or improving how they look; and
- *LifeLifting*: Cosmetic surgery was becoming a method towards self-actualisation.

Popcorn forecasted 2004 to be the year in which technology would find new expression. Trends such as *Egonomics* and *Anchoring* would play an increasing role in the direction of the culture. The following is a summary of the main trends forecasted (Popcorn 2003):

- *Big mother*: Technology creates a new generation of very observant mothers – they have classroom cameras, RFID tags in their children’s’ backpacks and even GPS chips in their watches;

- *Persona propaganda*: An industry will soon evolve to help consumers manage their own “public resume” – giving people control over their digitised public identities used via the Internet;
- *Identity terrorism*: A problem of the future will be the use of the Internet as a tool to malign a reputation of either an individual or corporation;
- *Profiling paranoia*: As consumers’ personal choices become part of the digital world – iPod play lists, TiVo configurations, Amazon choices – consumers may increasingly become worried about how this data can be used;
- *Porn as the norm*: Wireless pornography on cell phones is projected to be one of the biggest data applications;
- *The idoling of America*: A type of Pop-democratisation made visible by voting by means of text-message, for example voting for the American Idol, will spread throughout the culture. Popcorn forecasts that people will even make personal decisions by means of having fellow-countrymen cast a vote; and
- *Mystic Messages*: Fundamentalism is gaining new popularity in America with people calling themselves “Born Again” or “Left Behind”. Marketers who recognise this will soon develop services and products targeting this market segment, for instance the possibility of developing a Hindu Barbie.

According to Popcorn (2004) the year 2005 would be known for consumers’ need to eliminate complication from their lives. They would aim to have control in their lives. The following trends were forecasted:

- *AlterEgo*: A trend that leads to contradiction – “Sex, God & Rock and Roll!”. Consumers would like to see religion being included in everyday life, for instance movies, television, fashion and food;
- *CreationConsultants*: The consumer can tailor-make his/her life and lifestyle to suit his/her needs, but he/she does not have the time and skills to sort everything out. Consumers will make use of experts in guiding them, for example in music selection, wardrobe planning and even building proper social networks;

- *CurationNation*: The consumer does not trust existing authorities any more, and will be establishing their own panel of “curators” (experts) consisting of people they know. They will consult them on financial and even personal matters;
- *FantasyReality*: Videogames and websites are used to experience life situations by means of fantasy, and obtaining advice from experts on different aspects in consumers’ lives;
- *Fast Frequent Fun*: Consumers are looking for fast ways of experiencing fun, and Popcorn (2004) is forecasting that methods for example short films, short novels etc. will be created in order for people to include fun elements in their busy lives;
- *Podification*: People are surrounding themselves with music, ideas, information, people etc. that validate their own beliefs and values. It seems that consumers are isolating themselves into a world controlled by themselves;
- *Redefining Domestic Dad*: The new Generation X fathers are taking up their place in the family and making use of inventive ways of cooking and raising children;
- *RESToration*: There are evidence that sleep can assist people to be healthier and therefore consumers will be looking for products and experts to help them sleep better; and
- *SuperNatural*: Consumers are using a great deal of energy to achieve an appearance of being stress-free and relaxed in today’s world. They will be spending money on products which enhances their natural skin tone for example.

For 2006, Faith Popcorn forecasted that consumers would be struggling to accept growing ambiguity and change, and with the help of technology, they would find new ways to create and exercise their own control. Two existing trends, namely *Cocooning* and *Fantasy Adventure*, would become prominent. Popcorn predicted that in that year the consumer will aim to still shelter themselves from the realities of the world, while trying out new and adventurous activities or products. The following trends were forecasted for 2006 (Popcorn 2005):

- *Skin Deeper*: With the advancement of technology and the creation of virtual relationships, consumers will long for physical touch, for example hospitals will start

keeping animals for people to touch while recovering. Teenagers in South Africa appeared to be giving more hugs than teenagers of a decade ago;

- *BrainFitness*: People have given great attention to their physical wellness in the past, and it has become time for the older-growing consumer to give attention to his/her mental wellness as well. Products and services offering “brain workouts” will become popular;
- *Secondhand Nostalgia*: Consumers are looking for a safe place since they do not experience any comfort in the present or future. Popcorn (2005) is observing that people are retreating to the past, trying to re-experience experiences;
- *America's Next Top Surgery*: People will become interested in reality television which shows patients having live-saving transplants, skin grafts and limb replacements. This can be seen as a form of *Fantasy Adventure* for consumers;
- *No Olds Barred*: The Baby Boomers of today will not acknowledge “old age” anymore. These consumers will demand that their special needs are met, for example hospices will be turned into luxury accommodation;
- *Family Pets*: Consumers treat their pets almost as children today, and Popcorn (2005) forecasts that in future people will want to use some of their own DNA to create an animal with a temperament very similar to their own;
- *ExpertEASE*: With so much information available, expertise is no longer obtained through years of training. Consumers only need a little research through the television and internet for opinions and personal testimony to take the place of experienced knowledge;
- *DeBug-ReBug*: A popular kind of bacteria is probiotics. Consumers are becoming aware of the benefits of using harmless bacteria in their everyday lives; and
- *Mood Tuning*: According to Popcorn (2005) consumers will redefine “retail-therapy”. Consumers will want to buy clothes that alter their emotions, for example, evening wear that will promote confidence or work shoes that will encourage perseverance.

Some of these trend forecasts may seem very unrealistic, but Faith Popcorn has proved to assist many marketers in “reading” their markets’ future needs and supplying in that demand. For example, *BrainReserve* helped to launch *Bacardi Breezer* (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:329), and some other clients include (Popcorn 1992:251-256):

- *American Express, Inc.;*
- *Avon Products, Inc.;*
- *The Black & Decker Corporation;*
- *Coca-Cola USA;*
- *Colgate-Palmolive Company;*
- *Estée Lauder;*
- *The Gillette Company;*
- *Johnson & Johnson Products, Inc.;*
- *Nestlé Foods Corporation;*
- *Pfizer Inc.;*
- *The Pillsbury Company;*
- *Tupperware Home Parties;* and many others.

In this section Faith Popcorn’s work on consumer trends was discussed. Her initial ten trends identified in Popcorn (1991) are the subject of this research. It was decided to include only these initial trends, as including all her subsequently published trends will be too extensive for the research study. The additional trends were provided only for the sake of completeness. In Section 3.7 the relevance of Faith Popcorn’s trends for IMC will be discussed.

Apart from the forecasts on consumer trends by Popcorn and Marigold, other futurist authors also contribute towards the knowledge regarding consumers’ behaviour. In the following section other authors’ perspective on the term “consumer trends” will be presented.

3.5.3 Alternative perspectives on consumer trends

Different authors have different points of view when they write about consumer trends, which makes comparison difficult. Faith Popcorn writes from a consumer lifestyle perspective, while others may write their forecasts from an economic, branding or social perspective, for instance. In 3.5.1 and 3.5.2 Popcorn's ten trends were discussed and the author's additional trends were mentioned. In the following section some authors' views on trends (whether they are from an economic, sociological, political or branding perspective) will be briefly discussed.

The futurist authors **Naisbitt and Aburdene** discuss their thoughts on the trends of the future from a mainly economic perspective in their book *Megatrends 2000* (1990). Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:6) predict that "[t]he most exciting breakthroughs of the 21st century will occur not because of technology but because of an expanding concept of what it means to be human". It seems that the wider peoples' horizons and the more powerful their technology, the more they value the individual. In the following section some of their trends are discussed:

- *The Global Economic Boom of the 1990s*: Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:10) forecast that the world's economic forces would spread across the world defying borders, resulting in better democracy, more freedom, more trade, more opportunity, and greater prosperity.
- *Renaissance in the Arts*: Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:53) predicted that in the 1990s there would be a fundamental and revolutionary shift in leisure time and spending priorities. During the 1990s the arts would gradually replace sport as society's primary leisure activity. This extraordinary megatrend was visible in an explosion in the visual and performing arts that is already well under way. In the South African context, there was indeed a shift from a mainly sports-oriented nation to a nation where opportunities were created to celebrate the arts, for example the Grahamstown Arts Festival, the Klein Karoo Arts Festival and Aardklop.
- *The emergence of free-market socialism*: Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:77) claimed that the transformation of socialism would become clearer during the 1990s. They predicted that in the year 2010 or 2020, it will be best to observe that socialism, facing almost certain death, was radically transformed on the doorstep of the 21st century. This is because, among other reasons, a new importance is attached to the individual. The very nature of an information economy shifts the focus away from the state to the individual.

- *Global lifestyles and Cultural Nationalism*: According to Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:102) exchanges among Europe, North America and the Pacific Rim were accelerating fast because of a thriving world economy, global telecommunications and an increase in travelling. In the cities of the developing world signs of the international youth culture are almost everywhere. So enthusiastically are they exchanging influences in food, music and fashion that a new universal international lifestyle reigns in Osaka, Madrid, Chelsea and Seattle. This desire for experiencing different things can also be seen in Popcorn's trend of *Fantasy Adventure* (see 3.5.1.2).

According to Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:103), even as consumers' lifestyles grow more similar, there are unmistakable signs of a backlash: a trend against uniformity, a desire to assert the uniqueness of one's culture and language, a repudiation of foreign influence. This tendency among consumers can also be seen in the trend of *Egonomics* by Popcorn (see 3.5.1.4).

- *The Privatisation of the Welfare State*: Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:257) write that there is a movement among consumers from central government to individual empowerment in the world: from public housing to home ownership; from monolithic national health service to private medical schemes; from government regulation to market mechanisms; from welfare to workfare; from collectivism to individualism; from government monopoly to competitive enterprise.
- *The 1990s: Decade of Women in Leadership*: According to Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:195) to be a leader in business today, it is no longer an advantage to have been socialised as a male. Although some organisations do not fully realise it as yet, men and women are on an equal playing field in corporate America. Women may even hold a slight advantage since they need not "unlearn" old authoritarian behaviour. The dominant principle of an organisation has shifted: from management once needed to control an enterprise to leadership (now needed in order to bring out the best in people and to respond quickly to change). This can possibly relate to Popcorn's trend of *FemaleThink* (see 3.5.2.(iv)).
- *The Triumph of the Individual*: Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:276) describe the 1990s as being characterised by a new respect for the individual as the foundation of society and the basic unit of change. "Mass" movements are a misnomer: the environmental movement, the women's movement and the anti-nuclear movement were built on

consciousness at a time, by an individual persuaded of the possibility of a new reality. Again, this may relate to Popcorn's trend of *Egonomics* (see 3.5.1.4).

Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990:285) also deal with the consumer-centric focus of organisations. When the focus was on the organisation, consumers received services or products that suited the organisation, but with the rise of the individual has come the primacy of the consumer. Recognition of the individual is the thread connecting every trend described in the book of Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990). The new golden era where people earn their income through the creativity of the individual instead of hard labour already exists in the developed world, which was entering the global economic boom of the 1990s. In a high-wage information economy, people are paid for what is unique to them – their intelligence and creativity, not their collective labour. Individual contributions to business are rewarded with a customised compensation package of bonuses and ownership, rather than a uniform system that treats everyone similarly (Naisbitt & Aburdene 1990:286). This focus on the individual or consumer-centric approach will be further discussed in 3.6.

Another futurist author is **Alvin Toffler**, who wrote books on change in the global civilisation. *Future Shock* was one of his works, published in 1971. This work called for certain changes to be made and emphasised the social cost of change, while focusing on the *processes* of change (Toffler 1980:17-18). In his 1980 work *The Third Wave*, the emphasis was placed on the *directions* and patterns of change. Toffler (1980:16) believes that his work synthesises the information on future trends into a work that enables people to deal with change and use opportunities. He continues that new ideas, analogies, classifications, concepts of existing knowledge and beliefs will be forged, resulting in new lifestyles, political relations and modes of communication. Examples of Toffler's forecast changes include:

- *A new psycho-sphere* emerging in the civilisation. This refers to individuals becoming increasingly emotionally unstable and longing for a sense of community, contact with other people and a sense of purpose and structure in their lives (Toffler 1980:375-377; 389).
- *A new personality of the future*. Toffler (1980:390-392; 401) forecast that a new social character will be built because of certain character traits being most likely to be valued by a future civilisation. Shared character traits can play an influential role in the economic and social development of the society. He claims that the next generation is to grow up sooner, show responsibility at an earlier age, be more adaptable and value greater individuality than the current civilisation.

- *A political revolution* might become inevitable in a changing society (Toffler 1980:402). The author proposes that political and governmental systems in countries are becoming obsolete and will need to change in future to face difficult challenges (Toffler 1980:425).

Toffler (1990:xvii) proposed in another book, *Powershift*, that people need a synthesised picture of how different changes in the civilisation relates to one another. His book deals with the *control* of future changes and elaborates on the people that will shape these changes and how it will happen (Toffler 1990:xix). Toffler delivered broad comment on the changes taking place in civilisations, while Popcorn, on the other hand, focused on the consumer specifically.

From a South African perspective, **Janice Spark** from Ideas Engineers has web-published trends on brands in particular between 2003 to 2007 (similar to Popcorn's consumer trend overviews published on the web each year). The following is a summary of her trends in 2006 for the future of brands, specifically in the South African market (Spark 2006):

- *Township economies becoming prominent*: With an upcoming middle class in townships, there is a new consumer group desiring suitable products and services. Spark (2006) forecasts that there will be a number of misguided attempts to reach this market. Furthermore, black business people will increasingly become involved from an entrepreneurial point of view. Spark (2006) reports that consumers experience brands in a more emotional way in society today. Brands increasingly act as a representation of the consumer's identity and therefore marketers must understand their local market very well to be able to market to them successfully.
- *BEE Reality (Black Economic Empowerment)*: Spark (2006) predicts that a number of great multi-racial and cross-gender business partnerships will develop in 2006. Spark (2006) feels, on the other hand, that the average South African is becoming bored with BEE and that meaningful and effective BEE deals will need effective communication strategies to gain recognition.

- *Traditional media becoming less apparent:* Spark (2006) explains that “[b]rands are being forced to become more creative and to make use of new channels to reach consumers”. She adds that digital type of marketing will become more prominent, and channels such as the *iPod* or *DSTV’s* Personal Video Recorder (PVR) open new worlds for marketing to the market. Spark (2006) warns that marketers will need original ideas since consumers are becoming irritated with too many marketing messages.
- *Professional services realise the power of branding:* According to Spark (2006) professional services are increasingly competing against rivals for consumers’ business. The author expected in 2006 that professional services brands would have benefited from the lessons learned over decades in FMCG (Fast Moving Consumer Goods). Professional services will have to become involved in establishing brands similar to other businesses.
- *Participative Journalism:* An increasing number of organisations are getting involved with participative journalism (e.g. blogging and web forums on the internet, etc.) in an attempt to control the changing information distribution environment. These new types of information distribution have changed the world of public relations, since their aim at creating dialogue with stakeholders have been replaced, as Spark (2006) explains, by “spin” and “blatantly dubious storytelling”. In South Africa the phenomenon of participative journalism has been held back by the lack of access to the internet and communication technologies, but this is soon to change with more accessible technology, for example broadband internet.
- *Outsourcing and the role of the specialist marketing company:* Spark (2006) claims that businesses are increasingly finding it challenging to integrate and manage a variety of specialist marketing suppliers. The author is expecting that there will be an increased number of “joint ventures” between media and marketing agencies, but that businesses will still appreciate personal attention given by smaller agencies.
- *The rise of non-traditional brands:* A global realisation of the importance of branding will lead to more non-traditional brands being created and developed, for example for government departments, NGOs, sport teams, park boards and bands (Spark 2006). Spark (2006) advises that businesses make use of professionals since the market will quickly spot when the brand has not been created effectively.

Spark (2006) concludes that in 2006 there would be a few shifts in technology bringing changes about in the way business is conducted in South Africa. She sees the changing economy as a new opportunity for innovation and brand experimentation.

This section outlined the nature of Faith Popcorn's and other authors' view on consumer trends, which consequently have an influence on how marketers must reach a specific target market. Because the consumer is central to the success of an IMC strategy, the following section will deal with the consumer-oriented approach.

3.6 THE CONSUMER-ORIENTED APPROACH IN IMC

The discussion in Chapter 2 of IMC and the focus thus far in Chapter 3 have been on the importance of the consumer as the most prominent factor in the strategic IMC planning process. The importance of the implementation of a consumer-oriented approach has become a necessity in the marketplace, and therefore a marketer needs to have a fundamental understanding of it.

According to Sheth and Mittal (2004:6) the principles of consumer behaviour serve an organisation best when they are applied to develop and maintain a consumer orientation. A **consumer orientation** refers to a comprehensive understanding of consumers' needs and wants, the competitive environment, and the nature of the market used to formulate all the organisation's plans and actions to create satisfied consumers.

3.6.1 Consumer-oriented trends in marketing

Kotler (2003:181) provides a few thoughts on the main marketing trends that he had experienced. He explains that a shift has taken place from a *make-and-sell marketing strategy* to that of *sense-and-respond marketing*. The organisation will achieve better results if marketers view the marketing challenge as that of developing a superior understanding of customer needs rather than simply providing more and better products.

A shift has also taken place from *focusing on customer attraction to focusing on customer retention*. Organisations need to alter their focus from transaction marketing to relationship marketing (Kotler 2003:181). In addition, it is better to *pursue customer share than market share*, by finding more products and services that can be sold to the same customers (Kotler 2003:181). Kotler (2003:181) mentions another marketing trend in the *shift from marketing monologue to customer dialogue*: stronger relationships can be created with customers by listening and converging with them than by only sending out one-way messages.

Kotler (2003) and Assael (2004) provide more thoughts on trends in marketing approaches:

- *From mass marketing to customised marketing:* An organisation has many different target markets, and organisations will have the means to market even to an individual customer (Kotler 2003:182). Assael (2004:12) supports this view by stating that the greater sophistication of consumers, their access to more information, and their emphasis on value have led them to desire products more closely fitted to their needs. The fragmentation of the market place, according to Assael (2004:11), has also lead to organisations having to aim their marketing at ever fragmenting segments in their audiences.
- *From owning assets to owning brands:* Many organisations are starting to value owning brands above owning factories. These organisations have experienced that owning less physical assets and outsourcing production can result in higher profit returns (Kotler 2003:182). Assael (2004:11) remarks that consumers have become increasingly value-oriented, and therefore marketers should emphasise building brand equity – that is, communicating the value of a brand in the context of quality and price.
- *From operating in the marketplace to operating in cyberspace:* Organisations are using the Internet as a whole new business place for hiring, advertising, buying, training, exchanging and communication. Consumers have become more sophisticated in using the Internet, have more access to computers and advances in interactive technologies have expanded the availability of product information (Kotler 2003:182; Assael 2004:11).
- *From single-channel marketing to multichannel marketing:* Organisations have started to make use of more than one medium to reach their customers, and different customers make use of different mediums to access products and services (Kotler 2003:182). A classic example is how the banking industry in South Africa has developed its delivery channels. For example, Absa now delivers its services via the bank itself (clients visiting the bank and being assisted by staff), OTMs, Absa Direct (a telephone banking system) and Internet banking. Each delivery method suits specific target markets. According to Assael (2004:12) consumers are busier than ever and must face an ever-decreasing amount of free time. The strategic implication is that marketers must emphasise service as well as price, using technology to reduce transaction time, building environments conducive to one-stop shopping, and adding value by providing fast and easy access to information.

- *From product-oriented marketing to consumer-oriented marketing*: An exciting stage for an organisation to reach is when the ability is obtained to move its attention away from its products and start focusing on consumers (Kotler 2003:182).

This shift in emphasis in marketing illustrates the importance of the consumer-centric approach, which will be discussed in the following section.

3.6.2 The importance of the consumer-centric approach

According to Gronstedt (2000:20) “every contact with a company represents the entire company to the customer”. This notion is also strongly supported by Edelman (2003), who argues that organisations should build their reputations by involving their employees, who in turn actively influence opinion leaders among consumers. Gronstedt (2000:20) adds that the interactions with the consumer form the entire basis of consumer communication, regardless of whether an interaction consists of talking to an organisation representative, using the product or service, reading the organisation’s brochure or watching their commercial. A consumer-centric approach allows for an organisation to manage all contact points with a consumer (a central theory in IMC).

Sheth and Mittal (2004:8-12) describe a customer-centric orientation as providing an organisation with competitive advantages that lead to higher corporate performance in the form of increased profitability and revenue growth. The three advantages that increase profitability are (i) cost efficiencies from repeat customers, (ii) price premiums from established customers, and (iii) customer loyalty in corporate crises. The three advantages that generate growth are (iv) increased word of mouth, (v) one-stop shopping, (vi) new product innovations and (vii) internal success for the organisation as it produces employees that feel proud about their work. These advantages will be discussed below:

(i) Cost efficiencies from repeat customers

Possibly the most effective way an organisation can maintain a competitive advantage in a mature market is through retaining its customers (Sheth & Mittal 2004:8). According to Gronstedt (2000:53) research has indicated that it is five to twenty times more expensive to attract a new customer than to retain an existing one. It was also shown that existing customers provide more revenues the longer these customers are retained, because the cost of acquiring the customer is recovered. Customers become less price sensitive, they require less attention from personnel, they buy more and they refer potential customers. Customers also appreciate a long-term relationship as most consumers enjoy the

convenience and peace of mind of buying the same brand from a familiar store. The appeal of minimal search cost, the security of knowing the quality of the product or service, and a promise of quantity discounts are some of the benefits of a relationship experienced by consumers.

Gronstedt (2000:53-54) argues that business success is achieved through long-term customer relationships. Reliable data supports the intuitive appeal of a relationship focus. That does not mean that the focus on established relationships should be at the exclusion of recruiting new customers, but that a more suitable balance between relationships and acquisitions is required. The problem with managers who are grounded in the Production Century Model is that they consider the communication process to be completed when a customer makes the purchase. At that stage, the customer returns to being another anonymous prospective customer and the marketing process repeats itself. Gronstedt (2000:54) proposes that managers need to focus on "migrating customers along the relationship path", from being prospects to loyal customers.

(ii) Premium prices from established customers

Sheth and Mittal (2004:9-10) express the opinion that established customers are already satisfied with the organisation. Unless there is a strong reason to do so, established customers are unlikely to turn to a competitor. The price advantage occurs not only because the established customers are unwilling to go through the effort of changing brands for a lower price but also because a customer-oriented organisation is able to offer its customers value from other origins, such as product quality, service excellence, brand reputation and a customer-oriented culture in general.

According to Gronstedt (2000:55) organisations must focus their resources on their most profitable customers. By making use of the power of database technology, the Internet and mass customisation capabilities, organisations can identify the customers with the greatest profit potential and tailor communication and service to their individual needs.

From a cost-benefit analysis, organisations can determine which customers are unprofitable and either "leave" them gracefully or turn them into profitable customers by increasing prices and/or reducing service levels. Obviously, unprofitable customers should be spared this treatment if they have the potential to become profitable in the future, or if they are influential opinion leaders that might attract other customers. The second finding that will surface from a customer cost-benefit analysis, is that a surprisingly small number of customers account for almost the entire profit. The 80/20 rule, which stipulates that about 80 percent of any

organisation's profit is attributed to 20 percent of its customer base, is applicable to any organisation. This "Pareto effect" was proposed by Wilfred Pareto, who concluded that 80 percent of wealth was owned by 20 percent of people. It does not matter what industry or organisation, the Pareto effect is a predictable rule. By identifying the most profitable customers, the level of investment can be determined and the returns can be measured. This is a completely new approach to allocating resources, where organisations "invest in customers" rather than spend money on marketing efforts (Gronstedt 2000:56-57; Duncan 2005:89-90).

Gronstedt (2000:57) advises marketers to analyse purchasing history as it is a valuable short-term predictor of future buying behaviour. He also advises marketers to determine customers' "lifetime customer value" over a period of time before any relationship building programmes are directed at them. Another important variable in an analysis of customers' future profit potential is their "share of wallet", that is, how much an organisation has captured of a customer's budget for a category of purchases (Gronstedt 2000:57-58).

A problem in some organisations might be that this customer information is frequently unavailable, making it impossible to apply it in customising communication. True success will spread from sharing the customer database within the organisation, and organising all organisational activities around individual customer needs (Gronstedt 2000:58).

Gronstedt (2000:60) adds that all levels of staff need to hear the "voice of the customer". He emphasises that the role of communication is to communicate and *create* value by managing expectations and learning about customer needs (Gronstedt 2000:60-61).

(iii) Protection against corporate crisis

Thirdly, a customer orientation enhances profits by providing insulation against a corporate crisis (Sheth & Mittal 2004:10). Four major sources of crises directly relevant to customer satisfaction are product tampering, unfair competition, operational breakdowns, and industry restructuring. When an organisation uses customer orientation to cultivate more committed customers, those customers will be willing to support the organisation to ensure its survival.

Corporate crises can result from product tampering, for example when supposedly poisonous cans of tuna were placed on *Pick & Pay's* shelves in 2004. Loyal customers will resist unfair and unethical business practices of competitors against an organisation they really like. Another source of corporate crisis is internal operational problems that may be created by breakdowns, strikes or shortages. Lastly, a common source of corporate crisis has been

industry restructuring as the result of either consolidation within the industry or a government mandate (Sheth & Mittal 2004:10).

(iv) Increased word-of-mouth

Gronstedt (2000:62) describes that successful organisations take care to listen to the voice of dissatisfied customers. It is particularly important to act promptly on customers' complaints, or else the customer will turn into a "customer terrorist", who will speak badly about the organisation (Gronstedt 2000:62).

Sheth and Mittal (2004) add that a customer orientation produces satisfied customers who will be willing to invest their own time to tell others about the organisation. Word-of-mouth communication is a very powerful form of communication and influence since it is more credible and goes through less perceptual filters (see 2.6 for more on the "say-do-confirm" consistency triangle).

(v) One-stop shopping

Another source of business growth is the increase in the number of products a satisfied customer buys from the same organisation, according to Sheth and Mittal (2004:11). Customers prefer to do one-stop shopping for several reasons. It is more economical for a customer to do business with the same organisation because of volume discounts, favourable terms and better support service. It is also more convenient since the procedures for ordering, payments and delivery are standardised. Finally, it eliminates the uncertainty that comes with doing business with a new organisation.

(vi) New product innovations

According to Sheth and Mittal (2004:12) facilitating the introduction of new products is also a way that a customer orientation generates revenue growth. Customer input in the early stages of new-product development is one of the major reasons for the success of an innovation because it allows the research and development departments to incorporate customers' wishes as they develop new technologies. The process is facilitated by satisfied and loyal customers who are more open to sharing their experiences with the organisation.

(vii) Customer orientation creates pride in employees

Lamb *et al.* (2004:21) and Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994) agree that customer-oriented staff can become a competitive advantage for an organisation. They propose that if

an organisation is focused on consumers, employees' attitudes and actions must be consumer-oriented. An employee may be the only contact a particular customer has with the organisation: in that customer's eyes, the employee represents the organisation. Any employee or department that is not consumer-oriented, weakens the positive image of the organisation and the positive experience of the customer.

Above, the reasons for adopting a consumer-orientation in an organisation were discussed. The following section will deal with how a consumer-oriented vision is created in organisations.

3.6.3 Developing a consumer-oriented vision

Gronstedt (2000:19) provides an example of *General Motor's Saturn* motor vehicle subsidiary. *Saturn's* strategy was to not view buying a car as a single transaction, but as a whole experience. The organisation compiled a list of possible contact points before the car was launched and aimed to make these moments memorable to customers. The communication that really matters to consumers is not the work of the marketing or communications professionals, but of "unofficial" communicators across the organisation. This example demonstrates the importance of making all employees and distributors, understand their role in meeting and exceeding customer expectations. They need to be provided the power, training and opportunity to deliver consistent brand messages – in words and actions – to the customers, and to bring back customer feedback to the organisation. Gronstedt (2000:20-21) and Kotler (2003:32) add the example of Jan Carlzon, former CEO of *Scandinavian Airlines System (SAS)*, who managed to turn his employees' focus towards the customer. He emphasised that there are numerous "moments of truth" opportunities to deliver a positive brand experience to customers, whether delivered in person, over the phone or by mail. Carlzon changed the organisation's structure, systems and technology to empower the workforce to take any steps necessary to adhere to customers' needs.

Kotler (2003:32-33) reports that one of the most important tasks is to employ staff that has the right skills and attitudes to deal with customers. He agrees with Gronstedt (2000:19) that employees need to be trained to develop a customer mind-set, and this state within an organisation has to be planned, implemented and rewarded.

According to Gronstedt (2000:91), organisations need to develop a strategic vision that is specific enough to provide direction, but is flexible enough to adapt to a rapidly changing environment. He advises that it might be a mistake to compile exceedingly vague visions. On

the other hand, a vision that is too detailed, focusing on specific products or technology, will only serve to maintain the status quo.

The vision needs to be based not only on the organisation's core competency – the set of skills and technologies that is central to its strength – but also on opportunities in the marketplace. It also needs to be a broadly phrased direction of the organisation rather than a detailed plan and expressed in terms of consumer benefits rather than product attributes (Gronstedt 2000:91).

Once a customer-centric holistic picture is developed, it needs to be summarised into specific, pitchy statements that can be understood clearly. Without a well-defined and broadly communicated vision and strategy it will be impossible to create the desired customer-focused organisation (Gronstedt 2000:91-92). Kresch, Boyd and Haller (1983) elaborate that an analysis of consumer trends needs to be integrated into corporate strategy (and not only at the marketing level). Effective integration into an organisation can then be obtained by means of including knowledge about trends into the formal strategic planning process, adding consumer market-oriented professionals to the strategic planning teams and providing access to consumer trends data through a strong market research programme.

3.6.4 The role of technology in the consumer-centric approach

Schultz (1998) explains that where marketers once knew little about customers and prospects, their investors and channels, today they have a great deal of data and resources to manage that data, as well as increasingly sophisticated analysts and managers to evaluate and turn the data into information. But, at the same time, their customers and consumers, investors and all their stakeholders, have increasing amounts of information technology at their fingertips as well. Search engines, websites and media alternatives, for example, have increased the capacity and capability of customers and prospects to identify and evaluate products and services from all over the globe. It is this development of information technology which is at once enhancing marketers' ability to develop effective communication programmes. The real reason why information technology is changing the way IMC is developed and practiced, however, is the changing nature of technology ownership and control.

Schultz (1998) describes three different marketplaces. The first is the *Historical Marketplace*, where the marketing organisation had or still dominated most of the information technology. This technology came in the form of manufacturing and marketing skills; research of

customers and consumers, the ability to use mass media forms to deliver clear-cut, brand-oriented messages to customers and consumers through limited media choices.

The second marketplace, namely the *Current Marketplace*, features the channel as the dominant force. That is simply because information technology, in the form of point-of-sale systems, scanners, retail data gathering resources and the like, has given the channel more and better information about the consumer and the marketplace than is available to the marketer. The shift of information technology from the marketer to the channel has created the *Current Marketplace* and that is the arena in which most marketing organisations now operate (Schultz 1998).

The third marketplace, the *21st Century Market Place*, is visible in some organisations today, but it is mostly regarded as the marketplace of the future. Information technology, in the form of the Internet, e-mail and CD's, is shifting marketplace power from the *Historical* and *Current* marketer to the consumer of products and services. The consumer is gaining the information technology and thus will have the power in the marketplace today and increasingly in the future. It is this shift of information technology from the *Historical Marketer* to the *21st Century Marketer* which has created many of the changes in IMC that was seen in the past ten years and which will drive the future of the discipline as well (Schultz 1998).

The use of technology makes it possible for marketers to make use of sophisticated methods to organise information on customers, such as in the case of database marketing, relationship marketing and customer relationship management.

3.6.4.1 Database marketing

Duncan (2005:246) describes database marketing as marketing which is managed by means of a database which provides the organisation with interaction memory. Database marketing is also known as data-driven communication. According to Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994:52) two-way relationship communication systems are established through some form of database marketing programme. In this approach, the marketer sends information to the consumer through a variety of distribution mediums. In each case, the marketer actively seeks feedback. The feedback information is then stored in the database. In South Africa, *Clicks* offers a loyalty programme which uses competitions to obtain market information from their customers, for instance.

Information can also be gathered in more indirect ways, such as information obtained by researchers from surveys. Projections can be determined on buying history, product usage,

media habits, etc. Increasingly, however, projections are being replaced by more behavioural information such as that from actual customer purchase or usage (Schultz, Tannenbaum & Lauterborn 1994:52-53). *Clicks* is an example of a retailer using a loyalty club card which enables them to draw a buying and personal profile of all their customers. Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994:53) believe that this increasing availability of consumer behavioural data is the key to successful IMC.

According to Kotler (2003:43) database marketing is the foundation of customer relationship marketing (CRM). Kotler (2003:39) also postulates that the future of marketing lies in database marketing, where the marketer knows enough about each customer to make relevant and timely offers customised and personalised to individual customers. Kotler (2003:39) explains that “[i]nstead of seeing a customer in every individual, we must see the individual in every customer”.

3.6.4.2 Relationship marketing

According to Kotler (2003:152) “[r]elationship marketing (RM) marks a significant paradigm shift in marketing, a movement from thinking solely in terms of competition and conflict toward thinking in terms of mutual interdependence and cooperation”. He claims that it recognises the importance of various stakeholders, such as suppliers, employees, distributors, dealers and retailers, while cooperating to deliver the best value to the consumer. Kotler (2003:152) provides the following list of the main characteristics of relationship marketing:

- It focuses on partners and customers rather than on the organisation’s products.
- It places more emphasis on customer retention and growth than on customer acquisition.
- It relies on cross-functional teams rather than on departmental-level work.
- It relies more on listening and learning from customers than on talking with them.

According to Kotler (2003:152) relationship marketing calls for new practices within the Four P’s (see Table 3.2).

Table 2.2: RELATIONSHIP MARKETING AND THE FOUR P'S

<p>PRODUCT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More products are customised to the customers' preferences. • New products are developed and designed cooperatively with suppliers and distributors. <p>PRICE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The organisation will set a price based on the relationship with the customer and the bundle of features and services ordered by the customer. • In business-to-business marketing, there is more negotiation because products are often designed for each customer. <p>PLACE (DISTRIBUTION)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationship marketing favours more direct marketing to the customer, thus reducing the role of the middleman. • Relationship marketing favours offering alternatives to customers to choose the way they want to order, pay for, receive, install, and even repair the product. <p>PROMOTION (COMMUNICATION)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationship marketing favours more individual communication and dialogue with customers. • Relationship marketing favours more IMC to deliver the same promise and image to the customer. • Relationship marketing sets up extranets with large customers to facilitate information exchange, joint planning, ordering, and payments.

Source: Kotler (2003:153)

Relationship marketing means that there is a relationship between the buyer and the seller that normally results from interchanges and exchanges of information and things of mutual value. Grönroos (2000) examines the application of dialogue to relationship marketing and argues that a dialogue emerges when planned communication messages and interaction processes are aligned and support each other. He proposes that this allows for planned communication and interactions to be merged into a relationship dialogue. Grönroos (2000) concludes that if consumers perceive interaction with the organisation as favourable and if the process is supported by planned communication messages, the consumer's perceived value of the relationship itself is reinforced by continuously ongoing dialogue. The maintenance and creation of a relationship dialogue become a necessary element of successful relationship marketing. Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (1994:52) believe

that relationship marketing is the key to all future marketing efforts. It is only through IMC, however, that relationships can be built.

3.6.4.3 Customer Relationship Management

Customer Relationship Management (CRM) is a field which takes relationship marketing a step further, to emphasise the customer specifically and the management function. According to Kotler (2003:34) a possible definition of CRM is that it is the application of technology in gaining an understanding of the customer and creating the ability to respond to them individually. It is not necessarily about the technology, but the fact that organisations treat their customers with more respect, empathy and sensitivity. Zikmund, McLeod and Gilbert (2003:3) propose another definition of the customer relationship management (CRM) system as a process to compile data or information that increases understanding of how to manage an organisation's relationships with its customers. In this view, a CRM system consists of two dimensions, namely analysis and action. More formally, CRM is a business strategy that uses information technology to provide an organisation with a comprehensive, reliable, and integrated view of its customer base so that all processes and customer interactions help maintain and expand mutually beneficial relationships (Zikmund, McLeod & Gilbert 2003:3). These mutually beneficial relationships are also emphasised by Kumar and Ramani (2003) when they explain that organisations' CRM should incorporate the individual rewarding of their most profitable customers, as they offer customer value to the organisation. In general, customers also value organisations that reward their loyalty as well as their spent.

Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003:93) argue that a database-driven segmentation approach to communication must be employed. To accomplish this, organisations must develop ways of collecting information at the individual level through traditional and/or electronic methods, and ways of using that data to create information-intensive consumer communication strategies.

Computer technology enables the organisation to capture detailed information about individual customers which can be used to target certain markets (Kotler 2003:35). Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003:95) add that few organisations exploit the promised possibility of using electronic media to form interactive customer relationships in order to build IMC programmes. Organisations do not have sufficient understanding of how electronic media and consumer databases can be converted into integrated communication strategies. The authors are of the opinion that although effort is made to utilise individual-level data to

understand consumers, demographics and buying history are often the only information collected. It must be kept in mind that other potentially valuable motivation-related information, such as consumer lifestyles, values, needs, motivations and priorities (Peltier, Schibrowsky & Schultz 2003:95), including consumer trends, are often overlooked.

Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003:96-97) proposed a model that demonstrates the relationship between database management and creating an interactive IMC strategy (see Figure 3.4). They emphasise how psychographic, behavioural and descriptive consumer data can be integrated to form electronically-enhanced IMC strategies. The authors recommend that by using database technology, customer information (such as this study's consumer trends data) can be turned into meaningful information that may be used to develop customised interactive IMC strategies. Flatters (2004) confirms this point by reporting that research has indicated that by 2012, approximately 80 percent of United Kingdom's consumers will have access to some form of interactive technology. The situation in a developing country like South Africa may of course, look different.

Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003:95) elaborated that the capacity which electronic media and database technologies have for creating unique and personalised "conversations" with individual consumers are very promising. This customised dialogue is an essential element in developing customer relationship management programmes. The conceptual model proposed by Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003:97) is accepted as an indication of the future direction that organisations must take in IMC.

Kotler (2003:35-6) suggests that organisations should only invest in CRM if they have reorganised to become customer-centric organisations. This is compulsory for employees to implement CRM effectively. Organisations should listen and find out what products customers would like to buy, and if, how often, how and where customers would like to receive communication on products. Marketers should not rely solely on information *about* customers, but only accept information *from* its customers.

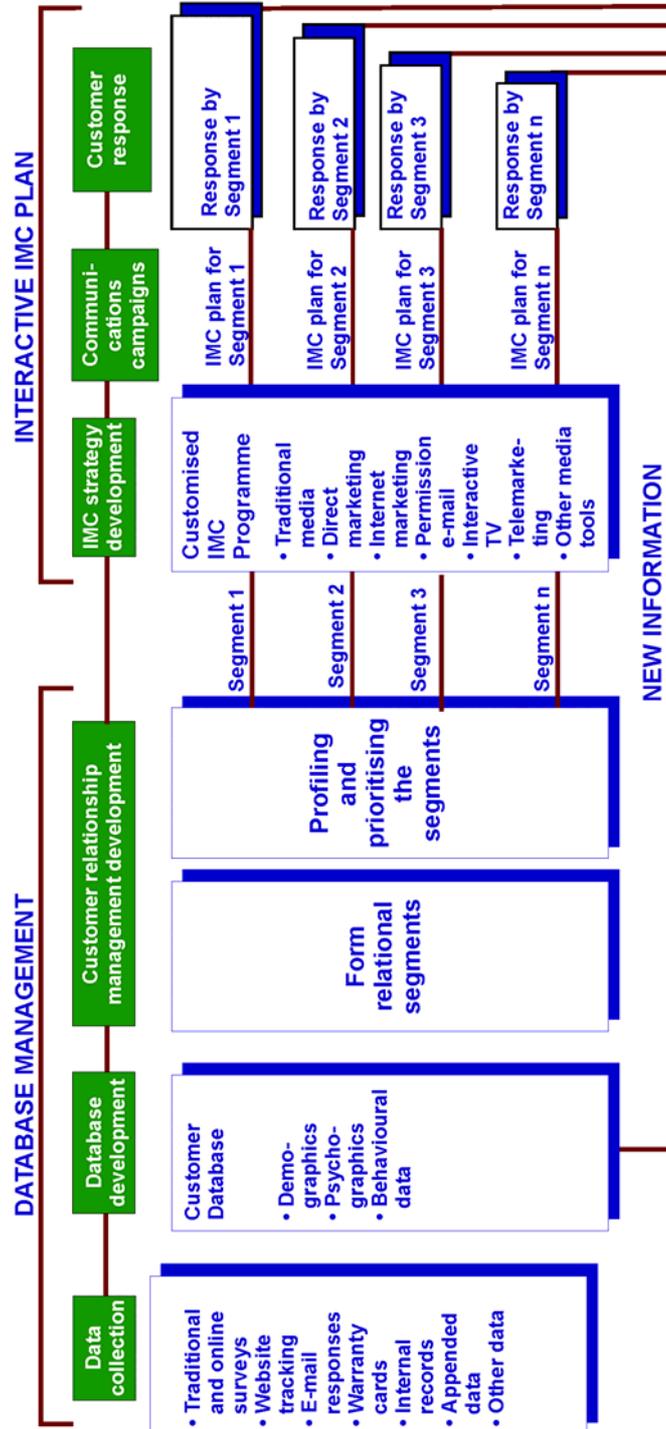
Zikmund, McLeod and Gilbert (2003:2) conclude that information about past, present, and potential customers are the heart of sound strategic plans. To develop an integrated view of the customer base, successful executives must understand both the marketing concept and information system architecture. These authors explore the emerging field of customer relationship management (CRM) from the crossroads of marketing strategy and information technology.

Zikmund, McLeod and Gilbert (2003:2) stress that getting customers is fundamental to business success, but that keeping customers is more important. Successful organisations work to build long-term relationships with their customers by means of continuing interaction.

In essence, the CRM approach represents another step in the development of the traditional concept of marketing – a philosophy or a way of envisioning an organisation as an integrated system where all aspects are coordinated to satisfy customer needs, while making a profit, within society's long-term best interests (Zikmund, McLeod & Gilbert 2003:4). This systemness was also described in Chapter 1.

According to Zikmund, McLeod and Gilbert (2003:15) a potential benefit to the organisation for investing in an effective CRM system is in differentiating segments. Organisations with sophisticated CRM systems often have databases that record a customer's RMF (*recency of purchase, frequency of purchase and monetary*, a customer's average purchase size) scores. Concentrating on the heavy user market segment is an attractive strategy because a small percentage of all users of a product – the best customers – account for a large portion of an organisation's sales. In 3.6.2 there was reference to the 80/20 principle, according to which 20 percent of the customers buy 80 percent of the product sold. Organisations, however, have to stay clear of the *majority fallacy*, a name given to the blind pursuit of the largest, most easily identified, or most accessible market segment. This segment probably attracts the most intense competition and may actually prove to be the least profitable. See Figure 3.4 on the next page.

Figure 3.4: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DATABASE MANAGEMENT AND INTERACTIVE IMC



Source: Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003:97)

3.6.4.4 Customer Experience Management

The field of Customer Experience Management is concerned with illustrating even further how the consumer must be seen as the primary focus of the organisation. Berry, Carbone and Haeckel (2002:85) hold that an increasing awareness has developed towards the creation of value for consumers in the form of experience. This does not refer to only being creative or presenting something to a consumer that is memorable. The entire experience must form part of a well-conceived, comprehensive strategy of managing consumers' experiences. Edelman (2003) agrees that organisations need to create experiences that strengthen the bond with consumers.

Managing customers' experience also adds to the strategy of IMC, where all contact points of the consumer must be incorporated into a strategy. It may be inferred that all forms of contact with the organisation must be a value-adding experience. Berry, Carbone and Haeckel (2002:86) point out that customer value must comprise of both functional value (in the form of quality products or services) and emotional benefits which customers receive, but minus the financial and the non-financial responsibilities they carry.

Organisations have the strongest advantage when they combine both functional and emotional benefits in their product offerings. To be able to compete successfully in this field, an increasing number of organisations are applying the principles and tools of customer experience management to strengthen consumer loyalty (Berry, Carbone & Haeckel 2002:89).

3.7 THE RELEVANCE OF FAITH POPCORN'S CONSUMER TRENDS IN THE INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION ENVIRONMENT

As have become evident throughout the literature review, successful organisations should take an outside-in view of their business. They recognise that the marketing environment is constantly producing new opportunities and threats. These organisations also understand the importance of continuously monitoring and adapting to the changing environment (Kotler 1997:147). Popcorn and Marigold (1996:33) agree that trend knowledge is very valuable for marketers, since they can predict what consumers' needs will be (before the consumers even know it) and will be able to offer them products and services to answer those needs. Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006:586-587) indicate that because of message clutter, marketers are necessitated to connect with consumers' needs. People pay particular attention to marketing communication stimuli that they perceive to be relevant to their needs.

Connecting to consumers' needs may require reminding them of their needs before demonstrating how the product can satisfy these needs. Being knowledgeable about the trends will enable marketers to start seeing patterns as well as obtaining ideas and suggestions to allow them to be more successful in business (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:33). The researcher will provide recommendations in Chapter 6 on how to use the trend information to connect to consumers' needs when compiling an IMC strategy.

According to Kotler (1997:147) the major responsibility for identifying significant changes in the environment falls to an organisation's marketers. More than any other group in the organisation, marketers need to be the "trend spotters" and opportunity seekers. Having knowledge of consumer trends makes it possible for marketers to observe new opportunities. Kotler (1997:148-149) also argues that marketers can find many opportunities by identifying trends. The consumer trends proposed by Popcorn give an indication of new opportunities and changes among consumers. These consumer trends also provide valuable information to assist in segmenting their customers.

According to Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2001:188) marketers use demographic trends (that is, the size, structure and distribution of a population) to predict changes in demand for and consumption of specific products and services by monitoring which population groups will be growing in future. Organisations also need to monitor demographic, technological, and lifestyle environment changes to alter product and service offerings and how they communicate with consumers.

It is not sufficient for marketers to only consider demographics (Blackwell, Miniard and Engel 2001:188). People in similar situations buy many of the same products as do others in the same age, geographic or income category, but this is not always the case. People act differently because of basic characteristics and social-psychological make-up that reflect their personality, personal values and lifestyles. Marketing focuses on what people will buy in the future and therefore marketers turn to demographics, psychographics, and lifestyles to help predict the answers to future needs. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:62-63) support this notion by saying that demographic-psychographics have been widely used in the development of marketing communication messages. It is increasingly noted that messages are including words and/or pictures that depict a particular consumer group's lifestyle.

McDaniel and Gates (2001) in Tustin *et al.* (2005:58) define two main roles of marketing research in an organisation, namely (i) to provide feedback on historical events; and (ii) to indicate new opportunities. The first role implies that marketing research must operate in a

descriptive and a diagnostic manner. However, to identify new opportunities, marketing research must also have a predictive function. Faith Popcorn's consumer trends can assist in this predictive function.

According to Kotler (1997:150) consumer trends merit marketers' close attention. A new product or marketing programme is likely to be more successful if it is in line with strong trends rather than opposed to them. But detecting a new marketing opportunity does not guarantee its success, even if it is technically feasible. Market research needs to be undertaken to determine an opportunity's profit potential.

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:34) propose that marketers (or individuals) use their trends as a screen which can help them to avoid making mistakes in any ventures undertaken. Popcorn and Marigold (1996) provide examples of how businesses and individuals have used their trends as starting points or confirmation that they were on the right track. They claim that if one is familiar with the trends, marketers (or any individuals) will be able to notice the relevant details that build the larger picture of the society of today. If one keeps these trends in mind, one would "find a fit or an expansion of any of your plans" (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:34).

3.7.1 Applying Faith Popcorn's trends in IMC strategies

From the above-mentioned section, it is inferred that the trends have an important role to play in business decision-making and consequently IMC decisions. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:327) provide their *BrainReserve's* methodology used to measure any specific target (it could be a service, product, marketing/advertising concepts, a business or an industry), against their trends to determine whether there is a "fit". They call this process *ClickScreen*. Popcorn and Marigold (1996:455) define their term *ClickScreen* as a "way to match your ideas against the Trends".

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:326) advise that the core idea must first be tested against the *ClickScreen*, before the other factors, such as financing, location or family matters are considered. The authors do not only refer to business decisions, but consumers can also use the *ClickScreen* to evaluate their next career move, their choice of university main subject, a business idea or a product that was invented (Popcorn & Marigold 1996:326-327). In this study, the researcher will apply the trends in the field of IMC (see Chapter 6).

According to Popcorn and Marigold (1996:328) the *ClickScreen* is a filter through which marketers can determine:

- *Trend-worthiness*: The marketer can ask whether, for example, the advertising approach or the product packaging have a good fit when compared against Popcorn's trends?
- *Longevity*: Will the product or service keep up to the needs of consumers over a long period of time, or will it merely address a temporary fad?
- *Viability*: Does the advertising approach or product packaging, for example, appeal to a large target audience or only a small selection of consumers? Is the audience large enough to be economically viable?

Popcorn and Marigold (1996:328) have repeatedly found that very successful ideas are supported by at least four of their trends. Marketers find it worthwhile to pursue an idea when the idea is in "sync" with several trends. *BrainReserve* uses the rule that four trends must be observable when they make decisions on their clients' businesses.

This *ClickScreen* process is described by Popcorn and Marigold (1996:328-329) as follows:

- Write down a list of the trends vertically on the left-hand side or type it into a computer;
- Make headings by using other horizontal columns across the top of the page, for example "Yes", "No", "Maybe" or "Possible Change";
- Title the page with a brief explanation of the idea;
- Take each trend (for example Popcorn's trends in 3.5.1 and 3.5.2) and consider how well the idea is supported by that trend. The question can be asked whether the idea perfectly fits in with the trend, or if it just misses the trend, or will never be able to meet the trend;
- If the idea seems to meet the trend, the marketer can look at making it meet the trend even more; and
- If the idea does not meet or it seems that it will never meet the idea, look at ways to reshape the idea to bring it more in line with the trend.

Knowledge of consumer trends, such as those identified by Faith Popcorn, can indicate new opportunities for organisations to adapt their IMC strategies accordingly. Marketers need to be aware of the different trends influencing consumers' decisions. Marketers need to incorporate these trends when deciding on the approach to be followed when communicating

their marketing messages. Recommendations towards incorporating Popcorn's consumer trends when developing an IMC strategy will be made in Chapter 6.

3.8 SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to establish a link between IMC and the study of consumer behaviour, while investigating the nature of consumer trends.

It was found that an understanding of consumer behaviour serves as a foundation for effective marketing strategy formulation, and subsequently IMC planning. To place the study within the context of consumer behaviour, attention was given to the models of human behaviour and consumer behaviour (with specific emphasis on the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard model of consumer behaviour). It was established that consumer trends can be regarded as individual differences influencing the decision-making process of consumers. Marketers are concerned with influencing the decision-making process of consumers, which emphasises the necessity of being informed about consumer trends.

The importance of consumer trends was highlighted and ten consumer trends by Popcorn (1991) were discussed. The trends included were *Cocooning*, *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive*, *The Vigilante Consumer*, *99 Lives* and *SOS (Save our Society)*. Faith Popcorn's additional trends subsequent to her work in 1991 were also discussed to illustrate that although certain trends remain unchanged through decades, other trends alter or entirely new trends develop among consumers. Alternative perspectives on consumer trends, including some South African examples, were provided. It was explained that futurist authors use different points of departure when discussing consumer trends and making comparison with the trends of Faith Popcorn difficult.

In conclusion, it became evident that a consumer-centric approach was central in IMC. Pointers were provided for developing a consumer-centric vision in organisations. It was illustrated that database management will continue to play a central role in creating conversations with consumers in order to reap the benefits of building long-term relationships. An existing model was used to illustrate the relationship between database management and interactive IMC. Consumer data, such as the information obtained in this study, can be turned into meaningful information to assist in segmenting target markets during the IMC planning process.

The next chapter will address the methodology used in the empirical research.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY: EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

in Chapter 1, the primary objective of this study was formulated as to determine whether the ten consumer trends, based on the work of Popcorn (1991), occur among NWU staff and have relevance for the development of an IMC strategy. This study was undertaken to obtain knowledge on consumer trends in the South African context.

In the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3 it was argued that Faith Popcorn's consumer trends are relevant for the development of an IMC strategy, as they contribute towards obtaining information used in market segmentation and help marketers become more customer-focused and employees to become more customer-conscious. The consumer trends can be seen as individual differences of lifestyle influencing consumer decision-making.

This chapter will provide a theoretical perspective on the methodology used in the empirical study. Details will be provided on the research approach, the research process, sampling, the questionnaire design, the survey procedure, data capturing and methods used for analysis. The research method used in a study is crucial for the validity and reliability of the study and therefore careful consideration was given to the different methods that are available. The discussion of the methodology in this chapter also explains the manner in which the results will be presented in Chapter 5.

4.2 DEFINITION OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM, OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS

The problem statement and definition of the research problem are very important for meeting the objectives set for a research study (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:64). The research problem for the study can be derived from considering the theoretical foundation captured in Chapters 2 and 3.

4.2.1 Problem definition

The problem statement for the study may be formulated as follows:

The research problem that directs the study, as stated and defined in Chapter 1, is that a limited amount of research results are available on consumer trends in South Africa. The consumer is the focus point of IMC, and therefore research on consumer trends will be relevant to the formulation of IMC strategies. Popcorn's work is valued among American marketers (Lewis 2000; Kotler 2003) and therefore it will be useful to determine whether the trends exist among a selected segment of the South African market.

The first sub-problem is to determine whether the ten consumer trends reported by Popcorn (1991) occur among the respondents. The second sub-problem is to determine to what extent each trend occurs among respondents, and the third sub-problem is to evaluate the relevance and applicability of the identified trends in the development of an IMC strategy.

From the above, it could be inferred that marketers need to understand the behaviour of South African consumers by focusing on the existence of consumer trends. Research in this field is of the utmost importance if marketers are to include these trends in developing marketing communication strategies.

4.2.2 Research objectives

4.2.2.1 Primary research objective

To determine whether the ten consumer trends identified by Popcorn (1991) are relevant to the staff members of the NWU.

4.2.2.2 Secondary research objectives

The following secondary research objectives will contribute towards achieving the primary objective:

Secondary research objective 1:

- To determine the various degrees of occurrence or absence of the ten consumer trends.

Secondary research objective 2:

- To determine whether a relationship exists between the occurrence or absence of the trends and demographic factors such as gender, ethnic group, age, level of education and income group.

Secondary research objective 3:

- To provide theoretical points of departure with regard to the integration of these consumer trends into the formulation of an IMC strategy.

4.2.3 Research questions

To answer the research questions, the objectives of the study will be addressed while adding to the existing body of scientific knowledge.

4.2.3.1 Primary research question

The primary research question of this study is: Do the ten consumer trends identified by Faith Popcorn in the American marketplace also occur among the staff members of the NWU? And if so, how can knowledge about these trends be used to formulate more effective IMC strategies?

4.2.3.2 Secondary research questions

The following secondary research questions will aim to answer the primary research question of the study:

- Q1 What are the various degrees of occurrence or absence of the ten consumer trends among the staff of the NWU?
- Q2 Does a relationship exist between the occurrence or absence of the trends and demographic factors such as gender, ethnic group, age, level of education and income group among the staff of the NWU?
- Q3 Does the degree of occurrence of the ten consumer trends have any implication for an integrated marketing communication strategy?

By conducting the study and answering the research questions, the researcher wishes to achieve the research objectives, while filling the gap in the existing body of scientific knowledge.

Table 4.1 lists the secondary objectives of the study, together with the research questions applicable to each objective (the secondary objectives will contribute towards achieving the primary objective, namely to determine the occurrence of the consumer trends among the NWU staff).

Table 4.1: RELATION OF OBJECTIVES TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Secondary research objective	Applicable research question
(i) Determine the various degrees of occurrence or absence of the ten consumer trends.	Q1
(ii) Determine whether a relationship exists between the occurrence or absence of the trends and demographic factors such as gender, ethnic group, age, level of education and income group.	Q2
(iii) Provide theoretical points of departure with regard to the integration of these consumer trends into the formulation of an integrated marketing communications strategy.	Q3

In Table 4.1 the objectives set for the study are addressed by the formulated research questions. The questions that will be included in the final questionnaire will match the formulated research questions to ensure that the objectives set for the study are achieved.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

In this study the ten consumer trends identified by Popcorn (1991) will be used as the foundation for conducting the study. As discussed in Chapter 1, the focus specifically falls on the ten initial trends, and excludes any further trends identified. For the purpose of the study a descriptive approach will be followed, in which descriptive statements make assumptions and claims about a given subject (Mouton 1996:102).

4.3.1 A descriptive research design

A research design can be viewed as the framework used to guide the collection and analyses of data in order to complete a study. The research design ensures that the study is relevant to the problem and will use economical research methods (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:90).

The fundamental objective of this research project can be described in terms of a descriptive research study. According to Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:91) the descriptive study focuses on determining the frequency of occurrences or the relationship between two variables. The descriptive study can be guided by an initial hypothesis. Tustin *et al.* (2005:87) add that since the underlying relationships of the problem are known, descriptive research hypotheses, or alternatively, research questions, often exist. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:91) provide an example of a descriptive study where the trends in the consumption of cold drinks are investigated according to demographic characteristics or geographic location.

Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:107) point out that a large number of marketing research can be described as descriptive research. A descriptive research design is appropriate when the objectives are as follows:

- To describe the characteristics of certain market sections, for example when information is obtained to develop profiles of consumers according to income, gender, product usage, hobbies etc.
- To estimate the proportion of consumers in a specific group with specific behavioural patterns.
- To predict future behaviours and actions of consumers to be able to address a specific need or want.

Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006:279) explain that psychographics (a term introduced earlier in the discussion of the EBM model's individual influences in Chapter 3 (see 3.4.1) are an operational technique to measure lifestyle trends of specific groups. Psychographics provide quantitative measures and can be used with the large samples needed when defining market segments. AIO statements (referring to activities, interests and opinions of consumers) may be presented to respondents with Likert scales, in which individuals are asked whether they strongly agree, agree, are neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree. The study is dealt with from the viewpoint of psychographics and using AIO statements to obtain an overview of a market segment's consumer trends characteristics.

According to Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:108-109) the researcher should be very clear about the population of the study, the subject of investigation, the time frame of the research, what the objectives are, and the methods to be used in the descriptive design. Once the information has been collected and analysis is begun, it is difficult to alter the study.

Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:109) propose that in order for a descriptive study to address its objectives, a researcher must identify which question will address a specific objective, the reason why a question is included and the statistical analysis in which a question will be used.

One form of a descriptive study is a cross-sectional design. A cross-sectional study involves a sample of elements from the population of interest. Various characteristics of the sample members are measured once (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:110). In the following section a cross-sectional analysis will be discussed.

4.3.1.1 Cross-Sectional Analysis

Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:117) point out that the cross-sectional study is a well-known type of descriptive design. The cross-sectional study has two main characteristics, namely: (i) it provides an overview of the variables of interest at a single point in time, as opposed to the longitudinal study, which provides a series of measurements that, when pieced together, provide a “movie” of the situation and the changes that are taking place; and (ii) the sample of elements is normally chosen to represent a certain group of people or objects. It is therefore important to select the correct sample members, usually by using a probability sampling plan, and therefore the technique is often called a **sample survey** (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:117)

The objective of **cross-classification analysis** is to establish categories in order that classification in one category implies classification in one or more other categories. Cross-classification involves obtaining a numerical count of the simultaneous occurrence or measurement of the variables of under investigation (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:118).

Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:122) conclude that descriptive studies can be inflexible since it requires a precise specification of the who, what, when, where, why, and how of the research. A descriptive study is based on one or more specific hypotheses (or, as in the case of this study, research questions). This research design is used when the research is intended to describe the characteristics of certain groups, to estimate the proportion of people who behave in a certain way, or to make predictions.

In the case of this study a cross-sectional study, or sample survey, was used. It relies on a sample of elements from the population of interest that are measured at a single point in time. A great deal of emphasis is placed on the scientific generation of the sample so that the members are representative of the population of interest. The results of a typical sample

survey rest heavily on the cross-classification table, which is used to report the joint occurrence of the variables of interest (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:122). Surveys will be discussed in 4.5.2.

4.4 INFORMATION SOURCES

In research two types of information sources may be used, namely primary and secondary sources of data. According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:88-89) primary data can be described as information collected specifically for the purpose of an intended research study. Secondary data, on the other hand, can be described as already available statistics collected for another purpose and not for the study at hand.

Types of secondary data include internal data, which is information accumulated within the organisation, whereas external data is data obtained from outside sources, such as libraries, internet databases and searches, market research companies, government and trade associations (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:196). According to Lehmann, Gupta and Steckel (1998:87) primary data sources may include observation, focus groups, in-depth interviews, surveys, participant-observer, panels, experiments and models/simulations.

Both primary and secondary types of data were used in this study. In Chapter 1, 2 and 3 secondary sources of data were used to form the theoretical foundation of the study. In the remaining chapters, primary research data obtained from the empirical study will be discussed.

4.5 RESEARCH PROCESS

When performing a research study, either a qualitative or quantitative approach or a combination thereof may be used.

According to Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:216) qualitative research could be used in exploratory designs to obtain preliminary insights into researchable problems and opportunities. Qualitative research designs can also be used to obtain detailed and in-depth knowledge on a subject. Quantitative studies, on the other hand, are generally preferable when numerical information or predictions are required (Lehmann, Gupta & Steckel 1998:89). Mouton (1996:95) adds that a variable may be seen as quantitative when its values or categories are constructed of numbers. The differences between the categories in variables can be reported numerically.

Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:216) point out that quantitative research emphasises the use of formalised/structured questions and predetermined response options in questionnaires or surveys administered to large numbers of respondents. According to Coldwell and Herbst (2004:15) the quantitative approach in essence describes, infers and resolves problems by placing an emphasis on the collection of numerical data, the summary of those data and the drawing of inferences from the data.

Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:216) propose that the main objective of quantitative research is to generate marketing information for use by an organisation's decision makers by (i) making accurate forecasts about relationships between market factors and consumer behaviours, (ii) gaining an understanding of those relationships, and (iii) verifying or validating existing relationships.

De Vaus (2001:10) claims that social surveys and experiments are frequently viewed as excellent examples of quantitative research and are evaluated against the strengths and weaknesses of statistical, quantitative research methods and analysis. In this study a quantitative approach will be followed by making use of self-administered primary data collection techniques. Primary research data will be gathered making use of questionnaires in a sample survey. The decision was made to incorporate a quantitative design after consideration of the study's research problem. The objective was to include a large number of respondents in order to determine whether the ten constructs occurred and to obtain valid and reliable data. A quantitative survey design was found to be more practical and economical than a qualitative research design. Although other data collection methods are available, the focus will be on surveys, the method to be used in this study.

4.5.1 Pilot study

A pilot study or pre-test, according to Lehmann, Gupta and Steckel (1998:191), is performed to identify fundamental problems in a survey to be corrected before a study commences. Pre-tests determine (i) whether there are a high number of non-responses to particular questions, (ii) whether the questions discriminate (respondents give different answers), and (iii) whether respondents are able to complete and understand the questions. According to Brace (2004:163) a first draft of a questionnaire is rarely the final version. Questionnaires need revising and testing to obtain the best possible questionnaire, and this should be an integral part of the research process.

Lehmann, Gupta and Steckel (1998:191) explain that it is better to use pre-tests, especially if convenience samples are used at most of the stages. A questionnaire which does not

change between initial drafting and field execution is probably one which has not been carefully examined. According to Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:351) the most ideal test to examine the effectiveness of a questionnaire is to determine how it performs under actual conditions of information collection.

The following reasons for pre-testing questionnaires are provided by Brace (2004:165-166):

- Are the questions worded correctly?
- Do the interviewers have an understanding of the questions' content?
- Do respondents understand the questions?
- Can any ambiguous questions, double-barrelled questions, loaded or leading questions be identified?
- Are questions easy to answer?
- Are the response options provided sufficient?
- Do the response options provide sufficient discrimination? (in other words, two questions do not indicate the same answers)
- Does the questionnaire retain the attention of the respondents throughout?
- Can the respondents understand the routing instructions in the questionnaire?
- Do the questions and the responses answer the objectives?
- How long does the questionnaire take to complete?

Keeping the above guidelines in mind, a pilot study was carried out among colleagues of the researcher (these participants were also a part of the study's sample), to determine the time it takes to complete the questionnaire and to identify any problems in completing or understanding the questions. Colleagues may not be thought to be the ideal sample for testing questionnaires, but it has been shown that people with a knowledge of questionnaire design are more likely to pick up errors in questions than are people who are not (Brace 2004:166). According to Brace (2004:169), a number of "Don't know" responses or no responses to questions may indicate a problem with those questions.

4.5.1.1 Execution of the pilot study

In October 2005 a pilot study was undertaken among 10 permanent staff members of the Department of Marketing and Communication at the NWU as one unit within the broader

context of the institution. The methodological orientation adopted for this pilot study was also a quantitative orientation – in accordance with the study. Self-administered questionnaires were e-mailed to the respondents, with an accompanying letter explaining the objective of the pilot study. The respondents completed the questionnaire electronically and it was returned to the researcher via e-mail. The researcher visited the respondents in person to discuss any problems with the questionnaire's layout, wording, sequence of questions and the electronic format.

4.5.1.2 Results of the pilot study

There is no time limit to completing self-administered questionnaires, but an indication of 10 minutes for completing the questionnaire seemed sufficient for the average respondent to read and answer the questions.

The objectives of the pilot study were:

- to test the questionnaire for clarity and effective question compilation;
- to determine whether the questionnaire is likely to indicate specific constructs, namely the ten different consumer trends; and
- to refine the questionnaire used in the final quantitative data collection phase.

A total of four respondents suggested alterations to the wording of some questions. The captured demographic data was then analysed by the Statistical Consultation Service at the NWU, using the SAS and Statistica programmes, and more alterations were proposed to the wording of some questions (SAS Institute Inc. 2003; StatSoft, Inc. 2004; SAS Institute Inc. 2005). However, a factor analysis could not be performed since too few respondents were included in the pilot study, due to time constraints. The questionnaire's coding method was scrutinised to enable the questionnaires to be easily processed.

The results from the pilot study proved that some questions had to be reworded to read more clearly. The first draft included a 4-point Likert scale in Section A and did not include the option for "Do not disagree nor agree". A total of nine respondents felt that they needed this particular option since they had a neutral response to some questions. The Statistical Consultation Services also agreed that a neutral option was required to provide an option for respondents who did not wish to choose between the "definitely agree", "agree", "do not agree" and "definitely do not agree" options of the Likert scale.

Afrikaans and English versions of the questionnaire and cover letters were sent to a translator for editing and proofreading and final alterations were then performed.

4.5.2 Surveys

A survey may be seen as a “[c]ross-sectional study in which the sample is selected to be representative of the target population and in which the emphasis is on the generation of summary statistics such as averages and percentages” (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:981).

Different types of survey data collection methods can be classified, namely person-administered, self-administered, or telephone-administered and automatic or computer-assisted survey techniques (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:255). Coldwell and Herbst (2004:47) define the term *survey* as referring to research procedures in which questionnaires and/or interviews are used. In most cases, questionnaires are self-administered, allowing respondents to complete them on their own. The researcher arranges the delivery and collection of questionnaires. An interview typically occurs whenever a researcher and respondent are face-to-face or communicating via some technology like a telephone or computer. The different survey data collection methods are outlined in Table 4.2 on the next page.

Table 4.2: TYPES OF SURVEY DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Type of survey research	Description
Person-Administered	
In-home interview	An interview takes place in the respondent's home or within the respondent's work environment.
Executive interview	A business executive is interviewed in person.
Mail-intercept interview	Customers are stopped and asked for feedback during their visit to a shopping mall.
Purchase-intercept interview	The respondent is stopped and asked for feedback at the point of purchase.
Telephone-Administered	
Telephone interview	An interview takes place over the telephone. Interviews may be conducted from a central telephone location or the interviewer's home.
Computer-assisted telephone interview (CATI)	A computer is used to conduct a telephone interview; respondents give answers by pushing buttons on their phone.
Self-Administered	
Mail panel survey	Surveys are mailed to a representative sample of individuals who have agreed in advance to participate.
Drop-off survey	Questionnaires are left with the respondent to be completed at a later time. The surveys may be picked up by the researcher or returned via mail.
Mail survey	Questionnaires are distributed to and returned from respondents via the postal service.
Computer-Assisted	
Fax survey	Surveys are distributed to and returned from respondents via fax machines.
E-mail survey	Surveys are distributed to and returned from respondents via electronic mail.
Internet survey	The Internet is used to ask questions and record responses from respondents.

Source: Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:256)

Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:254) observe that advantages of survey data collection methods include the following:

- The ability to accommodate large samples sizes which increases the generalisability of results;

- An ability to identify and discriminate between small differences;
- Effective administering and recording of questions and answers;
- Capabilities of using advanced statistical analysis; and
- Abilities of obtaining data on factors and relationships not directly measurable.

Disadvantages of using survey data collection methods may include (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:254):

- Researchers experience difficulty to develop accurate survey instruments, such as questionnaires;
- Limits to the in-depth detail of data structures;
- Lack of control over timeliness in respondents' completion of questionnaires;
- Potentially low response rates;
- Difficulties in determining whether respondents are responding truthfully; and
- Misinterpretations of data results and inappropriate use of data analysis procedures.
- In case of mail, email or telephonic surveys, respondent identification may be difficult.

The different survey data collection methods as discussed in Table 4.2, have their own distinctive advantages and disadvantages. The strengths and weaknesses of a selection of methods most often used in marketing research are discussed in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF SURVEY DATA COLLECTION METHODS IN TERMS OF QUALITY OF DATA PRODUCED

Method	Strengths	Weaknesses
Self-administered Mall-intercept interview	Interviewer can show, explain and probe.	Many distractions are inherent in the mall environment; respondent may be in a hurry, not in proper frame of mind to answer survey questions; there is more chance for interviewer bias; non-probability sampling problems arise.
Telephone-administered Central-location telephone interview	Supervisor can monitor the interviewing process easily; excellent samples can be obtained; interviewer can explain and probe.	Respondent may be distracted by things going on at their location; problems arise in long interviews and interviews with many open-ended questions. Many refuse to participate.
Self-administered Self-administered questionnaire	Interviewer and associated biases are eliminated; respondent can complete the questionnaire when convenient; respondent can look up information and work at own pace.	There is no interviewer to show, explain or probe; sample may be unacceptable because of non-response; who actually completes the questionnaire cannot be controlled.
Mail survey	Same strengths as for self-administered method.	Same weaknesses as for self-administered questionnaire; sample quality is better with mail panel.
Computer-assisted Online survey	Administration is inexpensive; data can be gathered quickly; questions can be readily personalized; response rates are high; especially for the hard-to-reach; panel management is easy.	Users may not be representative of whole population; privacy concerns may arise; unrestricted sample provides skewed results; possibility of errors; downloading problems.

Source: McDaniel and Gates (2005:176)

According to McDaniel and Gates (2005:173) a number of factors may affect the choice of a survey method selected in a given situation. The researcher should choose the survey method that will provide data of the desired population, quality and quantity at the lowest cost. The major considerations in the selection of a survey method are summarised in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: FACTORS THAT DETERMINE THE SELECTION OF A PARTICULAR SURVEY METHOD

Factor	Comment
Sampling precision	If the need for accuracy in the study results is not high, less rigorous and less expensive sampling procedures may be appropriate.
Budget	It is important to determine how much money is available for the survey.
Need to expose respondent to various stimuli and have respondent perform specialized tasks	Taste tests and prototype usage tests usually require face-to-face contact. Card sorts, certain visual scaling methods, and the like require either face-to-face contact or the Internet.
Quality of data required	It is important to determine what level of results accuracy is required.
Length of questionnaire	Long questionnaires are difficult to do by mail, over the phone, or in a mall.
Incidence rate	Are the researcher looking for people who represent 1 percent of the total population of 50 percent of the population? If the researcher is looking for a needle in a haystack, you need an inexpensive way to find it. The Internet for example the Internet, to find it.
Degree of structure of questionnaire	Highly unstructured questionnaires may require data collection by personal interview.
Time available to complete survey	There may not be time to wait for responses via the postal services. The Internet is the fastest way to obtain responses.

Source: McDaniel and Gates (2005:174)

After consideration of the different data collection methods available in surveys and the advantages and disadvantages of each, a decision was made to use a self-administered survey, by means of which the respondent reads the survey questions and records his or her own answers without the presence of an interviewer. This self-administered survey questionnaire was designed according to the research objectives and analysed to obtain the answers to the research problems.

The researcher made use of different methods of delivering the self-administered questionnaire, as it is quite common for several data-collection methods to be used in the same research study (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:262). Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:262) argue that sending multiple copies of a mail survey questionnaire to non-respondents are a useful way to improve the response rate. At the Mafikeng campus the researcher made use of a drop-off survey, where a self-administered questionnaire was hand-delivered to respondents and the completed questionnaires were returned by mail. At the Potchefstroom and Vanderbijlpark campuses two methods were used: firstly, the respondents received the cover letter and questionnaire by means of e-mail, and secondly, after a period of time

passed after the e-mail, participants who did not participate in the e-mail questionnaire received a self-administered questionnaire in the internal mail, with a self-addressed envelope to return the completed questionnaire to the researcher.

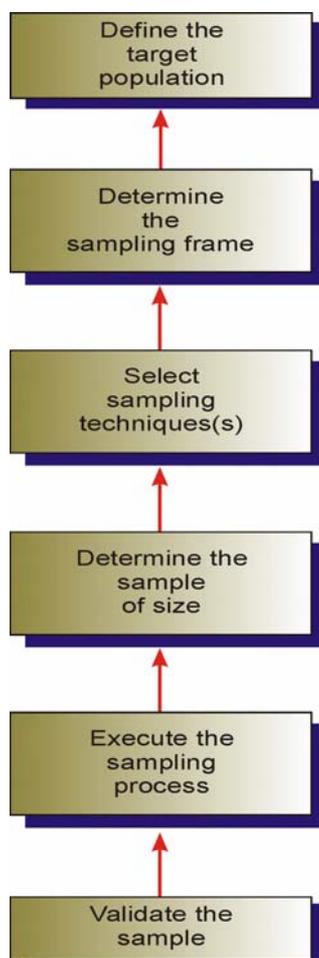
A cover letter was included with the questionnaire which was e-mailed, mailed or personally delivered to the participants. The cover letter explained the purpose of the study, requested the respondent to reply, provided instructions on how the reply and gave information about a lucky draw with a voucher from Woolworths. According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:191) research has showed that incentives or rewards may increase the response rate in studies. The sampling procedure will be discussed in more details in 4.6.

4.6 SAMPLING

The basic idea of sampling, Cooper and Schindler (1998:215) explain, is that by selecting a selection of elements in a population, conclusions about the entire population may be drawn. A population element is the subject on which the measurement is being taken. It is the unit of study. A **population**, in particular, is the total collection of elements about which a researcher makes inferences and generalisations.

A distinction can be drawn between a census and a sample. According to Cooper and Schindler (1998:356) a **census** is a collection of data obtained from or about the total number of members of the population of interest. A census is seldom employed in marketing research, due to its magnitude, cost and time. On the other hand, a **sample** refers to a subset of all the members of a population. Information is obtained from or about a sample and used to make estimates about various characteristics of the total population.

Malhotra (1999:329) identified five steps of the sampling design process and added a sixth step, namely "validate the sample" (Malhotra and Birks 2006:358). The process of developing an operational sampling plan is summarised in six steps in Figure 4.1:

Figure 4.1: THE SAMPLING DESIGN PROCESS

Source: Malhotra and Birks (2006:358)

Step One: Define the population of interest

The first step in sampling design is the specification of the population of interest (McDaniel & Gates 2005:358). According to Malhotra and Birks (2006:358) the target population is the group of elements or objects who possess the information needed by the researcher and about which measurements and inferences are to be made. Defining the target population involves translating the problem definition into a precise statement of who should be included in or excluded from the sample.

For the purpose of this study, all permanent academic and support staff members were included to represent the population of the study. It is important to note that although the university's statistics provided a number of 2 116 permanent staff members, the realised research unit included 1 904 staff members. Individuals from the geographic area of the

three campuses of the NWU were included in the study (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: ESTIMATED NUMBER OF PERMANENT AND TEMPORARY STAFF MEMBERS AT THE NWU (JULY 2005)

	Potchefstroom	Vanderbijlpark	Mafikeng	Total
Permanent academic staff members	547	78	110	
Permanent support staff members	1007	81	293	
Total permanent staff members	1554	159	403	2116 (realised sample unit included in study was 1 904)
Temporary academic staff members	237	58	27	
Temporary support staff members	1175	59	70	
Total temporary staff members	1412	117	97	1626
Total	2966	276	500	3742

Source: North-West University (2005)

A summary of the total numbers of academic and support staff is provided in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: ESTIMATED TOTAL NUMBERS OF ACADEMIC AND SUPPORT STAFF MEMBERS AT THE NWU (JULY 2005)

	Potchefstroom	Vanderbijlpark	Mafikeng	Total
Academic staff members	784	136	137	1057
Support staff members	2182	140	363	2685
Total	2966	276	500	3742

Source: North-West University (2005)

In Table 4.7 a statistical indication is provided of the gender division at the University, with specific reference to temporary and permanent staff.

Table 4.7: GENDER ANALYSIS AT THE NWU (JULY 2005)

	Potchefstroom	Vanderbijlpark	Mafikeng	Total
Permanent male staff members	682	78	203	1767
Temporary male staff members	664	60	80	
Permanent female staff members	872	81	200	1975
Temporary female staff members	748	57	17	
Total	2996	276	500	3742

Source: North-West University (2005)

An ethnic analysis of the total number of staff members of the NWU is provided in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: ETHNIC ANALYSIS OF THE NWU (JULY 2005)

	Potchefstroom	Vanderbijlpark	Mafikeng	Total
Asian	19	1	5	25
Black	479	71	470	1020
Coloured	64	0	3	67
White	2404	204	22	2630
Total	2966	276	500	3742

Source: North-West University (2005)

Step Two: Identify a sampling frame

The sampling frame is a list of the members or elements of the population from which respondents or units to be sampled are to be selected (McDaniel & Gates 2005:359). Examples of a sampling frame, according to Malhotra and Birks (2006:359), include telephone directories, an association directory, listing the firms in an industry, a mailing list purchased from organisations, a city directory or a map. McDaniel and Gates (2005:359) add that identifying the sampling frame may simply mean specifying a procedure for generating a list of possible respondents.

According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:343) a reliable sample frame adhere to several requirements, namely:

- It is complete, in other words it includes all population members;
- It does not contain duplicate entries of individual population elements; and
- It is accurate and exclude additional populations, apart from the population of interest.

For the purpose of this study, a printed document consisting of labels was obtained from the Human Resources Department at the Potchefstroom Campus of the NWU for the staff of the Potchefstroom and Vanderbijlpark campuses. This list included information on all staff members of the NWU and was numerically sorted by staff member number according to (i) permanent or temporary employment status (ii) campus, (iii) department, and (iiii) name.

A printed document was also obtained from the Human Resources Department at the Mafikeng campus of the NWU, containing the names and divisions of their permanent staff members.

It was decided to include only the permanent staff members, in order to make the study more manageable and economical.

Step Three: Select a sampling technique

The third step in the sampling process involves selecting an appropriate sampling technique. An important decision is to choose between making use of probability or non-probability sampling. According to McDaniel and Gates (2005:362) **non-probability samples** are those in which specific elements from the population have been selected in a non-random manner. Non-randomness results when population elements are selected on the basis of convenience – because they are easy or inexpensive to reach. Purposeful non-randomness occurs when a sampling plan systematically excludes or over-represents certain subsets of the population. Tustin *et al.* (2005:344) add that non-probability sampling is performed according to the researcher's discretion.

According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:344) the researcher can obtain a statistical indication of sampling error when probability sampling was used, therefore enabling the researcher to determine how likely the sample is to be unrepresentative and to what degree. In cases where samples were drawn by means of non-probability methods, an assessment of the representativeness is not possible.

Tustin *et al.* (2005:346-349) argue that non-probability sampling can exist of five sampling methods, namely (i) convenience sampling; (ii) judgemental sampling; (iii) purposive sampling; (iv) quota sampling; and (v) multiplicity (snowball) sampling.

(i) Convenience sampling

This is a useful method to be followed during the exploratory phase of a research study. Sample members are chosen on the basis of being available or accessible, and therefore respondents are selected on the basis of convenience (Tustin *et al.* 2005:346).

(ii) Judgemental sampling

Members are selected on the basis of the researcher's judgement on what constitutes a representative sample of the population of interest. According to this sampling method, potential sample members are screened judgementally on their value to the research, were they to be included (Tustin *et al.* 2005:346).

(iii) Purposive sampling

When using purposive sampling, the sample members are selected with a specific research objective in mind. It is the intention of the researcher that the selected sample do not represent the population (Tustin *et al.* 2005:346).

(iv) Quota sampling

During quota sampling, sample members are selected because they adhere to specific pre-determined criteria considered to apply to the population of interest (Tustin *et al.* 2005:347).

(v) Multiplicity (snowball) sampling

In multiplicity sampling, the sample members are initially selected either judgementally or through a probability sampling method, and are subsequently asked to identify other respondents with the required characteristics. By using this method, the final sample frame is constructed from the referrals provided by the initial respondents (Tustin *et al.* 2005:349).

Probability samples, on the other hand, are selected in such a way that every element of the population has a known, nonzero likelihood of being included. Simple random sampling is the best known and most widely used probability sampling method. With probability sampling, the researcher must closely adhere to precise selection procedures that avoid arbitrary or biased selection of sample elements. When these procedures are followed

strictly, the laws of probability hold, allowing calculation of the extent to which a sample value can be expected to differ from a population value. This difference is referred to as **sampling error** (McDaniel & Gates 2005:362). According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:375) **non-sampling error**, on the other hand, includes measurement errors (i.e. respondent, interviewer, questionnaire design or coding/capturing errors) and non-response errors (i.e. unavailable/willing; unavailable/unwilling or available/unwilling participants).

A variety of different probability sampling techniques can be identified. Of these techniques, simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling are provided by various authors (Lehmann, Gupta & Steckel 1998:293-303; Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:458-490; Coldwell & Herbst 2004:80-81; Malhotra & Birks 2006:367-373), as will be discussed below.

According to Coldwell and Herbst (2004:80) a **simple random sample (SRS)** ensures that every unit in the sampling frame has an equal chance of being selected. A simple random sample is obtained by choosing elementary units in such a way that each unit in the population has an equal chance of being selected. A simple random sample is free from sampling bias.

When using **systematic sampling**, the sample is obtained by selecting a random starting point and then picking every i -th element in succession from the sampling frame. The sampling interval, i , is determined by dividing the population size N by the sample size n and rounding to the nearest whole number (Malhotra & Birks 2006:368).

Stratified sampling, as described by Malhotra and Birks (2006:369), is a two-step process in which the population is divided into sub-populations or strata. The strata or sub-populations should be mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive in that every population element should be assigned to a specific stratum, and no population elements should be omitted. Elements are then selected from each stratum by a random procedure, usually through simple random sampling. Technically, only simple random sampling should be used in selecting the elements from each stratum. In practice, sometimes systematic sampling and other probability sampling procedures are employed. Stratified sampling differs from quota sampling in that the sample elements are selected probabilistically rather than based on convenience or judgement. A major objective of stratified sampling is to increase accuracy of data obtained without increasing cost.

Coldwell and Herbst (2004:80-81) point out that in a **cluster sample**, the specific population is grouped into aggregates (clusters) based on their proximity to each other. The objective is

that each cluster must act as a miniature representation of the total population. A sample can be drawn by randomly selecting one cluster and using all elements/units in that cluster (one-stage cluster sampling) or randomly selecting units from these clusters for study (two-stage cluster sampling)

To provide an overview, the strengths and weaknesses of the different probability sampling techniques are summarised by Malhotra and Birks (2006:374).

Table 4.9: STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF PROBABILITY SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Technique	Strengths	Weaknesses
Simple random sampling (SRS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easily understood • Results projectable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficult to construct sampling frame • Expensive • Lower precision • No assurance of representativeness
Systematic sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can increase representativeness • Easier to implement than SRS • Sampling frame not always necessary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can decrease representativeness
Stratified sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes all important subpopulations • Precision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficult to select relevant stratification variables • Not feasible to stratify on many variables • Expensive
Cluster sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easy to implement • Cost effective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imprecise • Difficult to compute • Interpret results

Source: Adapted from Malhotra and Birks (2006:374)

After consideration of the different sampling methods, the researcher decided to make use of non-probability sampling, where 100% of the permanent staff members of the NWU were selected from the sampling frame to be included in the sample. Firstly, the researcher decided to make use of NWU staff members because it was convenient. Secondly, the researcher made use of judgemental sampling when the researcher decided to only include permanent staff members, apart from using all permanent and non-permanent staff. The reason for including only permanent staff members was to make the survey more manageable and economical.

Step Four: Determine the sample size

According to Malhotra and Birks (2006:360) sample size refers to the number of elements or respondents included when research is performed. McDaniel and Gates (2005:384) describe the process of determining sample size for probability samples as involving financial, statistical and managerial issues. A general rule is that the larger the sample, the less the incidence of sampling error.

It was decided to include the entire population of permanent staff members at the NWU's three campuses in the sample. A number of 1 904 questionnaires were distributed and a total of 633 respondents participated in the survey.

The discussion on the different sampling methods was included to illustrate that the different methods were considered before deciding not to make use of sampling. By not making use of sampling within the selected population of permanent staff members, it was ensured that sufficient data was collected to make it possible to perform a factor analysis.

Step Five: Execute the sampling process

The execution stage of the sampling requires a detailed description of how the sampling design decisions will be implemented in the study with respect to the population, sampling frame, sampling unit, sampling technique and sample size (Malhotra & Birks 2006:361).

In this study the sampling frame lists included all permanent staff members.

Step Six: Validate the sample

The validation of the sample refers to the researcher evaluating the respondents with regard to adherence to the target population's criteria, for example demographic or geographic characteristics, etc. This evaluation can eliminate inappropriate elements contained in the sampling frame, but cannot rule out elements that have been omitted (Malhotra & Birks 2006:361-362).

4.7 MEASUREMENT AND MEASUREMENT SCALES

Once the type of research design has been determined, and the information to be obtained specified, the research proceeded to the next phase, namely deciding on the measurement and scaling procedures.

4.7.1 Scales of measurement

In order to understand the subject of attitude measurement, Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:367) explain that it is important to define measurement and be familiar with the types of scales that can be used to measure attitudes. The term *scale* is used in two different contexts when discussing measurement: one use refers to the “level” of measurement while the other to the “particular scale or type” of instrument used (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:367). According to Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:367) measurement comprises of “rules for assigning numbers to objects in such a way as to represent quantities of attributes”. Developing a measurement scale begins with determining the level of measurement that is desired. The next section describes the four basic levels of measurement, namely nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio.

(i) Nominal level of measurement

Nominal scales are among those most commonly used in marketing research. A nominal scale divides data into categories that are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive, implying that every piece of data will fit into a single category and that all data will fit a specific place on the scale: for example, gender will be divided into male and female classifications (McDaniel & Gates 2005:260).

(ii) Ordinal level of measurement

Cooper and Schindler (1998:162) explain that ordinal data includes elements of the nominal scale with the addition of an indicator of ranking. Ordinal data is made possible if the transitivity postulate is fulfilled. This transitivity postulate states that if *a* is greater than *b* and *b* is greater than *c*, then *a* is greater than *c*. The use of an ordinal scale implies a statement “greater than” or “less than”. Malhotra and Birks (2006:295) add that ordinal scales make it possible to determine whether an object possesses a higher or lower level of a characteristic than some other object.

(iii) Interval level of measurement

When an interval scale is employed, numerically equal distances on the scale represent equal values in the characteristic being measured. An interval scale contains the same information included in an ordinal scale, but comparison of differences between objects becomes possible. The difference between any two scale values is identical to the difference between any other two adjacent values of an interval scale. There is a constant or equal interval between scale values, for example measuring temperature. In marketing research,

attitudinal data obtained from rating scales, such as the Likert scale, are often treated as interval data (Malhotra & Birks 2006:296).

(iv) Ratio level of measurement

The fourth level of measurement is ratio scales, which have all of the characteristics of the scales previously discussed as well as a meaningful absolute null or origin so that magnitudes can be compared arithmetically (McDaniel & Gates 2005:263). Physical characteristics of a respondent such as age, weight and height are examples of ratio-scaled variables.

In this study both nominal and interval levels of measurement were used.

4.7.2 Attitude measurement instruments

Brace (2004:86) reports that information on the use of the **Likert scale** was first published by psychologist Rensis Likert in 1932. According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:12) the Likert scale measures attitudes to set statements provided by the questionnaire. A respondent is given a scale of possible responses (usually five) to the question. This ranges from the attitude measure “strongly agree” to the opposite measure of “strongly disagree”.

A Likert scale can be successfully used in self-completion questionnaires. Responses using the Likert scale can be given scores for each statement, usually from 1 to 5 or as negative to positive values, for example -2 to +2. As this is interval data, means and standard deviations can be calculated for each statement (Brace 2004:86).

According to Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:392) some experts believe that a scale needs to offer the option to answer neutrally since not all respondents have enough knowledge or experience with the research topic to be able to accurately assess their opinions. In a case where the respondents were forced to choose between a positive or negative option, the scale may produce lower-quality data than the researcher desires. On the other hand, a neutral response can also prove to be difficult to interpret.

The full application of the Likert scale is to sum the scores for each respondent to establish a total attitudinal score for each individual. Likert's intention was that the statements would represent different aspects of the same attitude. The responses to individual statements are of more interest in determining the specific aspects of attitudes that drive behaviour and choice in a market, or summations are made over small groups of items. In most cases the data will be analysed by means of a factor analysis, in order to identify groups of attitudinal

statements that have similar response patterns and that could therefore represent underlying attitudinal dimensions (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:392).

Brace (2004:87) mentions four interrelated issues of which researchers must be aware of when using Likert scales:

- order effect;
- acquiescence;
- central tendency; and
- pattern answering.

According to Brace (2004:88) an *order effect* stems from the order in which the response codes are presented to respondents. It has been shown that respondents demonstrate a bias to the left of a self-completion questionnaire. Brace (2004:127) elaborates that the order in which questions are presented has an effect on the results. It is difficult to say which order provides the best representation of the truth, but it underlines the importance of being consistent in the order in which scales are shown if comparisons are to be drawn between studies.

A recommendation on avoiding bias caused by the order effect is to rotate the order of presentation between two halves of the sample. This does not remove the bias but at least has the effect of obtaining an average of the effect (Brace 2004:127). Brace (2004:88) also points out that *acquiescence* is the tendency for respondents to agree rather than disagree with statements. Perhaps some respondents may answer in a way they think the researcher wants them to answer. *Central tendency* is the reluctance of respondents to use extreme positions and instead choose a neutral option. It has been shown that a two-stage question elicits a higher proportion of extreme responses. *Pattern answering*, the last issue, occurs when a respondent falls into a routine of ticking boxes in a pattern, which might be straight down the page or diagonally across it. It is often a symptom of fatigue or boredom. A technique to avoid pattern answering is to keep the questionnaire interesting for the respondent. Both positive and negative statements should be included (Brace 2004:88-89).

When compiling a questionnaire, three question formats are distinguished (Aaker, Kumar and Day 2004:314-320):

- *Open-ended (unstructured) questions*: An interview can be conducted with questions that leave the answers up to the respondent, who have the freedom to provide answers as he/she wishes.
- *Semi-structured questions*: These questions are used when it is difficult to determine different responses. The introductory question may be structured to compare it with other interviews, but the follow-up questions may be unstructured.
- *Closed-ended (structured) questions*: Two types of formats are distinguished, namely (i) asking respondents to make a choice from a list of options; and (ii) a rating scale where the respondent must make a choice between a range of labelled categories that represents the range of responses. Examples of closed-ended questions are dichotomous (which allows only two possible answers); multiple-choice (which offers more than two fixed-alternative answers); and scaled answers (of which the Likert scale is an example).

In this study, it was decided to make use of closed-ended questions in order to simplify the analysis of the responses. It was further decided to make use of multiple-choice and scaled questions and answers.

In the following section, the nature of questionnaire design will be discussed, after which the questionnaire design followed in this study will be explained.

4.8 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

A questionnaire is a data-collection instrument which asks formalised questions in order to obtain a collection of desired information (Tustin *et al.* 2005:384-385). The purpose of questionnaire design is to collect relevant data which allows for data comparison, while minimising biases and provide motivation for the respondent to participate in the survey (Tustin *et al.* 2005:387).

During questionnaire design the questions to be asked must be determined while incorporating the research objectives and the survey design to be used. The development process are complex and a series of processes is needed to obtain a questionnaire that will adhere to the study' objectives. It is imperative for a researcher to be able to turn the study

objectives into a set of information requirements, after which questions and a questionnaire must be developed (Brace 2004:11-12).

The aim of the researcher must be to collect information as accurately as possible. However, Brace (2004:13) explains, complete accuracy is almost impossible to obtain in surveys where respondents are asked to report their behaviour or their attitudes. Some problems arise because of problems within the questionnaire's structure itself (Brace 2004:13). These are controllable by the researcher, and may include :

- ambiguity in the question;
- order effects between and within questions;
- inadequate response codes; and
- wrong questions asked because of poor routing.

The following problems may be caused due to problems that the researcher does not control directly, and may influence the collection of accurate and unbiased data:

- questions asked inaccurately by the interviewer;
- failure of the respondent to understand the question;
- failure of the interviewer to record answers accurately or completely;
- failure of the questionnaire to record answers accurately or completely;
- inattention to the interview because of respondent boredom and fatigue;
- mistakes made by the interviewer because of boredom and fatigue;
- desire by the respondent to answer a different question to the one asked;
- failure of remembering specific behaviour;
- inaccuracy of memory regarding time periods;
- asking respondents to describe attitudes on subjects for which they hold no conscious attitude;
- respondents lying intentionally;
- respondents aiming to impress the interviewer;
- respondents not willing to admit their attitudes or behaviour either consciously or subconsciously; and

- respondents trying to influence the outcome of the study and giving answers that they believe will lead to a particular outcome (Brace 2004:13-14).

A group-administered questionnaire is a useful instrument for collecting data from a sample of respondents who can be brought together for the purpose. This type of instrument allows each member of the group to complete his or her own questionnaire and return it to the researcher on completion. Response rates using group-administered questionnaires can be higher than those for mail surveys, as the group is often assembled specifically for the purpose of assisting with the research and the respondents feel personally involved with the work by being handed the questionnaire by the researcher (Wilkinson & Birmingham 2003:10).

On the other hand, self-completion methods can benefit from the complete absence of an interviewer (Brace 2004:36). This removes a major source of potential bias in the responses, and makes it easier for respondents to be honest about sensitive subjects. However, the researcher was aware that self-completion studies can also suffer from the absence of an interviewer to assist in clarifying questions or to probe for more complete answers (Brace 2004:36).

Although self-completion questionnaires are often considerably more cost-effective per interview to administer than interviewer-administered ones, the problem of achieving a representative sample must be considered when there is such a high degree of self-selection as is typical with self-completion studies, and particularly when there is a low response rate (Brace 2004:36).

Before the questionnaire design process began, the researcher aimed to become familiar with Popcorn's methodology. Popcorn (1992:249) provides a framework of the methodology used at *BrainReserve* and is summarised as follows:

- (i) *Project definition*: Firstly, *BrainReserve* determines research objectives; scrutinises any limitations, and compiles a timetable.
- (ii) *Gather input*: They include data collection methods such as client interviews, market visits and expert interviews. Consumer input is also obtained, a consumer trend synopsis is created and the input is analysed. Then a hypotheses is developed and discussed with the client.
- (iii) *Idea development*: Creative and critical thinking and work sessions are arranged between the consumers, client, experts and agency, and concepts are developed.

(iv) *Refinement/presentation*: Consumer input is obtained, concepts are refined, a report is developed and finally presented to their client.

(v) *Implementation*: A follow-up action plan is implemented.

According to the researcher's knowledge, there are no published questionnaires available from the author's books or website. The company, *BrainReserve*, was approached telephonically and via e-mail on various occasions but they did not consent to providing examples of the questionnaires used in their research. It was inferred that their measurement instruments are part of their trade secrets to the success of *BrainReserve* and are treated as confidential. Consequently, the researcher has developed a questionnaire based on an analysis of the definitions provided for each trend, as well as examples of trend behaviour provided by Faith Popcorn.

The questionnaire used in this study was subjected to a pre-test (see 4.5.1), after which it was finalised. The survey questionnaire used in this study was based on the research findings of Faith Popcorn as published in her work of 1991, 1992 and Popcorn and Marigold in 1996. Closed questions and multiple-choice questions were included. The approach used in the multiple-choice questions was the use of 5-point Likert scales, which included a neutral response option. The questionnaire was designed to allow for self-completion without the presence of the researcher.

According to De Vaus (2001:191) it is impossible to be definite about the length of a questionnaire. It will depend on factors such as where the questionnaire is completed, the complexity of the questions, the skills of the interviewer (if an interviewer is used) and also whether the topic is of interest to the participant. Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:17) suggest that a general rule of thumb for the duration of a questionnaire could be twenty minutes (although this study allowed for respondents to take as long as they needed).

The following section will deal with the structure of the questionnaire used in this study.

4.8.1 Questionnaire structure

The questionnaire was divided into two different sections, namely:

Section A: Questions on the consumer trends; and

Section B: Questions on demographic information.

Section A: Consumer trends questions

The questions in Section A were compiled after identifying concepts by analysing the definitions provided by Popcorn and Marigold (1996:29-31) of each trend. The researcher also consulted the examples provided of each trend in the literature. Table 4.10 indicates the trends (variables) to be measured, the concepts identified in order to compile questions, the questions included in the questionnaire to aim to measure the concepts, as well as the scale type used. The data collected through the questions in Tables 4.10 and 4.11 is needed to answer the research questions 1,2 and 3 (see 4.2.3).

Table 4.10: CONSUMER TRENDS QUESTIONS

Trend (variable)	Concepts identified	Question no. in questionnaire	Scale type
Cocooning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> consumers' need to stay at home; strong desire to build comfortable nests; and the need to protect oneself from the uncertainties of the outside world. 	1.1; 1.2; 1.3; 1.4; 1.5	5-point Likert scale
Fantasy Adventure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> consumers' need to break from modern tensions; seeking excitement in almost risk-free adventures, e.g. travel to exotic places, different foods or video games. 	2.1; 2.2; 2.3; 2.4; 2.5	5-point Likert scale
Small Indulgences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> need exists to break from too high expenses; and consumers need to find ways to reward themselves with affordable luxuries. 	3.1; 3.2; 3.3; 3.4; 3.5	5-point Likert scale
Egonomics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> consumers' need to break from the computer era where individualism is not a priority; and need to find ways to make personal statements. 	4.1; 4.2; 4.3; 4.4; 4.5	5-point Likert scale
Cashing Out	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> consumers are questioning the intrinsic value of high-powered careers; need to find fulfilment in leading simpler, more rewarding lives. 	5.1; 5.2; 5.3; 5.4; 5.5	5-point Likert scale

Trend (variable)	Concepts identified	Question no. in questionnaire	Scale type
Down-Aging	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a nostalgia exists for consumers' childhood experiences; need to introduce a lightness into their adult lives. 	6.1; 6.2; 6.3; 6.4; 6.5	5-point Likert scale
Being Alive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> awareness exists among consumers that looking after oneself can add to the quality of life as they become older. 	7.1; 7.2; 7.3; 7.4; 7.5	5-point Likert scale
Vigilante consumer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> consumers' need to express their anger towards companies by pressure, protest and politics. 	8.1; 8.2; 8.3; 8.4; 8.5	5-point Likert scale
99 Lives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> consumers are urged to assume multiple roles in order to cope with their busy lives. 	9.1; 9.2; 9.3; 9.4; 9.5	5-point Likert scale
SOS (Save Our Society)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> consumers are urged to protect their endangered planet; a need exists to rediscover a social conscience based on ethics, passion and compassion. 	10.1; 10.2; 10.3; 10.4; 10.5	5-point Likert scale

Section B: Demographic information questions

In Table 4.11 the demographic questions are provided, with the variable number, as well as the scale type of the question.

Table 4.11: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION QUESTIONS

Demographic variable	Question no. in questionnaire	Scale type
Gender	1.1	Single-response scale
Age	1.2	Multiple choice scale
Home language	1.3	Multiple choice scale
Ethnic group	1.4	Multiple choice scale
Campus of the NWU	1.5	Multiple choice scale
Position held at the NWU	1.6	Multiple choice scale
Highest qualification	1.7	Multiple choice scale
Marriage status	1.8	Multiple choice scale
Gross monthly income of household	1.9	Multiple choice scale
Number of people in your household	1.10	Multiple choice scale
Personnel number (optional question) (variable is not applicable in study)	1.11	Open-ended question

In Tustin *et al.* (2005:389-390) the authors provide the guidelines to successful questionnaire design which were kept in mind when developing the questionnaire:

- Questions must be kept as short as possible.
- If the required answer has to be definitive, the question must be definitive (in other words the questions must be specific).
- The questions must be worded in order to allow people from different education levels to answer the questions.
- Questions must be simple, and must not contain “and” and “or”, which may imply that two questions are being asked.
- Avoid asking leading questions, which may prompt a desired answer.
- Establish whether the respondent is able to answer the question.
- Questions that may embarrass the respondent need to be avoided, e.g. instead of asking a person’s income, ask him/her to select an income category.
- Avoid questions that necessitate reference to records or files etc. which means additional work for the respondent.
- Assist the respondent to express him- or herself by including probe questions.
- Avoid prestige-loaded questions, where respondents will tend to portray a more acceptable picture.

When compiling the questionnaire, the researcher aimed to keep the questions simple and interesting. The researcher also kept the scaling methods simple and constant to ensure the easy completion of the questions. Sensitive questions about the respondent’s age, academic qualifications and income, for example, were moved to the end of the questionnaire in Section B. By the time the respondent reached the final stage of the questionnaire, the chances to receive a completed questionnaire was optimal since a relationship with the researcher had been established (Tustin *et al.* 2005:392).

Confidentiality was ensured by including an undertaking in the cover letter with the questionnaire ensuring participants that all information would be treated confidentially and only used for research purposes (see Appendix 1). It was also emphasised that participants could choose to remain anonymous. Where the questionnaire was delivered via e-mail (see 4.9.1), participants had the option to return the questionnaire via e-mail, but did not remain anonymous in that instance. Otherwise they could also complete the questionnaire, print a copy and return it anonymously via the University’s internal mail. In cases where the

questionnaire was received via mail (see 4.9.3) participants had the option to remove their names from the questionnaire and to return the questionnaire via internal mail.

If they wished to participate in the lucky draw, they only needed to include their personnel numbers. Once a person's name was drawn in the lucky draw, the human resources department had to be contacted to determine the identity of the person.

In the following section, the survey procedure which was followed, will be discussed.

4.9 SURVEY PROCEDURE

The survey was administered between November 2005 and May 2006, during which different delivery methods of the questionnaire were used. To provide an overview of the survey procedure, the process which was undertaken will be discussed.

4.9.1 Questionnaires distributed by means of e-mail

It was determined that most communication at the Potchefstroom and Vanderbijlpark campuses took place via e-mail. In order to make the study more economical it was decided to make use of the e-mail facility, namely *GroupWise*, to distribute the questionnaire electronically. It was established that the staff members at the Mafikeng campus did not make regular use of their e-mail facility, and it was decided not to include this campus in the e-mail distribution.

The questionnaire was adapted to allow participants to complete the questionnaire by clicking on the preferred options, saving the document on their computers and returning it to the researcher via e-mail.

In November 2005, an internal publications officer from the Potchefstroom campus distributed an e-mail to the sampling frame with a cover letter and a link to the questionnaire, which was placed on the University's intranet (see Appendices 1, 2, 5 and 6). When a participant entered the link, he/she could complete the questionnaire electronically by selecting relevant options, saving the file to his/her computer, and returning the completed questionnaire to the researcher's e-mail address. Participants also had the option to complete the questionnaire, save it to their computers and return a printed copy to the researcher's internal mailbox. At the Vanderbijlpark campus, the head of Information Technology distributed the questionnaire via e-mail using an attachment.

Approximately 1 303 e-mails were distributed at the Potchefstroom campus and approximately 178 at the Vanderbiljpark campus. A total of 71 questionnaires were returned via e-mail between November 2005 and January 2006.

The questionnaires received via e-mail were printed from the electronic format in order to be processed manually by Statistical Consultation Services at the NWU.

Since the response rate was unsatisfactory, the researcher decided to continue the survey by distributing self-completion questionnaires to the sampling frame. Because the questionnaires were returned via e-mail and the respondents were identifiable, the researcher excluded these respondents from the second attempt.

4.9.2 Questionnaires distributed in person

After consultation with a public relations practitioner at the Mafikeng campus, it was realised that the staff members of this campus did not make use of e-mail on a regular basis. It was deemed most suitable to distribute questionnaires personally at the campus. The help of a public relations practitioner was obtained, and in November 2005 the researcher distributed 423 questionnaires to the sampling frame at the campus. Staff members were handed a questionnaire (see Appendices 3 and 4) and an envelope addressed to the public relations practitioner, who acted as the collection point at the campus and who returned it to the researcher's office. A number of 62 questionnaires were returned by end of January 2006.

4.9.3 Questionnaires distributed via internal mail

After the researcher received the questionnaires via e-mail from the Potchefstroom and Vanderbiljpark campuses, it was decided that the researcher would aim to obtain more responses from these campuses.

Questionnaires were printed (see Appendices 3, 4, 7 and 8), labels were obtained from the Human Resources Department and attached, and arrangements were made with the NWU's Postal Services Department to mail the questionnaires to the sampling frame at the Potchefstroom and Vanderbiljpark campuses.

In May 2006 a number of 1 410 questionnaires were mailed to the permanent staff members of the Potchefstroom and Vanderbiljpark campuses.

An overview of the numbers of questionnaires distributed and received during the survey is provided in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED AND RECEIVED DURING SURVEY

	Potchefstroom	Vanderbijlpark	Mafikeng	Total distributed	Total questionnaires received
Questionnaires distributed via email	1 303	178	None	1 481	71
Questionnaires distributed via internal mail	1410		None	1 410 * (1 481-71)	565
Questionnaires distributed personally	None	None	423	423	62
TOTAL NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED				3 314	633
TOTAL NUMBER IN SAMPLING FRAME				1904	

* Second attempt to distribute questionnaire to the sampling frame of Potchefstroom and Vanderbijlpark.

By the end of June 2006 a total number of 633 questionnaires were returned and included in the study. The response rate is provided in Chapter 5.

In the following section attention will be given to the coding, editing and data capturing of the data collected.

4.10 CODING, EDITING AND DATA CAPTURING OF DATA

4.10.1 Coding

Coding is defined as a technical process during which codes are assigned to the respondents' answers prior to the questionnaire's analysis and used when computer-captured (Tustin *et al.* 2005:457). The questionnaire used in the study did not contain any open-ended questions. Pre-coding of the questionnaire was therefore done when the questionnaire was developed, ensuring that the answers provided by respondents to questions were directly captured in a coded format.

The researcher aimed to provide categories to the respondent which was a suitable size (in other words not too many or too few categories); mutually exclusive (for instance where the income was asked the respondent could clearly answer only one option); and the categories were exhaustive (the respondent had the option to answer "other", where necessary) (Tustin *et al.* 2005:462).

4.10.2 Editing

Editing, according to Tustin *et al.* (2005:452), can be described as the scrutinising of completed questionnaires in terms of compliance with the criteria for collecting meaningful data. This ensures that incomplete questionnaires are dealt with. In the case of interview surveys, for example, editing can be done in the field or at the office after the questionnaire was completed. In the case of this study, incomplete answers were not completed nor were questionnaires removed that had missing answers, as it could bias the responses of the study.

The researcher received completed questionnaires via e-mail (see 4.9.1), after which the researcher removed the names of the respondents who had completed e-mail questionnaires from the sampling frame, to prevent the respondent from receiving another questionnaire via internal mail (during the second attempt to obtain data).

4.10.3 Data capturing

During data capturing information is transferred from acceptable data-collection instruments, such as questionnaires, to a computer (Tustin *et al.* 2005:469). The SAS and Statistica programmes were used by the Statistical Consultation Services of the NWU to capture the data (SAS Institute Inc. 2003; Statsoft Inc. 2004; SAS Institute Inc. 2005).

After the data capturing, the computer can be programmed to draw frequency distributions, compute the means, mode, median, variance and perform other types of analysis (Tustin *et al.* 2005:471).

The data was cleaned by means of the wild-code check (where codes that are not defined for a particular variable are removed, since it will probably be an error in coding or punching) (Tustin *et al.* 2005:471). Other methods include the consistency check (the consistency of responses in each case are checked) and the extreme-case check (which is used when a response to a variable is far from ordinary)(Tustin *et al.* 2005:472). By using these checks, possible coding or punching errors were eliminated.

4.11 STATISTICAL PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES ADOPTED FOR THE STUDY

4.11.1 Missing responses

Malhotra and Birks (2006:431) describe missing responses as values of a variable that are unknown because respondents provided ambiguous answers or no answers. In this study, missing values of questions that contributed to a construct, were replaced with the average values of the other questions relating to the construct. This is referred to as “mean substitution”. In case where biographical values were missing, the individual in question was not taken into consideration when comparisons were made between different groups.

Pairwise deletion was chosen as a Statistica computer software option (StatSoft, Inc. 2004). Pairwise deletion is a method for dealing with missing answers in which all cases or respondents with any missing answers are not automatically discarded, but for each calculation, only the cases or respondents with complete answers are considered. As a result, different calculations in an analysis, for example a factor analysis, may be based on different sample sizes (Malhotra & Birks 2006:431-432).

In the case of a casewise deletion the computer removes the entire case if one of the values is missing, whether a correlation is drawn or not. This may result in a small sample (Malhotra & Birks 2006:431), and therefore it was decided to make use of pairwise deletion.

4.11.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics involves that data is ordered, analysed, summarised and presented in order for the extraction and easy interpretation of the essential information. The purpose of descriptive analysis is described by Tustin *et al.* (2005:522-523) as follows:

- Provide an overview of the responses obtained, as reflected in the distribution of the values for each variable of interest.
- It assists in finding errors in the coding and data capturing.
- Provide a means of presenting the data in an easy interpretable manner by means of tables and graphs.
- Provide a summary of the average responses as well as the extent of variation in responses for a given variable.

- Provide an opportunity for evaluating whether the distributional assumptions of subsequent tests are likely to support the objectives.

The first step during the descriptive analysis is to compile frequency statistics. This entails the computerised construction of a table that shows in percentages how often the different values of the variable are encountered in the sample.

When presenting the data, two types of measures can be distinguished, namely that of central tendency and measures of dispersion (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:393-394).

(a) Measures of central tendency

The measures of central tendency refer to “[t]he basic sample statistics that are generated through analy[s]ing raw data” (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:393). Three measures of central tendency, namely the mean, the median and the mode can be distinguished.

(i) The mean

According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:538) the arithmetic mean is defined as “the sum of a set of values divided by their number”. The mean is also called the average. Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:394) suggest that the use of the mean is most appropriate in the case of interval types or ratio scales. In this study the means of the factors/variables are provided (see Chapter 5).

(ii) The mode

According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:544) the mode is the simplest form of measuring central tendency. The mode is the raw response that is most frequently provided by the respondents (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:393).

(iii) The median

The median is defined as the sample statistic above or below which one half of the observations fall (Tustin *et al.* 2005:540) and is appropriate to use in the case of ordinal, interval and ratio scales (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:394).

(b) Measures of dispersion (variability)

In the case where measures of central tendency cannot illustrate the entire distribution of responses, measures of dispersion describe how close to the mean or other measure of

central tendency the remaining values in the distribution fall (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:527). The measures of dispersion include the variance, standard deviation and the range.

(i) The range

Malhotra and Birks (2006:450) point out that the range measures the difference between the smallest and largest values of a distribution, in other words, the spread of the data. An interquartile range is also distinguished by Malhotra and Birks (2006:451) where it refers to the difference between the 75th and 25th percentiles.

(ii) The variance

Tustin *et al.* (2005:550) report that the variance and standard deviation is used by a variety of researchers as measures of variance. Malhotra and Birks (2006:451) explain that the difference between the mean and an observed value is called the deviation from the mean. Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:528) also suggest that the variance is “[t]he average squared deviation about the mean of a distribution of values”. The variance is used in a number of statistical processes that analyse collected data.

(iii) The standard deviation

Malhotra and Birks (2006:451) define the standard deviation as “the square root of the variance. Thus, the standard deviation is expressed in the same units as the data, rather than in squared units.” Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:527) add to this that “[t]he standard deviation describes the average distance of the distribution values from the mean”. When the data points are clustered around the mean, the variance is small. When the data points are scattered, the variance is large.

In this study the standard deviation of different variables/factors is provided in Chapter 5. In the following section the statistical techniques used in this study, will be discussed.

4.11.3 Statistical techniques applicable to the study

To achieve the objectives identified for the study and obtain answers to the research question stated earlier, a number of statistical techniques were used. This section will be devoted to only the relevant statistical techniques that were applied.

4.11.3.1 Cronbach alpha coefficient

In this study the Cronbach alpha measure was used to estimate the reliability of the scale by determining the internal consistency of the test or the average correlation of items within the test (Nunnally & Bernstein 1994).

Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:652) describe the Cronbach alpha coefficient as “[a] widely used measurement of the internal consistency of a multi-item scale in which the average of all possible split-half coefficients is taken”. It is important to keep in mind that although the scale measurement design proves to be reliable, the data collected must still be assessed for validity by means of separate validity assessments (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:391). This will be discussed in 4.12

4.11.3.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a procedure that groups variables together in an attempt to discover if an underlying combination of the original variables (called a “factor”) can reduce the number of factors found in the original set (Cooper & Schindler 1998:575). This data is often used in the various forms of cluster or segmentation analyses, in order to segment the data into groups of respondents with similar attitudes (Brace 2004:86-87).

Zikmund (2000:544) explains that in a study where the researcher has a set of variables and suspects that these variables are interrelated in a complex manner, factor analysis may be used to unraffle the linear relationships into separate patterns. The statistical purpose of factor analysis is to determine linear combinations of variables that assist in investigating the interrelationships. A researcher may want to reduce a large number of variables to certain underlying constructs or dimensions that will summarise the important information contained in the variables. The purpose of factor analysis is to discover the basic structure of a domain and to add substantive interpretation to the underlying dimensions. Factor analysis could accomplish this by combining these questions in order to create new, more abstract variables called factors. In general the goal of factor analysis is to reduce a large number of variables to a more manageable set of constructs (Zikmund 2000:544). Malhotra and Birks (2006:573) explain that factor analysis is an interdependence technique examining an entire set of interdependent relationships.

Tustin *et al.* (2005:668) describe three stages in factor analysis:

- “A correlation matrix is generated for all the variables, which is a rectangular array of the correlation coefficients of the variables with each other.
- Factors based on the correlation coefficients of the variables are extracted from the correlation matrix.
- The factors are rotated in order to maximise the relationship between the variables and some of the factors.”

Malhotra and Birks (2006:590) argue that the two main approaches to factor analysis are principal components analysis and common factor analysis. When using principal components analysis, the total variance in the data is considered. Principal components analysis is used when the primary concern is to determine the minimum number of factors that will account for maximum variance in the data for use in subsequent multivariate analysis. In common factor analysis, the factors are estimated based only on the common variance. In this study it was decided to make use of principal factor analysis.

According to Malhotra and Birks (2006:590-591) the number of factors that should be extracted in a factor analysis can be determined based on eigenvalues, scree plots, and percentage of variance explained. Although the initial or unrotated factor matrix indicates the relationships between the factors and individual variables, it seldom results in factors that can be interpreted, because the factors are correlated with many variables. Therefore, rotation is used to transform the factor matrix into a simpler one that makes interpretation easier. The most commonly used method of rotation is the varimax procedure, which results in orthogonal factors. If the factors are highly correlated in the population, oblique rotation can be used. The rotated factor matrix forms the basis for interpreting the factors (Malhotra & Birks 2006:591).

It was decided to make use of the varimax procedure of rotation in this study's factor analysis. Malhotra and Birks (2006:737) define the varimax procedure as “[a]n orthogonal method of factor rotation that minimises the number of variables with high loadings on a factor, thereby enhancing the interpretability of the factors”.

It was further decided to make use of the Kaiser's criterion which is used to determine the number of factors. According to Field (2005:633) Kaiser's criterion recommends including all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. The main idea behind this criterion is that the eigenvalues represent the amount of variation explained by a factor and that an eigenvalue

of 1 represents a substantial amount of variation. Malhotra and Birks (2006:574) add that the eigenvalue represents the total variance explained by each factor. By using Kaiser's criterion in this study, all factors with eigenvalues of 1 and greater were extracted.

4.11.3.3 Effect sizes

In this study data were obtained from convenience sampling and cannot be analysed as if it were obtained by random sampling (Ellis & Steyn 2003). The data should be considered as a small population of a population for which statistical inference and p -values are not relevant. Ellis and Steyn (2003) explain that "[s]tatistical inference draws conclusions about the population from which a random sample was drawn, using the descriptive measures that have been calculated. Instead of only reporting descriptive statistics in these cases, effect sizes can be determined. Practical significance can be understood as a large enough difference to have an effect in practice." (Ellis & Steyn 2003).

Steyn (2005) emphasises that according to his knowledge, the subject of effect sizes is not included in one specific literature work, but that academic researchers in the human sciences have a need to be able to deliver a finding on practical significance. According to Rosenthal and Steyn (in Ellis & Steyn 2003) many different effect sizes can be used, such as those used for the difference between means, for relationships in two-way frequency (contingency) tables and for a multiple regression fit. It was decided to use the effect size for the difference between means in this study.

The following formula is used to provide the effect size for the difference between the means (Ellis & Steyn 2003):

$$d = \frac{|\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2|}{s_{\max}}$$

where:

$|\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2|$ is the difference between \bar{x}_1 and \bar{x}_2 without taking the sign into consideration and

s_{\max} = maximum of s_1 and s_2 , the sample standard deviations.

According to Cohen (1998) the following are guidelines for the interpretation of effect sizes where the difference between means are determined:

Small effect: $d < 0.2$

Medium effect: $d = 0.5$

Large effect: $d = 0.8$

Ellis and Steyn (2003) regard data with an effect size of >0.8 as practically significant.

Steyn (2005:1-2) provides insight into the practical significance obtained from effect sizes. Similar to statistical significance, where a null hypotheses must be discarded, the question is asked: when a difference or relationship is large enough to be important. In this instance effect size indexes can be used in the sense that the size of such indexes is directly proportional to the importance of a difference in means or a relation between variables. When an index is large enough, the result can be regarded as *practically significant*. This is a general term which can be used in a variety of contexts. For example, when performing clinical trials, it can be worded as *clinically significant* and when used in the field of education, it can be referred to as *educationally significant*.

After careful consideration of different statistical analysis methods available and consultation with the Statistical Consultation Service of the NWU, the researcher decided to make use of the analysis method of effect sizes to obtain answers towards obtaining the study's research objectives.

4.12 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE RESULTS

According to Wimmer and Dominick (1991:34) it is imperative that the validity and reliability of the research are ensured. To ensure quantitative validity and reliability, two questions must be answered: Is the sample used representative of the group on which the results will be generalised to? Will the results be replicated if the investigation is to be repeated? Internal validity must also be determined, in other words, it must be established whether the consumer trends measured by Popcorn will also be measured by the researcher's questionnaire.

4.12.1 Validity

Malhotra and Birks (2006:314) describe validity as "[t]he extent to which a measurement represents characteristics that exist in the phenomenon under investigation". Anastasi

(1988:139) proposes a very specific definition: "The validity of a test concerns what the test measures and how well it does so."

Validity consists of three major forms (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:407-413; Malhotra & Birks 2006:314): content, criterion-related or predictive, and construct. Content validity is a subjective but systematic evaluation of how well the content of a scale captures the domain of a characteristic by the measurement task at hand. In this study the definitions and examples of Faith Popcorn's trends were analysed and the constructs were included when the questionnaire was formulated.

Predictive or criterion-related validity focuses on whether the measurement instrument is useful in predicting a characteristic or behaviour of an individual (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:407). This study's predictive validity was determined when the results of the empirical study was compared to the theory provided in the literature review.

Construct validity asks what the measurement instrument measures (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:409). Construct validity is tested in this study by using factor analysis. The objective of factor analysis was to identify the underlying constructs being measured and to determine how well the items in the questionnaire represented them.

4.12.2 Reliability

According to Cooper and Schindler (1998:171-174) reliability refers to the consistency of a method in its ability to provide repeatable results, as distinct from its validity. A highly reliable research method would produce the same results when re-performed under similar circumstances. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to determine the internal consistency in the study (see 4.11.3.1).

Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:406-407) indicate that the total error of a measurement can be obtained by looking at the sum of the systematic error and random error. Systematic error is an error that is made constantly throughout a measurement. On the other hand, a random error is not made constantly but is made because of transient aspects of the person or the measurement situation. This causes a lack of consistency when the same measurement is re-used on the same object or person.

4.12.3 Errors in survey research

Tustin *et al.* (2005:195-196) explain that reporting errors in mail surveys can be caused by respondents misunderstanding questions or a lack of knowledge on the subject or involving other people to complete the questionnaire, especially when asking people's opinion.

Tustin *et al.* (2005:375-379) provide an overview of the different errors which can be identified in survey research. The following are three main types of error, namely (i) errors of definition; (ii) errors of estimation; and (iii) errors of explanation (Tustin *et al.* 2005:375-379):

- (i) *Errors of definition* can be prevented when ensuring that a precise definition of the problem is obtained in order to establish the correct variables applicable in the study (Tustin *et al.* 2005:376).
- (ii) *Errors of estimation* include sampling errors when executing the sample, selection errors, non-response errors and sample frame errors. Measurement errors may also cause errors of estimation, and include errors made by respondents and/or interviewers, questionnaire design errors and coding and data capturing errors (Tustin *et al.* 2005:376-379).
- (iii) *Errors of explanation* could be made when an inappropriate inference is made about a cause-effect relationship between variables (Tustin *et al.* (2005:379).

When the empirical study was undertaken, possible sources of errors were kept in mind when planning the execution of the survey and interpreting the results.

4.13 SUMMARY

In this chapter the methodological context of the empirical study was provided. The problem definition, research objectives and research questions asked, was outlined. Then the study was placed within the framework of a descriptive research design, and the use of a cross-sectional analysis was discussed. Attention was given to the pre-testing that took place in the study and the survey method used, was discussed. This was followed by an overview of the sampling procedure, after which the measurement scales were included. As the questionnaire design was central to the success of the study, careful consideration was given to the questionnaire's design.

The survey procedure that was followed to obtain the 633 returned questionnaires was included to provide an indication of the processes followed. The coding, editing and data

capturing of the data were also described. Based on the literature consulted on research methodology, it was decided to make use of statistical techniques such as the Cronbach alpha coefficient, factor analysis and effect sizes. The chapter was concluded by discussing the importance of validity and reliability in research results and how it was ensured in this study. In the following chapter the results of the research will be investigated.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the results of the empirical study and an interpretation of the results will be provided. The literature review chapters have provided the theoretical underpinning of this chapter.

The results of the empirical findings are presented in tabular format in order to make it easier to understand and interpret it. In the following section the results of participants' rating of the consumer trends (see Section A in the questionnaire), and participants' demographic information (see Section B of the questionnaire) will be discussed.

5.2 RESPONSE RATE

As pointed out in Chapter 4, the sampling frame consisted of all permanent staff members of the NWU. The research frame equalled 1 904 staff members, of whom 633 returned completed questionnaires. The response rate for this study is therefore 33.25%. According to Tustin *et al.* (2005:193) a researcher cannot expect a response rate of higher than 10% to 20% during a regular mail survey. Because the response rate in mail surveys can largely be influenced by the respondent's interest in the survey topic, non-response bias may become a problem. Thus, the response rate in this study could be considered relatively high.

5.3 DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH RESULTS

The following section will provide descriptive statistics on the demographic composition of the research frame (see Section B of the questionnaire). The purpose of this section was to obtain personal information about the respondents to allow for the analysis of effect sizes between the different factors.

Biographical information was obtained on the gender, age, home language, ethnic group, campus at the NWU, position held at the NWU, highest qualification, marital status, gross monthly income of the household and number of people in the household.

5.3.1 Descriptive statistics for Section B: Participants' demographic information

5.3.1.1 Gender

The majority of the participants in the study were female (see Table 5.1).

In July 2005 an estimated number of 963 (45.51%) permanent male staff members and 1 153 (54.49%) permanent female staff members were employed by the NWU (North-West University 2005). It is illustrated in Table 5.1 that in the survey females represented 63.59% of the sample (+9.1% than the actual group) while males represented 36.41% of the sample (-9.1% than the actual group). The higher tendency for females to complete questionnaires could be ascribed to the fact that they are more willing to complete questionnaires or that they are more interested in the type of questions.

Table 5.1: GENDER OF PARTICIPANTS

Gender	Participants (n)	Frequency %
Male	229	36.41
Female	400	63.59
TOTAL	629	100

5.3.1.2 Age

The researcher did not have access to a breakdown available of data regarding the NWU's actual ages. In Table 5.2 it is shown that 80.26% of respondents were between the ages of 31 and 60 years. This group can be considered as economically active and therefore valuable to the investigation.

Table 5.2: AGE OF PARTICIPANTS

Age	Participants (n)	Frequency %
18-21 years old	3	0.48
22-30 years old	102	16.24
31-40 years old	159	25.32
41-50 years old	186	29.62
51-60 years old	159	25.32
61 years and older	19	3.03
TOTAL	628	100

5.3.1.3 Home language of participants

In Table 5.3 it is shown that the respondents in this group are mostly Afrikaans-speaking (81.16%), secondly Tswana-speaking (8.53%) and thirdly English-speaking (3.54%). In Table 5.4 an estimate of the total number of staff members at the NWU's ethnic composition is provided. It becomes clear that the composition of the participants' language roughly reflects the estimated actual analysis based on ethnic group, where white staff members have the highest numbers (70.28%), with black staff members at 27.26%.

Table 5.3: HOME LANGUAGE

Home language	Participants (n)	Frequency %
Afrikaans	504	81.16
English	22	3.54
Tswana	53	8.53
Sesotho	16	2.58
Sepedi	3	0.48
Xhosa	9	1.45
Zulu	7	1.13
Tsonga	1	0.16
Venda	0	0
Ndebele	1	0.16
Swati	0	0
Other	5	0.81
TOTAL	621	100

5.3.1.4 Ethnic group of participants

In Table 5.4 the total number of staff members (permanent and temporary) are provided, along with their ethnic composition. A separate estimate of the permanent staff members' ethnic composition was not available.

Table 5.4: ESTIMATED ETHNIC ANALYSIS OF THE NWU (JULY 2005)

Ethnic group	Potchefstroom	Vanderbijlpark	Mmabatho	Total	%
White	2404	204	22	2630	70.28
Coloured	64	0	3	67	1.79
Black	479	71	470	1020	27.26
Indian	19	1	5	25	0.66
TOTAL	2966	276	500	3742	100

Source: North-West University (2005)

Table 5.5 illustrates the participants' ethnic group composition. If participants from the sampling frame (consisting from only permanent staff members) is compared with the total number of NWU staff (see Table 5.4), it appears that the white participants were over-represented by 12.47%, the coloured participants over-represented by 0.12% and the black participants under-represented by 12.24%. The Indian participants were over-represented by 0.18%.

It is believed that this discrepancy between the actual numbers of staff and the composition of the participants is due to the fact that the study did not make use of random sampling, but convenience sampling.

Table 5.5: ETHNIC GROUPS OF PARTICIPANTS

Ethnic group	Participants (n)	Frequency %
White	518	82.75
Coloured	11	1.67
Black	94	15.02
Indian	3	0.48
TOTAL	626	100

5.3.1.5 Campuses of the NWU

The NWU comprises three campuses as well as an institutional head office in Potchefstroom. In July 2005 the University had an estimated total number of 2 116 permanent academic and support staff members (North-West University 2005), of whom 1 904 received questionnaires during the survey. The discrepancy between the estimated number of employees and the actual number of questionnaires distributed is due to staff resignations or to incorrect initial estimates. See Table 5.6 for an overview of the campus composition of the participants.

Table 5.6: CAMPUS OF THE NWU

Campus	Participants (n)	Frequency %
Potchefstroom	468	74.76
Mmabatho	62	9.90
Vanderbijlpark	75	11.98
Institutional head office	21	3.35
TOTAL	626	100

5.3.1.6 *Position held at the NWU*

A total of 56.24% of the participants in the study consisted of support staff members, 11.02% represented associate professors or professors, 9.56% represented lecturers, 8.75% accounted for senior lecturers and 3.08% represented junior lecturers (see Table 5.7). An indication of the actual levels of employment was not available from the University.

Table 5.7: POSITION HELD AT THE NWU

Position	Participants (n)	Frequency %
Junior lecturer	19	3.08
Lecturer	59	9.56
Senior lecturer	54	8.75
Associate professor/Professor	68	11.02
Other academic position	22	3.57
Support staff member	347	56.24
Middle management	43	6.97
Top management	5	0.81
TOTAL	617	100

5.3.1.7 *Highest qualification*

In Table 5.8 it is indicated that the largest number of participants had postgraduate university degrees (54.28%), followed by participants with university degrees (15.46%) and finally, Grade 12 (12.83%).

Table 5.8: HIGHEST QUALIFICATION

Highest qualification	Participants (n)	Frequency %
Grade 11 and less	15	2.47
Grade 12	78	12.83
College qualification	43	7.07
Technikon qualification	31	5.10
University degree	94	15.46
Postgraduate university degree	330	54.28
Other	17	2.80
TOTAL	608	100

5.3.1.8 *Marital status*

A total of 74.20% of the participants were married, while 13.78% of participants are single (see Table 5.9).

Table 5.9: MARITAL STATUS

Marriage status	Participants (n)	Frequency %
Single	86	13.78
Living together	14	2.24
Married	463	74.20
Divorced	44	7.05
Widowed	10	1.60
Other	7	1.12
TOTAL	624	100

5.3.1.9 *Gross monthly income of household*

The question about participants' gross monthly income of the household was provided in the questionnaire as an optional question, since participants' could regard their income as sensitive information. A number of 43 participants chose not to specify their income, while 31 participants omitted their answers.

Table 5.10 indicates that most participants (40.70%) had a gross monthly income per household of between R5 001 and R14 999, while 15.61% were in the income group of between R15 000 and R19 999.

Table 5.10: GROSS MONTHLY INCOME OF HOUSEHOLD

Gross monthly income of household	Participants (n)	Frequency %
Less than R5 000	51	8.47
R5 001 – R14 999	245	40.70
R15 000 – R19 999	94	15.61
R20 000 – R24 999	59	9.80
R25 000 – R29 999	52	8.64
More than R30 000	58	9.63
Choose not to specify	43	7.14
TOTAL	602	100

5.3.1.10 *Number of people in participant's household*

Table 5.11 illustrates that 27.20% of participants had a household with 2 people, while 22.40% of participants' households consisted of 4 people and 21.60% of 3 people.

Table 5.11: NUMBER OF PEOPLE IN HOUSEHOLD

Number of people in household	Participants (n)	Frequency %
1	65	10.40
2	170	27.20
3	135	21.60
4	140	22.40
5	72	11.52
6	33	5.28
7	7	1.12
8 and more	3	0.48
TOTAL	625	100

5.3.2 Descriptive statistics for Section A: Consumer trends of Faith Popcorn

Table 5.12 provides the questions included in the questionnaire, as well as the results of participants' responses. Responses were made on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 indicating "definitely do not agree" and 5 indicating "definitely agree".

Within the scope of this study, the purpose of Section A was to determine to what extent the listed statements (items) could indicate the existence or not of the ten consumer trends of Popcorn (1991).

Participants were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with the particular list of statements. Fifty statements (items) were presented and the respondents had to evaluate these items by means of the 5-point Likert scale. The responses to these questions are illustrated as percentages of the five scales to each statement, the mean (average) of each item, including the standard deviation of each item, and clearly indicated within the specific columns in Table 5.12.

Tables 5.12 indicates that questions which obtained high levels of agreement means were "A safe home and working environment is a priority" (4.75); "I enjoy humorous moments (e.g. in movies, books or shows)" (4.45); "I believe that a healthy lifestyle will increase my life expectancy" (4.44); "I believe that food plays an important part in disease prevention" (4.36); and "I like to buy products that are guaranteed by the company" (4.31).

The average person in the group of participants strongly agree about being safe, which tends to be a primary need for all people. They also agree about having humour in their lives, believing that healthy habits will increase their life expectancy and that food plays an

important role in maintaining health. Furthermore, they prefer to buy products with a guarantee on which they can rely. A link between these specific statements cannot be found, apart from the participants' having a high level of education in general and therefore being capable of making informed consumer decisions.

Factors that obtained lower levels of agreement means were the following: "I enjoy spending time at a theme park" (2.27); "I use products to prevent me from looking and feeling older" (2.92) and "I enjoy going on adventurous excursions" (3.08); "I like to buy vehicles that are customised according to my own preferences" (3.11) and "I am involved in projects to educate people in my community" (3.11).

See next page for Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: STATEMENTS THAT MAY INDICATE THE CONSUMER TRENDS OF FAITH POPCORN (n = 633)

Item no.	Statement/Item	Lower scale values			Neutral	Higher scale values		Mean (\bar{x})	Standard deviation
		1 %	2 %	3 %		4 %	5 %		
1.1	When being social, I prefer to spend time at my own home or the homes of friends or family, rather than going out.	3.33	9.35	15.69	41.05	30.59	3.86	1.06	
1.2	When doing bank transactions, I prefer to make use of internet, telephone or OTM bank services, rather than bank services at the counter.	4.12	7.61	7.77	22.66	57.84	4.23	1.13	
1.3	When I want to see a film, I prefer to watch a DVD or video at home.	4.44	12.36	21.08	27.26	34.87	3.76	1.18	
1.4	I spend money on improving my house and making it more comfortable.	1.59	3.50	10.51	40.29	44.11	4.22	0.89	
1.5	A safe home and working environment is a priority.	0.16	0.16	2.22	19.05	78.41	4.75	0.51	
2.1	I spend money on going on holiday.	5.07	8.87	17.91	37.72	30.43	3.80	1.12	
2.2	I enjoy spending time at a theme park (e.g. Ratanga Junction or Gold Reef City).	32.01	29.95	21.24	12.36	4.44	2.27	1.16	
2.3	I enjoy experimenting with interesting types of foods.	7.28	16.14	25.00	33.23	18.35	3.39	1.17	
2.4	I enjoy going on adventure excursions (e.g. "abseiling", "bungee jumping", a game drive in a nature reserve or a ski trip).	15.82	18.67	22.15	28.01	15.35	3.08	1.31	
2.5	I prefer adventure activities that are not too dangerous.	4.12	10.14	20.44	34.90	21.39	3.68	1.05	
3.1	I like to spoil myself with something affordable.	0.95	4.27	12.97	44.62	37.18	4.13	0.86	
3.2	I like to spoil myself with a unique item of clothing.	7.77	15.21	24.41	27.89	24.72	3.47	1.23	
3.3	I like to spoil myself with a special body product (e.g. body lotion, perfume or aftershave).	12.18	14.72	20.25	28.48	24.37	3.38	1.32	
3.4	I like to spoil myself with a good haircut.	11.29	14.31	17.33	30.84	26.23	3.46	1.32	
3.5	I like to reward myself by doing something special for myself.	5.41	11.45	26.07	30.84	26.23	3.61	1.15	
4.1	I like to read about subjects that are specifically in my area of interest.	1.27	3.33	10.78	41.52	43.11	4.22	0.86	
4.2	I like to participate in group activities that are based on special interests (e.g. hobbies, religious, academic or politics).	8.07	15.98	25.47	31.33	19.15	3.38	1.19	
4.3	I like to wear clothes that are designed according to my individual needs.	9.18	15.66	22.15	32.12	20.89	3.40	1.23	
4.4	I like to buy vehicles that are customised according to my own preferences.	12.40	16.22	32.91	25.28	13.20	3.11	1.20	
4.5	I prefer a house that is furnished according to my own preferences.	1.11	2.22	8.56	42.63	45.48	4.29	0.80	
5.1	I aim to earn an income from home one day.	7.95	14.15	25.12	27.19	25.60	3.48	1.23	
5.2	I aim to live in a more serene environment at some stage in my life.	4.60	10.00	23.97	30.48	30.95	3.73	1.14	
5.3	It is my ideal to pursue a fast-paced career.	9.35	18.38	24.72	34.87	12.68	3.23	1.17	
5.4	It is my ideal to own my own business.	14.44	17.62	24.92	19.52	23.49	3.20	1.36	
5.5	It is one of my ideals to have the freedom one day to pursue other interests than my career.	1.11	3.97	10.65	39.90	44.36	4.22	0.87	

Item no.	Statement/Item	Lower scale values			Neutral	Higher scale values			Mean (\bar{x})	Standard deviation
		1 %	2 %	3 %		4 %	5 %			
6.1	I enjoy getting older.	12.48	10.02	28.08	34.81	14.61	3.29	1.20		
6.2	I use products to prevent me from looking and feeling older.	19.84	20.00	22.38	23.65	14.13	2.92	1.34		
6.3	I eat balanced foods to keep my body healthy.	1.90	6.95	20.54	43.13	27.49	3.87	0.96		
6.4	I enjoy humorous moments (e.g. in movies, books or shows).	0.79	1.58	6.79	33.49	57.35	4.45	0.76		
6.5	I enjoy participating in activities that make me feel young.	2.37	7.44	31.49	36.23	22.47	3.69	0.98		
7.1	I believe that food plays an important part in disease prevention.	0.63	1.11	8.21	41.86	48.18	4.36	0.73		
7.2	I am concerned about the effects of pollution on my health.	1.58	4.11	19.43	41.23	33.65	4.01	0.92		
7.3	I try to be informed about the characteristics of a healthy lifestyle.	0.63	2.85	11.39	47.94	37.18	4.18	0.79		
7.4	I am concerned about diseases (e.g. HIV/AIDS, heart conditions, cancer).	1.26	4.27	15.64	38.23	40.60	4.13	0.91		
7.5	I believe that a healthy lifestyle will increase my life expectancy.	1.58	0.32	4.60	39.94	53.57	4.44	0.74		
8.1	I comment on poor service (e.g. in a shop or restaurant).	2.69	7.44	22.31	38.61	28.96	3.84	1.01		
8.2	I do research before I decide to buy a product or to make use of a service.	2.21	6.32	20.70	42.50	28.28	3.88	0.96		
8.3	I boycott companies that do not act responsibly towards the community or the environment.	4.59	12.82	32.91	28.80	20.89	3.49	1.10		
8.4	I feel strongly about the quality standards that companies have to meet.	0.47	3.01	12.66	44.46	39.40	4.19	0.80		
8.5	I like to buy products that are guaranteed by the company.	0.63	1.27	10.79	40.95	46.35	4.31	0.76		
9.1	I am willing to supplement my income by doing more than one job.	3.00	7.90	15.80	36.81	36.49	3.96	1.05		
9.2	I prefer eating smaller meals during the day, rather than sitting down at a table for large meals.	6.19	21.90	22.38	31.11	18.41	3.34	1.18		
9.3	I prefer technology that saves time (e.g. a cellphone that can take photos, and send and receive e-mails and faxes).	1.42	6.80	17.56	36.39	37.82	4.02	0.98		
9.4	I prefer that my computer's e-mail programme be scanned for advertisement-type e-mails.	4.66	5.79	20.10	34.57	34.89	3.89	1.09		
9.5	I prefer shopping at a single shopping centre, rather than driving to different shops.	6.04	10.02	12.08	30.05	41.81	3.92	1.22		
10.1	I am concerned about the future of our planet.	2.38	2.54	17.59	41.20	36.29	4.06	0.92		
10.2	I do not use products that are proven to cause damage to the environment.	1.27	3.33	19.65	42.31	33.44	4.03	0.88		
10.3	I am involved in projects to educate people in my community.	8.54	20.09	34.97	24.37	12.03	3.11	1.12		
10.4	I offer my time and skills to contribute towards the wellness of my community.	6.80	16.77	29.75	32.91	13.77	3.30	1.11		
10.5	I prefer to support companies that are involved with environmental and social issues.	2.69	5.71	28.37	42.00	21.24	3.73	0.95		

It was inferred that the average participant disagreed that they enjoy spending time at theme parks, and neither agreed nor disagreed that they enjoy adventurous excursions, that they

use products to prevent ageing, that they buy vehicles that are customised according to their own preferences, or that they are involved in projects to educate people in their communities.

Because this study focused on describing whether specific consumer trends exist in the research frame, it is beyond the scope of the study to explain why certain individual statements had high or low levels of agreement.

5.4 FACTOR ANALYSIS AND RELIABILITY RESULTS

After descriptive statistics were obtained, an exploratory factor analysis using Varimax rotation was performed, where 15 factors were extracted for the ten constructs (consumer trends) dealt with in Section A of the questionnaire. The researcher investigated the 15 factors according to the ten constructs compiled from the literature study on Faith Popcorn and found that it does not provide a clear reflection of the constructs (see Table 5.15). On this ground it was decided to firstly investigate the reliability of the constructs as compiled from the literature.

The internal consistency of the scale/factor measurement of the consumer trend questionnaire, was investigated by means of the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α -coefficient) using the Statsoft computer programme (Statsoft Inc. 2004). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was obtained for all the variables in a construct and it was noted that some questions did not correlate with the other questions in a construct. It was decided to remove those items/variables/questions to improve the reliability of the study. In Table 5.13 the Cronbach alpha coefficients were reported after questions 5.3 and 6.1 were removed from scales *Cashing Out* and *Down Aging*.

Table 5.13: CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENT FOR THE SCALES OF THE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

Instrument / scale	α -coefficient
Cocooning	0.42
Fantasy Adventure	0.50
Small Indulgences	0.85
Egonomics	0.63
Cashing Out	0.65
Down-Aging	0.50
Being Alive	0.82
Vigilante Consumer	0.74
99 Lives	0.34
Save our Society (Save our Community & Save our Environment)	0.75

Table 5.13 indicates that acceptable coefficients of >0.5 were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down Aging*, *Being Alive*, *Vigilate Consumer*, and *Save our Society*. According to Field (2005:668) it is often required in books on research that a value of 0.7 to 0.8 should be acceptable for the Chronbach alpha coefficient and that values substantially lower indicate an unreliable scale. Kline (1991) in Field (2005:668) argues that although the generally accepted value of 0.8 is appropriate for cognitive tests such as intelligence tests, for ability tests a cut-off point of 0.7 is more suitable. Kline (1991) continues that when dealing with psychological constructs or attitudes, values below even 0.7 can realistically be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured. Keeping this in mind, it was decided to consider constructs with Cronbach alpha coefficients of above 0.5 as reliable. This is also supported by the notion of Steyn (2005) that correlations of >0.5 are acceptable, and since the Cronbach alpha coefficient is a correlation, it can be accepted that a value of >0.5 has acceptable reliability.

Two of the constructs (namely *Cocooning* and *99 Lives*) had Cronbach alpha coefficients of less than 0.5 indicating insufficient reliability. These questions as well as those detrimental to the reliability of constructs *Cashing Out* and *Down-Aging* were removed from the factor analysis (see Table 5.14).

Table 5.14: ITEMS/VARIABLES REMOVED FROM FACTOR ANALYSIS TO IMPROVE RELIABILITY

Item	
1.1	When being social, I prefer to spend time at my own home or the homes of friends or family, rather than going out.
1.2	When doing bank transactions, I prefer to make use of internet, telephone or OTM bank services, rather than bank services at the counter.
1.3	When I want to see a film, I prefer to watch a DVD or video at home.
1.4	I spend money on improving my house and making it more comfortable.
1.5	A safe home and working environment is a priority.
5.3	It is my ideal to pursue a fast-paced career.
6.1	I enjoy getting older.
9.1	I am willing to supplement my income by doing more than one job.
9.2	I prefer eating smaller meals during the day, rather than sitting down at a table for large meals.
9.3	I prefer technology that saves time (e.g. a cell phone that can take photos, and send and receive e-mails and faxes).
9.4	I prefer that my computer's e-mail programme be scanned for advertisement-type e-mails.
9.5	I prefer shopping at a single shopping centre, rather than driving to different shops.

After the removed items were analysed it was inferred that problems could have been caused because of one or more of the following possible reasons:

- participants did not understand the questions;
- the question's compilation was ambiguous; and/or
- personality traits could influence participants' answers, for example an introverted person would answer differently to question 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5 than an extroverted person.

Table 5.15: ITEM FACTOR LOADING MATRIX FOR THE CONSUMER TRENDS AFTER THE EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (VERSION 1) (loadings >.30)

Item No *	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10	Factor 11	Factor 12	Factor 13	Factor 14	Factor 15
1.1										0.65					
1.2					0.77										
1.3										0.64					
1.4							0.61								
1.5							0.64								
2.1								0.37						0.38	
2.2								0.59							
2.3								0.49							
2.4								0.71							
2.5									0.32						
3.1		0.66													0.68
3.2		0.81													
3.3		0.86													
3.4		0.78													
3.5		0.70													
4.1															
4.2															
4.3		0.52				0.46									
4.4		0.31													
4.5															
5.1															
5.2															
5.3															
5.4															
5.5															
6.1															
6.2															
6.3		0.65													
6.4															
6.5		0.39													
7.1	0.78														
7.2	0.63														
7.3	0.71														
7.4	0.47														
7.5	0.69														

*Refer to Table 5.11 for the items/statements.

Item No	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10	Factor 11	Factor 12	Factor 13	Factor 14	Factor 15
8.1				0.53											
8.2				0.73											
8.3				0.64											
8.4				0.70											
8.5				0.64											
9.1					0.42					0.59					
9.2															
9.3											0.55				
9.4											0.52				
9.5						0.32									-0.39
10.1													0.76		
10.2													0.76		
10.3			0.86												
10.4			0.89												
10.5			0.46										0.58		

A second exploratory factor analysis was performed without the items mentioned in Table 5.14. The results from the second exploratory analysis represented the factor pattern as indicated in the literature study much clearer (see Table 5.16). From the remaining eight constructs (consumer trends) a total of ten factors, explaining 59.7% of the variance were obtained.

In Table 5.16, the first factor includes items 7.1, 7.2, 7.3, 7.4 and 7.5, which deal with the consumer trend of *Being Alive*; Factor 2 deals with items 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5 on the consumer trend of *Small Indulgences*. The trend of *Save our Society* comprises two factors, namely factor 3, which deals with items 10.3, 10.4 and 10.5, as well as factor 8, dealing with items 10.1, 10.2 and 10.5

The fourth factor includes items 5.1, 5.2, 5.4 and 5.5 which refers to *Cashing Out*. Factor 5 includes items 8.1, 8.2, 8.3, 8.4 and 8.5 and deals with the *Vigilante Consumer*, while Factor 6 includes items 2.1, 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4 and refers to *Fantasy Adventure*. Factor 7 does not include a pattern reflecting the constructs of Faith Popcorn. Factor 8 was discussed in the above paragraph as forming part of one construct namely *Save our Society*. The construct of *Economics* is indicated by Factor 9 and includes items 4.1, 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5. Factor 10 does not indicate a specific pattern.

To be able to analyse the factor pattern more efficiently, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on each of the eight constructs identified by the second exploratory analysis.

Table 5.17 illustrates the factors identified after the confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the constructs as defined in the questionnaire. The constructs reported in this table were unidimensional.

Table 5.16: ITEM FACTOR LOADING MATRIX FOR THE CONSUMER TRENDS AFTER THE SECOND EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (VERSION 2) (loadings >.30)

Item No	Statement/Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10
2.1	I spend money on going on holiday.						0.36	0.40		0.34	
2.2	I enjoy spending time at a theme park (e.g. Ratanga Junction or Gold Reef City).						0.59				
2.3	I enjoy experimenting with interesting types of foods.						0.58				
2.4	I enjoy going on adventure excursions (e.g. "abseiling", "bungee jumping", a game drive in a nature reserve or a ski trip).						0.62				0.46
2.5	I prefer adventure activities that are not too dangerous.										0.76
3.1	I like to spoil myself with something affordable.		0.67								
3.2	I like to spoil myself with a unique item of clothing.		0.80								
3.3	I like to spoil myself with a special body product (e.g. body lotion, perfume or aftershave).		0.85								
3.4	I like to spoil myself with a good haircut.		0.77								
3.5	I like to reward myself by doing something special for myself.		0.72								
4.1	I like to read about subjects that are specifically in my area of interest.									0.41	
4.2	I like to participate in group activities that are based on special interests (e.g. hobbies, religious, academic or politics).			0.46	0.35						
4.3	I like to wear clothes that are designed according to my individual needs.		0.52							0.48	
4.4	I like to buy vehicles that are customised according to my own preferences.		0.32							0.61	
4.5	I prefer a house that is furnished according to my own preferences.									0.73	
5.1	I aim to earn an income from home one day.				0.79						
5.2	I aim to live in a more serene environment at some stage in my life.				0.55						
5.4	It is my ideal to own my own business.				0.77						
5.5	It is one of my ideals to have the freedom one day to pursue other interests than my career.				0.33			0.61			
6.2	I use products to prevent me from looking and feeling older.		0.46								
6.3	I eat balanced foods to keep my body healthy.	0.63									
6.4	I enjoy humorous moments (e.g. in movies, books or shows).							0.71			
6.5	I enjoy participating in activities that make me feel young.	0.36						0.36			
7.1	I believe that food plays an important part in disease prevention.	0.78									
7.2	I am concerned about the effects of pollution on my health.	0.65									
7.3	I try to be informed about the characteristics of a healthy lifestyle.	0.72							0.36		
7.4	I am concerned about diseases (e.g. HIV/AIDS, heart conditions, cancer).	0.48									
7.5	I believe that a healthy lifestyle will increase my life expectancy.	0.71									

Item No	Statement/Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10
8.1	I comment on poor service (e.g. in a shop or restaurant).					0.47				0.31	
8.2	I do research before I decide to buy a product or to make use of a service.					0.74					
8.3	I boycott companies that do not act responsibly towards the community or the environment.			0.32		0.61					
8.4	I feel strongly about the quality standards that companies have to meet.					0.70					
8.5	I like to buy products that are guaranteed by the company.					0.68					
10.1	I am concerned about the future of our planet.								0.74		
10.2	I do not use products that are proven to cause damage to the environment.								0.77		
10.3	I am involved in projects to educate people in my community.			0.85							
10.4	I offer my time and skills to contribute towards the wellness of my community.			0.89							
10.5	I prefer to support companies that are involved with environmental and social issues.			0.44					0.60		

Table 5.17: RESULTS OF THE FACTOR EXTRACTION FOR THE CONSUMER TRENDS AFTER THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (a)

Factor	Variable no.	Percentage of variance explained
Being Alive	7.1, 7.2, 7.3, 7.4 & 7.5	58.5
Small Indulgences	3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 & 3.5	62.7
Egonomics	4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 & 4.5	41.4
Cashing Out	5.1, 5.2, 5.4, 5.5	49.3
Down-Aging	6.2, 6.3, 6.4 & 6.5	41.1
Fantasy Adventure	2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 & 2.5	33.7
Vigilante Consumer	8.1, 8.2, 8.3, 8.4 & 8.5	50.4

In Table 5.18 the construct of *Save our Society* is represented by two factors. Because the two factors form part of one construct, as also supported by the literature study, the remainder of the study will include this as one factor.

Table 5.18: RESULTS OF THE FACTOR EXTRACTION FOR THE CONSUMER TRENDS AFTER THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (b)

Factor	Variable no.	Percentage of variance explained
Save our Society: (comprising of Save our Environment and Save our Community)	10.3, 10.4 & 10.5	50.1
	10.1, 10.2 & 10.5	26.6

In Table 5.18 variable 10.5 is included in both factors because the variable refers to two parts of the same construct. The researcher believes that the reason why two factors have become apparent in the trend *Save our Society* is that the trend comprises two parts, namely a concern for the environment and a concern for the community.

The researcher performed all further analyses on the eight constructs which proved to be reliable and valid. In Table 5.19 the means and standard deviations of factors obtained in the factor analysis are provided. Note that two factors were excluded from this table because they were omitted from the factor analysis, as they had low Cronbach alpha coefficients (see Table 5.13).

Table 5.19: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FACTORS OBTAINED IN STUDY

Factor	n	\bar{x}	s
Fantasy Adventure	632	3.24	0.67
Small Indulgences	632	3.61	0.94
Egonomics	632	3.68	0.68
Cashing Out	633	3.66	0.81
Down-Aging	633	3.73	0.65
Being Alive	633	4.22	0.62
Vigilante Consumer	633	3.94	0.65
Save our Society	632	3.65	0.70

(Legend: n = sample size, \bar{x} = mean, s = standard deviation)

The mean of the 632 respondents for *Fantasy Adventure* was 3.24 (out of 5), which indicated a neutral response. The average respondent agreed with the concepts underlying the factors/trends of *Small Indulgences* (3.61), *Egonomics* (3.68), *Cashing Out* (3.66), *Down-Aging* (3.73), *Vigilante Consumer* (3.94) and *Save our Society* (3.65). The trend of *Being Alive* obtained the highest level of agreement with a mean of 4.22.

The means and standard deviations provided in Table 5.19 indicate that the primary research question, as stated in Chapter 1, has been answered positively. It can be inferred that the respondents had a neutral to high level of agreement with the eight trends. This will be discussed further in Chapter 6.

The biographical information obtained in Section B of the questionnaire will be used in determining effect sizes between the eight constructs obtained in Section A and the personal variables obtained in Section B.

5.5 EFFECT SIZES RESULTS

After the constructs were grouped into factors using factor analysis, effect sizes were determined between these factors and the variables obtained in Section A. The statistical formula used for the calculation between means and a background on effect sizes were discussed in Chapter 4 (see 4.11.3.3). The SAS computer programme (SAS Institute Inc. 2003; SAS Institute Inc. 2005) was used to analyse the data.

An effect size (d-value) of approximately 0.20 is regarded as an insignificantly small effect size, while an effect size of approximately 0.5 is a medium effect size, which indicate a substantial difference in means. An effect size of approximately 0.8 or larger is considered a large effect size that is practically significant (Cohen 1998). It was decided to omit small effect sizes ($d < 0.40$), as effect sizes of < 0.40 will not indicate any level of practical significance.

The results will be presented in a tabular format to make interpretation easier. Because the Cronbach alpha coefficient for *Cocooning* and *99-Lives* was < 0.50 and therefore not reliable, it is not reported in further analyses.

The following abbreviations/symbols are used in the tables:

\bar{x} = mean

s = standard deviation

d = effect size / practical significance

To allow for easier interpretation, it is understood that *practical significance* is inferred when a large effect size ($d = > 0.8$) is reported.

Means and standard deviations are reported on the same 5-point Likert scale that was used.

5.5.1 Effect sizes for gender

Table 5.20: MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND EFFECT SIZES INDICATING GENDER (n = 629)

Factor	Male		Female		d
	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	
Fantasy Adventure	3.22	0.63	3.26	0.70	No meaningful effect size.
Small Indulgences	3.05	0.92	3.93	0.79	0.95 ***
Egonomics	3.56	0.69	3.74	0.66	No meaningful effect size.
Cashing Out	3.64	0.82	3.67	0.82	No meaningful effect size.
Down-Aging	3.43	0.61	3.91	0.60	0.79 ***
Being Alive	4.14	0.68	4.27	0.58	No meaningful effect size.
Vigilante Consumer	4.01	0.64	3.91	0.65	No meaningful effect size.
Save our Society	3.69	0.76	3.62	0.67	No meaningful effect size.

Table 5.20 indicates a large effect size for *Small Indulgences*, with the average female respondent strongly agreeing with the trend. The practical effect size is large ($d = 0.95^{***}$) and indicates *practical significance*.

A large effect size exists for *Down-Aging* between males and females. Females had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements. A large effect size is reported ($d = 0.79^{***}$) and indicates *practical significance*.

As large effect sizes were obtained, it was established that in practice, females agreed to a larger extent with *Small-Indulgences* and *Down-Aging* than males.

5.5.2 Effect sizes for age

Table 5.21: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING AGE (n = 628)

Factor	18-30 years old		31-40 years old		41-50 years old		51-60 years old		61 years and older	
	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S
Fantasy Adventure	3.43	0.67	3.24	0.71	3.19	0.67	3.20	0.64	3.11	0.56
Small Indulgences	3.77	0.83	3.66	0.98	3.66	0.93	3.47	0.93	2.98	0.90
Egonomics	3.73	0.60	3.64	0.75	3.72	0.67	3.65	0.68	3.61	0.57
Cashing Out	3.76	0.76	3.65	0.93	3.72	0.80	3.55	0.76	3.55	0.61
Down-Aging	3.80	0.69	3.69	0.61	3.74	0.68	3.73	0.63	3.75	0.64
Being Alive	4.19	0.60	4.22	0.71	4.22	0.64	4.27	0.55	4.12	0.50
Vigilante Consumer	3.88	0.62	3.92	0.72	3.91	0.68	4.04	0.56	3.97	0.72
Save our Society	3.54	0.71	3.55	0.78	3.66	0.67	3.79	0.63	3.84	0.75

Table 5.21 provides the means and standard deviations indicating age of respondents. Options 18-21 and 22-30 years in the questionnaire have been grouped together due to the small number of respondents in the category. This group is reported as 18-30 years old.

Table 5.22: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING AGE (n = 628)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	18-30 years old	61 years and older	-0.49 **
Small Indulgences	18-30 years old	61 years and older	-0.87***
	31-40 years old	61 years and older	-0.69**
	41-50 years old	61 years and older	-0.73**
	51-60 years old	61 years and older	-0.53**
Egonomics	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Cashing Out	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Down-Aging	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Being Alive	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Vigilante Consumer	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Save our Society	18-30 years old	61 years and older	0.40*

Table 5.22 indicates a medium effect size ($d = -0.49^{**}$) for *Fantasy Adventure* obtained for the 18-30 and >61 year old respondents. The younger group showed a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend.

A large effect size ($d = -0.87^{***}$) was yielded for *Small Indulgences* for 18-30 and >61 year old respondents. Medium effect sizes were obtained for other age groups, which may indicate *practical significance*. The younger age groups had a substantial to practically significantly higher level of agreement with the trend.

Save our Society produced a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.40^*$) indicating that the 61 year old and older group agree substantially more with the statements than 18 to 30 year olds.

As medium and large practical effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure* and *Small Indulgences*, it can be inferred that age may influence consumers' agreement with these trends. The younger age groups tend to agree more with these two trends.

5.5.3 Effect sizes for home language

In question 1.3 of Section B in the questionnaire, options 3 to 12 (languages Tswana, Sesotho, Sepedi, Xhosa, Zulu, Tsonga, Venda, Ndebele, Swati and Other) have been grouped, forming "African languages", to present more meaningful data for the small number of respondents (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.23: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING HOME LANGUAGE (n = 621)

Factor	Afrikaans		English		African languages	
	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S
Fantasy Adventure	3.25	0.66	3.30	0.78	3.19	0.74
Small Indulgences	3.55	0.94	3.59	0.99	3.91	0.86
Egonomics	3.59	0.65	3.85	0.62	4.04	0.70
Cashing Out	3.57	0.80	3.49	0.90	4.14	0.73
Down-Aging	3.76	0.65	3.49	0.58	3.65	0.67
Being Alive	4.18	0.62	4.07	0.50	4.46	0.58
Vigilante Consumer	3.89	0.66	3.96	0.58	4.17	0.58
Save our Society	3.59	0.69	3.50	0.59	3.98	0.72

Table 5.23 indicates the means and standard deviations for home languages.

Table 5.24: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING HOME LANGUAGE (n = 621)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Small Indulgences	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Egonomics	Afrikaans	English	0.40*
	Afrikaans	African languages	0.64**
Cashing Out	Afrikaans	African languages	0.71**
	English	African languages	0.73**
Down-Aging	Afrikaans	English	-0.41*
Being Alive	Afrikaans	English	0.46*
	Afrikaans	African languages	0.46*
	English	African languages	0.67**
Vigilante Consumer	Afrikaans	African languages	0.43*
Save our Society	Afrikaans	African languages	0.54**
	English	African languages	0.66**

Table 5.24 indicates that *Egonomics* produced a small to medium effect size between Afrikaans and English respondents ($d = 0.40^*$), indicating that English-speaking participants agree substantially more with the statements than Afrikaans-speaking participants. A medium effect size was obtained for the difference between the Afrikaans and African languages ($d = 0.64^{**}$), which may indicate practical significance. The African languages group showed a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend.

Cashing Out resulted in a medium effect size ($d = 0.71^{**}$) between the Afrikaans and African languages and may have practical significance. The African group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend. A medium effect size ($d = 0.73^{**}$) was also obtained between the English and African languages and may indicate practical significance. The African group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend.

Down-Aging produced a small to medium effect size ($d = -0.41^*$) between the Afrikaans and English groups, indicating that the Afrikaans group agree substantially more with *Down-Aging* than the English group.

Being Alive yielded in a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.46^*$) between the Afrikaans and English participants, indicating that Afrikaans-speaking participants agree substantially more with the statements than English-speaking participants. A small to medium effect size was obtained between Afrikaans and the African languages ($d = 0.46^*$) and indicates that African language-speaking participants agree substantially more with the statements than Afrikaans speaking participants. Between the English and African languages a medium effect size ($d = 0.67^{**}$) was obtained, which may indicate practical significance. The African languages group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend.

Vigilante Consumer produced a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.43^*$) between the Afrikaans and African languages, indicating that African language-speaking participants agree substantially more with the statements than Afrikaans-speaking participants.

Save our Society resulted in a medium effect size ($d = 0.54^{**}$) between the Afrikaans and African languages group and may indicate practical significance. A medium effect size was obtained between the English and African languages ($d = 0.66^{**}$) and may also indicate practical significance. In both instances the African languages had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend.

As medium practical effect sizes were obtained for *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Being Alive* and *Save our Society*, it can be inferred that home language may influence consumers'

agreement with these trends. The African languages groups tend to agree more with these specific trends.

5.5.4 Effect sizes for ethnic group

In question 1.4 of Section B in the questionnaire, options 4 and 5, namely Indian and Other, have been omitted due to a small number of respondents (see Table 5.25).

Table 5.25: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING ETHNIC GROUP (n = 626)

Factor	White		Coloured		Black	
	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S
Fantasy Adventure	3.24	0.66	3.44	0.54	3.19	0.74
Small Indulgences	3.53	0.95	4.05	0.58	3.94	4.20
Egonomics	3.60	0.65	3.78	0.62	4.06	0.70
Cashing Out	3.58	0.79	3.48	1.09	4.16	0.74
Down-Aging	3.76	0.64	3.59	0.39	3.65	0.67
Being Alive	4.17	0.61	4.40	0.72	4.50	0.57
Vigilante Consumer	3.90	0.65	3.69	0.63	4.18	0.59
Save our Society	3.59	0.68	3.42	0.78	4.01	0.73

Table 5.26: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING ETHNIC GROUP (n = 626)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Small Indulgences	White	Coloured	0.55**
	White	Black	0.43*
Egonomics	White	Black	0.66**
	Coloured	Black	0.40*
Cashing Out	White	Black	0.74**
	Coloured	Black	0.63**
Down-Aging	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Being Alive	White	Black	0.54**
Vigilante Consumer	White	Black	0.43*
	Coloured	Black	0.78***
Save our Society	White	Black	0.58**
	Coloured	Black	0.75***

Table 5.26 indicates a medium effect size ($d = 0.55^{**}$) for *Small Indulgences* between the white and coloured respondents and may have practical significance. The coloured group has a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements. A small to medium effect

size ($d = 0.43^*$) was obtained between the white and black groups and indicates that blacks have a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than whites.

Egonomics resulted in a medium effect size ($d = 0.66^{**}$) between the white and black groups and may indicate practical significance. The black group had a substantially higher level of agreement for *Egonomics*. A small to medium effect size ($d = 0.40^*$) was obtained between the coloured and black respondents and indicates that black participants agree substantially more with the statements than coloured participants

Cashing Out yielded a medium effect size ($d = 0.74^{**}$) between white and black respondents and may have practical significance. The black group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend. A medium effect size ($d = 0.63^{**}$) was obtained between the coloured and black group and may indicate practical significance. The black group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements.

Being Alive resulted in a medium effect size ($d = 0.54^{**}$) between white and black respondents and may indicate practical significance. The black group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements.

Vigilante Consumer produced a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.43^*$) between the white and black groups and indicates that black participants agree substantially more with the statements than white participants. A medium to large effect size ($d = 0.78^{***}$) exists between coloured and black respondents and may indicate practical significance. The black group had a substantial to practically significantly higher level of agreement with this trend.

Save our Society resulted in a medium effect size ($d = 0.58^{**}$) between the white and black groups and may have practical significance. A medium to large effect size ($d = 0.75^{***}$) exists between the coloured and black groups and may indicate practical significance. The black respondents had a substantial to practically significant higher level of agreement with this trend.

As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Being Alive*, *Vigilante Consumer* and *Save our Society*, it can be inferred that respondents' ethnic group may influence their agreement with these trends. Apart from *Small Indulgences* where the coloured group had a substantially higher level of agreement, the black group tend to agree more with these specific trends.

5.5.5 Effect sizes indicating campus of the NWU

Table 5.27: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING CAMPUS OF THE NWU (n = 626)

Factor	Potchefstroom		Mafikeng		Vanderbijlpark		Institutional head office	
	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S
Fantasy Adventure	3.23	0.66	3.30	0.71	3.26	0.75	3.31	0.52
Small Indulgences	3.55	0.95	3.89	0.85	3.69	0.91	3.65	0.99
Egonomics	3.63	0.65	4.07	0.62	3.68	0.76	3.47	0.74
Cashing Out	3.61	0.80	4.11	0.74	3.66	0.84	3.36	0.81
Down-Aging	3.72	0.65	3.80	0.61	3.73	3.69	3.79	0.63
Being Alive	4.17	0.63	4.49	0.61	4.28	0.52	4.33	0.59
Vigilante Consumer	3.90	0.66	4.18	0.56	3.97	0.67	4.10	0.59
Save our Society	3.60	0.68	3.93	0.68	3.73	0.80	3.51	0.77

Table 5.27 indicates the means and standard deviations for respondents' campus at the NWU.

Table 5.28: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING CAMPUS OF THE NWU (n = 626)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Small Indulgences	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Egonomics	Potchefstroom	Mafikeng	0.68**
	Mafikeng	Vanderbijlpark	-0.52**
	Mafikeng	Institutional head office	-0.82***
Cashing Out	Potchefstroom	Mafikeng	0.62**
	Mafikeng	Vanderbijlpark	-0.53**
	Mafikeng	Institutional head office	-0.93***
Down-Aging	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Being Alive	Potchefstroom	Mafikeng	0.51**
Vigilante Consumer	Potchefstroom	Mafikeng	0.43*
Save our Society	Potchefstroom	Mafikeng	0.48*

Table 5.28 indicates a medium effect size ($d = 0.68^{**}$) for *Egonomics* between the Potchesftroom and Mafikeng campuses and may indicate practical significance. A medium effect size ($d = -0.52^{**}$) was obtained between the Mafikeng and Vanderbijlpark campuses and may have practical significance. A large effect size ($d = -0.82^{***}$) was obtained between

the Mafikeng and Institutional head office and indicates practical significance. In all instances the Mafikeng campus had a substantial to practically significant higher level of agreement.

Cashing Out resulted in a medium effect size ($d = 0.62^{**}$) between the Potchefstroom and Mafikeng campuses and may indicate practical significance. A medium effect size (-0.53^{**}) was obtained between the Mafikeng and Vanderbijlpark campuses and may indicate practical significance. A large effect size ($d = -0.93^{***}$) was obtained between the Mafikeng and Institutional head office and indicates practical significance. The Mafikeng group had a substantial to practically significant higher level of agreement with the trend.

Being Alive produced a medium effect size ($d = -0.51^{**}$) between the Potchefstroom and Mafikeng campuses and may indicate practical significance. The Mafikeng campus showed a substantially higher level of agreement with this trend.

Vigilante Consumer resulted in a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.43^*$) between the Potchefstroom and Mafikeng campuses and indicates that the Mafikeng participants agree substantially more with the statements than the Potchesftroom campus participants.

Save our Society has a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.48^*$) between the Potchefstroom and Mafikeng campuses and indicates that the Mafikeng participants agree substantially more with the statements than the Potchefstroom campus participants.

As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out* and *Being Alive*, it can be inferred that the campus where respondents are positioned may influence their agreement with these trends. In all these instances, the Mafikeng group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the specific trends.

5.5.6 Effect sizes indicating positions held at the NWU

Due to the small number of participants who chose options 7 and 8 of Section B in question 1.6, the two options have been grouped together into an option called "middle/top management" (see Table 5.29).

Table 5.29: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING RESPONDENTS' POSITIONS HELD AT THE NWU (n = 617)

Factor	Junior lecturer		Lecturer		Senior lecturer		Associate professor/ professor		Other academic position		Support staff members		Middle / Top management	
	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s
Fantasy Adventure	3.23	0.68	3.24	0.78	3.28	0.61	3.15	0.62	3.52	0.65	3.24	0.68	3.19	0.61
Small Indulgences	3.62	1.09	3.41	0.86	3.38	0.86	2.89	0.99	3.64	0.88	3.85	0.85	3.40	0.99
Economics	3.65	0.60	3.62	0.64	3.60	0.63	3.38	0.57	3.72	0.75	3.75	0.70	3.71	0.67
Cashing Out	3.71	0.72	3.36	0.87	3.29	0.79	3.46	0.79	3.72	0.85	3.82	0.79	3.63	0.80
Down-Aging	3.68	0.64	3.73	0.61	3.68	0.66	3.52	0.72	3.63	0.70	3.81	0.64	3.67	0.57
Being Alive	4.18	0.52	4.06	0.69	4.17	0.66	3.97	0.78	4.33	0.50	4.29	0.57	4.28	0.54
Vigilante Consumer	3.83	0.56	3.94	0.73	3.96	0.54	3.82	0.66	4.14	0.60	3.93	0.67	4.16	0.58
Save our Society	3.63	0.58	3.67	0.76	3.63	0.72	3.55	0.82	3.86	0.69	3.63	0.67	3.76	0.73

Table 5.30: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING RESPONDENTS' POSITIONS HELD AT THE NWU (n = 617)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	Junior lecturer	Other academic position	0.42*
	Associate professor/ professor	Other academic position	0.56**
	Other academic position	Support staff member	-0.40*
	Other academic position	Middle / top management	-0.50**
Small Indulgences	Junior lecturer	Associate professor/ professor	-0.68**
	Lecturer	Associate professor/ professor	-0.52**
	Lecturer	Support staff member	0.51**
	Senior lecturer	Associate professor/ professor	-0.50**
	Senior lecturer	Support staff member	0.55**
	Associate professor/ professor	Other academic position	0.76***
	Associate professor/ professor	Support staff member	0.97***
	Associate professor/ professor	Middle / top management	0.51**
	Support staff member	Middle / top management	-0.46*
Egonomics	Junior lecturer	Associate professor/ professor	-0.46*
	Associate professor/ professor	Other academic position	0.45*
	Associate professor/ professor	Support staff member	0.53**
	Associate professor/ professor	Middle / top management	0.50**
Cashing Out	Junior lecturer	Lecturer	-0.41*
	Junior lecturer	Senior lecturer	-0.53**
	Lecturer	Other academic position	0.42*
	Lecturer	Support staff member	0.53**
	Senior lecturer	Other academic position	0.51**
	Senior lecturer	Support staff member	0.67**
	Senior lecturer	Middle / top management	0.42*
	Associate professor/ professor	Support staff member	0.45*
Down-Aging	Associate professor/ professor	Support staff member	0.41*
Being Alive	Associate professor/ professor	Other academic position	0.46*
	Associate professor/ professor	Support staff member	0.42*
	Associate professor/ professor	Middle / top management	0.40*
Vigilante Consumer	Junior lecturer	Other academic position	0.51**
	Junior lecturer	Middle / top management	0.56**
	Associate professor/ professor	Other academic position	0.48*
	Associate professor/ professor	Middle / top management	0.51**
Save our Society	No meaningful effect sizes.		

Table 5.30 indicates that small to medium effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure* between junior lecturers and other academic position ($d = 0.42^*$) as well as between the other academic positions and support staff ($d = -0.40^*$), and this indicates that the other academic positions group has a substantially higher level of agreement with *Fantasy*

Adventure than the junior lecturers or support staff members. Medium effect sizes were obtained between the professors and other academic positions ($d = 0.56^{**}$) and between the other academic positions and management ($d = -0.50^{**}$), and may indicate practical significance. The group that indicated "other academic positions" had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend in both instances. On the other hand, professors and middle/top management had lower levels of agreement with the statements.

Small Indulgences yielded medium effect sizes between junior lecturers and professors ($d = 0.68^{**}$), lecturers and professors ($d = -0.52^{**}$), lecturers and support staff members ($d = 0.51^{**}$), senior lecturers and professors ($d = 0.50^{**}$), senior lecturers and support staff members ($d = 0.55^{**}$) and professors and management ($d = 0.51^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. A large effect size was obtained between the professors and other academic positions ($d = 0.76^{***}$) and professors and support staff members ($d = 0.97^{***}$) which indicates practical significance. Junior lecturers, support staff members and other academic positions had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements. Professors had a lower level of agreement with *Small Indulgences*.

Egonomics produced a small to medium effect size between junior lecturers and professors ($d = 0.46^*$) as well as between the professors and other academic positions ($d = 0.45^*$) and indicates that professors had a substantially lower level of agreement with the statements than the junior lecturers. Medium effect sizes were obtained between professors and support staff members ($d = 0.53^{**}$) and between professors and management ($d = 0.50^{**}$), which may have practical significance. In both instances, support staff members and management had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend than the professors.

Cashing Out resulted in a small to medium effect size between the junior lecturers and lecturers ($d = 0.41^*$), lecturers and other academic positions ($d = 0.42^*$), senior lecturers and management ($d = 0.42^*$) and professors and support staff members ($d = 0.45^*$) and indicates that junior lecturers, other academic positions, support staff members and management had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than the others. Medium effect sizes were obtained between junior lecturers and senior lecturers ($d = -0.53^{**}$), lecturers and support staff members ($d = 0.52^{**}$), senior lecturers and other academic positions ($d = 0.51^{**}$) and senior lecturers and support staff members ($d = 0.67^{**}$). This may indicate practical significance. Junior lecturers, other academic positions and support staff members had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements.

Down-Aging produced a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.41^*$) between professors and support staff members, indicating that support staff members had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than professors.

Being Alive obtained small to medium effect sizes between professors and other academic positions (0.46^*), professors and support staff members ($d = 0.42^*$) and professors and management ($d = 0.40^*$), indicating that professors had a substantially lower level of agreement.

Vigilante Consumer resulted in medium effect sizes between junior lecturers and other academic positions ($d = 0.51^{**}$), junior lecturers and management ($d = 0.56^{**}$) and professors and management ($d = 0.51^{**}$) and may have practical significance. A small to medium effect size was obtained between professors and other academic positions ($d = 0.48^*$), indicating that professors had a substantially lower level of agreement with the statements than other academic professions. Other academic positions and management had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements and professors the lowest.

As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out* and *Vigilante Consumer*, it can be inferred that respondents' type of position held at the NWU may influence their agreement with these trends. In most instances professors had a substantially lower level of agreement with the statements.

5.5.7 Effect sizes for highest qualifications

Table 5.31 indicates the respondents' highest qualifications obtained (see next page).

Table 5.31: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING RESPONDENTS' HIGHEST QUALIFICATION (n = 608)

Factor	Grade 11 and less		Grade 12		College qualification		Technikon qualification		University degree		Postgraduate university degree		Other	
	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s	\bar{x}	s
Fantasy Adventure	3.40	0.72	3.22	0.75	3.42	0.58	3.30	0.66	3.20	0.76	3.22	0.63	2.91	0.71
Small Indulgences	4.07	1.01	3.97	0.86	4.05	0.80	3.70	0.86	3.70	0.87	3.40	0.94	3.31	1.06
Economics	3.88	0.80	3.83	0.82	3.74	0.63	3.53	0.65	3.69	0.67	3.61	0.65	3.68	0.76
Cashing Out	4.05	0.86	3.85	0.73	3.83	0.73	3.76	0.77	3.71	0.80	3.55	0.85	3.90	0.55
Down-Aging	3.87	0.78	3.79	0.68	3.94	0.55	3.56	0.60	3.70	0.62	3.70	0.65	3.74	0.73
Being Alive	4.52	0.49	4.34	0.56	4.40	0.52	4.13	0.63	4.23	0.57	4.16	0.64	4.24	0.67
Vigilante Consumer	4.11	0.66	3.98	0.61	3.99	0.68	3.78	0.71	3.96	0.62	3.93	0.66	3.87	0.67
Save our Society	4.04	0.71	3.69	0.74	3.55	0.61	3.39	0.62	3.61	0.67	3.66	0.72	3.53	0.64

Table 5.32: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING RESPONDENTS' HIGHEST QUALIFICATION (n = 608)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	No meaningful effect sizes		
Small Indulgences	Grade 11 and less	Postgraduate university degree	-0.66**
	Grade 12	Postgraduate university degree	-0.61**
	College qualification	Technikon qualification	-0.40*
	College qualification	University degree	-0.40*
	College qualification	Postgraduate university degree	-0.69**
Egonomics	Grade 11 and less	Technikon qualification	-0.44*
Cashing Out	Grade 11 and less	University degree	-0.40*
	Grade 11 and less	Postgraduate university degree	-0.58**
Down-Aging	Grade 11 and less	Technikon qualification	-0.40*
	College qualification	Technikon qualification	-0.64**
Being Alive	Grade 11 and less	Technikon qualification	-0.62**
	Grade 11 and less	University degree	-0.51**
	Grade 11 and less	Postgraduate university degree	-0.57**
	College qualification	Technikon qualification	-0.42*
Vigilante Consumer	Grade 11 and less	Technikon qualification	-0.46*
Save our Society	Grade 11 and less	Grade 12	-0.47*
	Grade 11 and less	College qualification	-0.70**
	Grade 11 and less	Technikon qualification	-0.92***
	Grade 11 and less	University degree	-0.60**
	Grade 11 and less	Postgraduate university degree	-0.53**
	Grade 12	Technikon qualification	-0.41*

When the effect sizes were calculated, the item "Other" was omitted since no meaningful information would have been obtained in this category.

Table 5.32 indicates medium effect sizes for *Small Indulgences* between the Grade 11 and postgraduate university degree groups ($d = -0.66^{**}$), between Grade 12 and postgraduate university degree groups ($d = -0.61^{**}$) and college qualification and postgraduate university groups ($d = 0.69^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. The lower qualification groups had substantially higher levels of agreement with the statements. Interesting to note in Table 5.30 is that respondents holding Grade 11 and less, Grade 12 and college qualifications had higher levels of agreement with *Small Indulgences* than the other participants holding higher levels of qualifications. Small to medium effect sizes were obtained between college qualification and technikon qualification groups ($d = -0.40^*$) and college and university degree groups ($d = -0.40^*$) and indicates that the college qualification group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements in both instances. It

can be inferred that the higher the respondents' qualification level, the less they are interested in the trend of *Small Indulgences*.

Ergonomics produced a small to medium effect size ($d = -0.44^*$) between the Grade 11 and technikon qualification groups where the Grade 11 group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than the technikon group.

Cashing Out resulted in a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.40^*$) between the Grade 11 and university qualification groups, indicating that the Grade 11 group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than the university group. A medium effect size ($d = -0.58^{**}$) was obtained between the Grade 11 and postgraduate university degree groups and may indicate practical significance. The Grade 11 and less group had the highest level of agreement with the statements among the groups.

Down-Aging rendered a small to medium effect size ($d = -0.40^*$) between the participants holding Grade 11 and technikon qualification groups, indicating that the Grade 11 respondents had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than the technikon group. A medium effect size ($d = -0.64^{**}$) was obtained between the college and technikon qualification groups and may indicate practical significance. The college qualification group had the highest level of agreement with the statements and the technikon participants the lowest.

Being Alive established medium effect sizes between the Grade 11 and technikon groups ($d = -0.62^{**}$), the Grade 11 and university degree groups ($d = -0.51^{**}$) and the Grade 11 and postgraduate groups ($d = -0.57^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. The Grade 11 group had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend. A small to medium effect size was obtained between the college and technikon qualification groups ($d = -0.42^*$), indicating that the college qualification participants had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than the technikon group.

Vigilante Consumer produced a small to medium effect size ($d = -0.46^*$) between the Grade 11 and technikon qualification groups, indicating that the Grade 11 group agreed substantially more with the statements than the technikon group.

Save our Society established a small to medium effect sizes between the Grade 11 and Grade 12 ($d = -0.47^*$) and between the Grade 12 and technikon groups and indicates that the Grade 11 and Grade 12 participants agreed substantially more with the statements than the technikon group. Medium effect sizes were obtained between the Grade 11 college qualification groups ($p = -0.70^{**}$), the Grade 11 and university degree groups ($d = -0.60^{**}$)

and between the Grade 11 and postgraduate university degree groups ($d = -0.53^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. A large effect size ($d = -0.92^{***}$) was obtained between the Grade 11 and technikon qualification groups and indicates practical significance. A small to medium effect size ($d = -0.41^*$) was obtained between the Grade 12 and technikon qualification groups and indicates that the Grade 12 group had a substantially higher level of agreement than the technikon group. Participants holding Grade 11 and less have the highest level of agreement with *Save our Society* and the technikon qualification respondents the lowest: it can thus be inferred that the respondents with lower levels of qualifications were more concerned with the trend of *Save our Society*.

As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Small Indulgences*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive*, and *Save our Society* it can be inferred that respondents' qualification level may influence their agreement with these trends. In most instances the "Grade 11 and less" group had the highest level of agreement with the statements.

5.5.8 Effect sizes for marital status

Due to the small number of participants who chose option 6, namely "Other" in question 1.8 of Section B of the questionnaire, the option has been omitted from the report in Tables 5.33 and 5.34.

Table 5.33: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING RESPONDENTS' MARITAL STATUS (n = 624)

Factor	Single		Living together		Married		Divorced		Widowed	
	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S
Fantasy Adventure	3.38	0.75	2.97	0.59	3.23	0.65	3.08	0.77	3.56	0.37
Small Indulgences	3.93	0.77	3.31	1.02	3.50	0.97	4.07	0.64	4.06	0.55
Egonomics	3.70	0.64	3.54	0.69	3.63	0.69	3.85	0.68	4.06	0.39
Cashing Out	3.81	0.77	3.55	0.57	3.61	0.84	3.85	0.78	3.95	0.56
Down-Aging	3.74	0.63	3.45	0.57	3.72	0.66	4.02	0.64	3.80	0.45
Being Alive	4.32	0.57	3.99	0.46	4.21	0.63	4.27	0.63	4.26	0.49
Vigilante Consumer	4.03	0.60	3.69	0.70	3.94	0.66	3.86	0.67	4.14	0.28
Save our Society	3.76	0.65	3.34	0.69	3.64	0.72	3.56	0.61	3.78	0.52

Table 5.34: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING RESPONDENTS' MARITAL STATUS (n = 624)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	Single	Living together	-0.54**
	Living together	Married	0.40*
	Married	Widowed	0.50**
	Divorced	Widowed	0.63**
Small Indulgences	Single	Living together	-0.61**
	Single	Married	-0.45*
	Living together	Divorced	0.75***
	Living together	Widowed	0.73**
	Married	Divorced	0.59**
Egonomics	Single	Widowed	0.56**
	Living together	Divorced	0.45*
	Living together	Widowed	0.75***
	Married	Widowed	0.60**
Cashing Out	Living together	Widowed	0.69**
Down-Aging	Single	Living together	-0.47*
	Single	Divorced	0.43*
	Living together	Married	0.41*
	Living together	Divorced	0.90***
	Living together	Widowed	0.62**
	Married	Divorced	0.47*
Being Alive	Single	Living together	-0.58**
	Living together	Divorced	0.45*
	Living together	Widowed	0.56**
Vigilante Consumer	Single	Living together	-0.49*
	Divorced	Widowed	0.41*
Save our Society	Single	Living together	0.61**
	Living together	Married	0.42*
	Living together	Widowed	0.64**

Table 5.34 indicates a medium effect size for *Fantasy Adventure* between the respondents being single and living together ($d = -0.54^{**}$), the married and widowed groups ($d = 0.50^{**}$) and the divorced and widowed groups ($d = 0.63^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. A small to medium effect size was obtained between the group that is divorced and the group that is widowed ($d = -0.40^{*}$), indicating that the widowed respondents agreed substantially more with the statements than the divorced group. The widowed group had the highest level of agreement with the statements, and the people living together the lowest.

Small Indulgences established a small effect size ($d = -0.45^{*}$) between the single and married groups, indicating that the single respondents agreed substantially more with the

statements than the married respondents. Medium effect sizes were obtained between the single and living together group ($d = -0.61^{**}$), between living together and widowed groups ($d = 0.73^{**}$) and between the married and divorced group ($d = 0.59^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. A large effect size ($d = 0.75^{***}$) was obtained between the living together and divorced groups and indicates practical significance. It can be inferred that the respondents who are single, divorced or widowed have a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend of *Small Indulgences* than those that are married or living together (couples).

Egonomics resulted in a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.45^*$) between the living together and divorced groups, indicating that the divorced group have a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than the living together group. Medium effect sizes were obtained between the single and widowed ($d = 0.56^{**}$) and between the married and widowed groups ($d = 0.60^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. A medium to large effect size ($d = 0.75^{***}$) was established between the living together and widowed groups and indicates practical significance. For *Egonomics* the highest level of agreement was obtained from the widowed group and a substantially lower level of agreement among those living together. It can be inferred that single people (never married, divorced or widowed) has a higher level of agreement with the trend of *Egonomics* than the people with partners (living together or married).

Cashing Out resulted in a medium effect size ($d = 0.69^{**}$) between the living together and widowed groups and may indicate practical significance. The widowed group had a substantially higher level of agreement with this factor.

Down-Aging resulted in small to medium effect sizes obtained between the single and living together groups (-0.47^*), indicating that the single group agreed substantially more. A small to medium effect sizes was also obtained between the single and divorced groups ($d = 0.43^*$), with the divorcees having a substantially higher level of agreement. A small to medium effect size was obtained between the living together and married groups ($d = 0.41^*$), indicating that the married respondents had a substantially higher level of agreement. A small to medium effect size was also concluded between the married and divorced groups ($d = 0.47^*$), indicating that the divorcees had a substantially higher level of agreement. A medium effect size ($d = 0.62^{**}$) was obtained between the living together and widowed groups and may indicate practical significance. A large effect size ($d = 0.90^{***}$) was obtained between the living together and divorced groups and indicates practical significance. In this instance the divorcees had a substantially higher level of agreement than the living together

group, It can be inferred that the divorcees had the highest level of agreement with *Down-Aging* and the group living together the lowest.

Being Alive resulted in a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.45^*$) obtained between the respondents living together and the divorcees, indicating that the divorcees had a substantially higher level of agreement. A medium effect size was established between the single and living together groups ($d = -0.58^{**}$), with the single respondents having a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements and may indicate practical significance. A medium effect size was also obtained between the living together and widowed groups ($d = -0.56^{**}$), with the widowed respondents having a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements and may have practical significance. It can be inferred that the respondents without partners (single, divorced and widowed) had substantially higher levels of agreement with *Being Alive* than the people with partners (living together or married).

Vigilante Consumer resulted in small to medium effect sizes between the single and living together groups ($d = -0.49^*$) and indicates that single respondents agree substantially more with the statements than the living together group. A small to medium effect size was also obtained between the divorced and widowed groups ($d = 0.41^*$), indicating that the widowed group agree substantially more with the statements than the divorcees. The widowed group had the highest level of agreement with the trend of *Vigilante Consumer*, and the group living together the lowest.

Save our Society obtained a small to medium effect size ($d = 0.42^*$) between the living together and married groups and indicates that married respondents agree substantially more with the statements than the living together group. Medium effect sizes exist between the single and living together groups ($d = 0.61^{**}$) and between the living together and widowed groups ($d = 0.64^{**}$) and may have practical significance. The widowed and single groups had substantially higher levels of agreement with this trend, while the group living together had the lowest level of agreement.

As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive* and *Save our Society* it can be inferred that respondents' marital status may influence their agreement with these trends. In most instances, the respondents living as couples had a substantially lower level of agreement with the trends, than those living alone (i.e. unmarried, divorced or widowed).

5.5.9 Effect sizes for respondents' gross monthly income of household

Table 5.35: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING RESPONDENTS' GROSS MONTHLY INCOME OF HOUSEHOLD (n = 602)

Factor	Less than R5 000		R5 001 – R14 999		R15 000 – R19 999		R20 000 – R24 999		R25 000 – R29 999		More than R30 000	
	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S	\bar{x}	S
	Fantasy Adventure	3.30	0.71	3.23	0.71	3.22	0.63	3.31	0.71	3.16	0.49	3.33
Small Indulgences	3.93	0.74	3.72	0.94	3.49	0.89	3.44	1.09	3.23	0.86	3.38	0.98
Egonomics	3.86	0.67	3.66	0.72	3.57	0.66	3.72	0.62	3.50	0.53	3.74	0.65
Cashing Out	3.88	0.69	3.80	0.81	3.49	0.88	3.53	0.77	3.40	0.82	3.46	0.81
Down-Aging	3.72	0.65	3.76	0.66	3.67	0.73	3.78	0.58	3.69	0.66	3.77	0.56
Being Alive	4.35	0.55	4.24	0.64	4.19	0.70	4.18	0.56	4.16	0.64	4.21	4.19
Vigilante Consumer	3.93	0.73	3.89	0.69	3.87	0.64	4.07	0.61	3.95	0.58	3.99	0.60
Save our Society	3.63	0.75	3.62	0.67	3.64	0.77	3.67	0.67	3.57	0.65	3.81	0.64

In Table 5.35 the option “Choose not to specify” of question 1.9 of Section B in the questionnaire, has been omitted because the information does not hold any practical significance.

Please see next page for Table 5.36.

Table 5.36: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING RESPONDENTS' GROSS MONTHLY INCOME OF HOUSEHOLD (n = 602)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Small Indulgences	Less than R5 000	R15 000 - R19 999	-0.50**
	Less than R5 000	R20 000 – R24 999	-0.44*
	Less than R5 000	R25 000 – R29 999	-0.82***
	Less than R5 000	More than R30 000	-0.56**
	R5 001 - R14 999	More than R30 000	-0.52**
Egonomics	Less than R5 000	R15 000 - R19 999	-0.43*
	Less than R5 000	R25 000 – R29 999	-0.54**
Cashing Out	Less than R5 000	R15 000 - R19 999	-0.45*
	Less than R5 000	R20 000 – R24 999	-0.46*
	Less than R5 000	R25 000 – R29 999	-0.59**
	Less than R5 000	More than R30 000	-0.52**
	R5 001 - R14 999	R25 000 – R29 999	-0.49*
	R5 001 - R14 999	More than R30 000	-0.42*
Down-Aging	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Being Alive	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Vigilante Consumer	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Save our Society	No meaningful effect sizes.		

Table 5.36 indicates a small to medium effect size ($d = -0.44^*$) for *Small Indulgences* between the <R5 000 and R20 000 to R24 999 income groups and indicates that the <R5 000 group agrees substantially more with the statements than the other group. Medium effect sizes were obtained between the <R5 000 and R15 000 to R19 000 groups ($d = -0.50^{**}$), between the <R5 000 and >R30 000 ($d = -0.56^{**}$) and between the R5 001 to R14 999 and >R30 000 income groups ($d = 0.52^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. A large effect size ($d = -0.82^{***}$) was obtained between the <R5 000 and R25 000 to R29 999 income groups and indicates practical significance. It can be inferred that the lower income groups have a higher level of agreement with *Small Indulgences* than the higher income groups.

Egonomics resulted in a small to medium effect size between the income groups of <R5 000 and R15 000 to R19 999 ($d = -0.43^*$), indicating that the <R5 000 group agrees substantially more with the statements than the higher income group. A medium effect size was obtained between the income groups of <R5 000 and R25 000 to R29 999 ($d = -0.54^{**}$) and may

indicate practical significance. The income group of <R5 000 had the highest level of agreement with the trend of *Egonomics* and it can be inferred that the lower income groups aspire more to the trend of *Egonomics* than the other income groups.

Cashing Out obtained small to medium effect sizes between the <R5 000 and R15 000 to R19 999 groups, between the <R5 000 and R20 000 to R24 999 groups, between the R5 001 to R14 999 groups and R25 000 to R29 999 groups and between the R5 001 to R14 999 and >R30 000 groups and indicates that the lower income groups agree substantially more with *Cashing Out* than the higher income groups. Medium effect sizes were obtained between the <R5 000 and R25 000 to R29 999 groups ($d = -0.59^{**}$) and between the <R5 000 and >R30 000 income groups and may indicate practical significance. It can be inferred that the lower income groups have a substantially higher level of agreement with *Cashing Out*, than the higher income groups.

As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics* and *Cashing Out* it can be inferred that respondents' monthly household income may influence their agreement with these trends. The lowest income group (less than R5 000) had a substantially higher level of agreement with these specific trends than the higher income groups.

5.5.10 Effect sizes for respondents' number of people in household

Table 5.37 indicates the number of people in respondents' households. Option 7 and 8 have been grouped together, as the numbers of respondents were too low to yield meaningful data (see Table 5.11).

Table 5.37: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS INDICATING RESPONDENTS' NUMBER OF PEOPLE IN HOUSEHOLD (n = 625)

Factor	1 person		2 people		3 people		4 people		5 people		6 people		7 and more people	
	\bar{X}	s	\bar{X}	s										
Fantasy Adventure	3.30	0.75	3.21	0.64	3.16	0.69	3.31	0.66	3.24	0.68	3.23	0.68	3.80	0.43
Small Indulgences	3.87	0.85	3.48	0.97	3.67	0.92	3.58	0.92	3.51	0.91	3.73	1.04	3.86	1.07
Egonomics	3.64	0.69	3.64	0.65	3.64	0.64	3.74	0.74	3.66	0.69	3.84	0.73	3.84	0.66
Cashing Out	3.67	0.74	3.57	0.77	3.64	0.86	3.67	0.79	3.76	0.90	3.99	0.76	3.73	1.23
Down-Aging	3.90	0.57	3.76	0.68	3.71	0.70	3.73	0.66	3.71	0.58	3.64	0.51	3.43	0.76
Being Alive	4.29	0.54	4.18	0.63	4.15	0.66	4.28	0.65	4.27	0.51	4.39	0.64	4.18	0.55
Vigilante Consumer	3.87	0.52	3.98	0.60	3.90	0.75	3.94	0.66	3.91	0.63	4.06	0.78	4.28	0.29
Save our Society	3.64	0.68	3.59	0.75	3.62	0.68	3.67	0.69	3.66	0.70	3.85	0.75	3.88	0.58

Table 5.38: EFFECT SIZES INDICATING RESPONDENTS' NUMBER OF PEOPLE IN HOUSEHOLD (n = 625)

Factor	Group 1	Group 2	d
Fantasy Adventure	1 person	7 and more people	0.66**
	2 people	7 and more people	0.93***
	3 people	7 and more people	0.93***
	4 people	7 and more people	0.74**
	5 people	7 and more people	0.83***
	6 people	7 and more people	0.83***
Small Indulgences	1 person	2 people	-0.40*
	1 person	5 people	-0.40*
Egonomics	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Cashing Out	1 person	6 people	0.42*
	2 people	6 people	0.54**
	3 people	6 people	0.41*
	4 people	6 people	0.40*
Down-Aging	1 person	6 people	-0.45*
	1 person	7 and more people	-0.62**
	2 people	7 and more people	-0.44*
	4 people	7 and more people	-0.40*
Being Alive	No meaningful effect sizes.		
Vigilante Consumer	1 person	7 and more people	0.79***
	2 people	7 and more people	0.50**
	3 people	7 and more people	0.50**
	4 people	7 and more people	0.52**
	5 people	7 and more people	0.58**
Save our Society	No meaningful effect sizes.		

Table 5.38 indicates medium effect sizes for *Fantasy Adventure* between 1 person and >7 people ($d = 0.66^{**}$) and between 4 people and >7 people ($d = 0.74^{**}$) per household and may indicate practical significance. Large effect sizes were established between 2 people and >7 people in a household ($d = 0.93^{***}$), between 3 people and >7 people in a household ($d = 0.93^{***}$), between 5 people and >7 people in a household ($d = 0.83^{***}$) and between 6 people and >7 people in a household ($d = 0.83^{***}$) and indicates practical significance. It can be inferred that the respondents from a household of 7 and more people had a substantially to practically higher level of agreement with this trend than households with a small number of people, and perhaps longs for escaping from their daily lives by means of *Fantasy Adventure*.

Small Indulgences resulted in small to medium effect sizes between households consisting of 1 person and 2 people ($d = -0.40^*$) and between 1 person and 5 people ($d = -0.40^*$), and indicates in both instances that respondents from households with 1 person agree substantially more with the statements than those consisting of 2 people or 5 people.

Cashing Out obtained small to medium effect sizes between households consisting of 1 person and 6 people ($d = 0.42^*$), between 3 and 6 people ($d = 0.41^*$) and between 4 and 6 people ($d = 0.40^*$) and indicates that respondents from households with 6 people agree substantially more with the statements than those from households consisting of 1, 3 or 4. A medium effect size was yielded between households consisting of 2 and 6 people ($d = 0.54^{**}$), and may indicate practical significance. It can be inferred that respondents with a household consisting of 6 people had a substantially higher level of agreement with *Cashing Out* than those consisting of 2 people.

Down-Aging resulted in small to medium effect sizes between households consisting of 1 person and 6 people ($d = -0.45^*$), between 2 people and >7 people ($d = -0.44^*$) and between 4 people and >7 people ($d = -0.40^*$), indicating that respondents from households with 6 or >7 people agree substantially less with *Down-Aging* than respondents from smaller households. A medium effect size was obtained between 1 person and >7 people in a household ($d = -0.62^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. It can be inferred that respondents with a household consisting of 1 person had the highest level of agreement with *Down-Aging*, and those with >7 people the lowest.

Vigilante Consumer obtained medium effect sizes for households between 2 and >7 people ($d = 0.50^{**}$), between 3 and >7 people ($d = 0.50^{**}$), between 4 and >7 people ($d = 0.52^{**}$), and between 5 and >7 people ($d = 0.58^{**}$) and may indicate practical significance. A large effect size was obtained between the households with 1 person and those with >7 people ($d = 0.79^{***}$) and indicates practical significance. The respondents with households >7 people have the highest levels of agreement with the trend of *Vigilante Consumer* and the respondents with 1 person in a household the lowest. It can be inferred that the larger the household, the higher the agreement with *Vigilante Consumer*.

As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging* and *Vigilante Consumer* it can be inferred that the number of people in a respondent's household may influence his/her agreement with these trends.

5.6 SUMMARY

The research confirmed that it was reliable to group eight of the ten consumer trends as factors or constructs. The tests which were performed with the assistance of Cronbach's alpha coefficient confirmed that eight variables had reliable measurement instruments. The exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses also confirmed the high construct validity of each of the eight variables. Due to insufficient reliability measurements, two trends - *Cocooning* and *99-Lives* - were excluded from the empirical study.

It can be inferred from the research that in general, different demographic variables, such as gender, age, home language, ethnic group, campus of the NWU, positions held at the NWU, highest qualifications held, marital status, gross monthly income and number of people in households may have an influence on respondents' level of agreement with Faith Popcorn's eight consumer trends.

The primary findings of the empirical study were the following:

- The average respondent responded neutrally towards the trend of *Fantasy Adventure* and did not agree or disagree with the factor. The average respondent in the study agreed with the trends of *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Vigilante Consumer* and *Save our Society*. Furthermore, the average respondent strongly agreed with the trend of *Being Alive*.

Additional findings obtained by determining the practical effect sizes between the demographical factors, can be summarised as follow:

- *Gender*: It was established that in practice, females had higher levels of agreement with *Small Indulgences* and *Down-Aging* than males.
- *Age*: Medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure* and *Small Indulgences*. It can be inferred that age may influence consumers' agreement with these specific trends. The younger age groups tended to have higher levels of agreement with *Fantasy Adventure* and *Small Indulgences*.
- *Home language*: Medium effect sizes were obtained for *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Being Alive* and *Save our Society*. It can be inferred that home language may influence consumers' agreement with these specific trends. It was established that the African languages groups tend to agree substantially more with these specific trends.

- *Ethnic group*: Medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Being Alive*, *Vigilante Consumer* and *Save our Society*. It can be inferred that respondents' ethnic group may influence their agreement with these trends. Apart from *Small Indulgences* where the coloured group had a higher level of agreement, the black group had a substantially higher level of agreement with these specific trends.
- *Campus of the NWU*: As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out* and *Being Alive*, it can be inferred that respondents' campus may influence their agreement with these trends. In all these instances, the Mafikeng group had a substantially higher level of agreement with these specific trends.
- *Position at the NWU*: Medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out* and *Vigilante Consumer*. It can be inferred that respondents' type of position held at the NWU may influence their agreement with these trends. In most instances professors had the lowest level of agreement.
- *Highest qualification*: Medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Small Indulgences*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive* and *Save our Society*. It can be inferred that respondents' qualification level may influence their agreement with these trends. In most instances the Grade 11 and less group had the highest level of agreement with these specific trends.
- *Marital status*: Medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive* and *Save our Society*. It can be inferred that respondents' marital status may influence their agreement with these trends. In most instances, the respondents living as couples had a substantially lower level of agreement with the trends, than those living alone (i.e. unmarried, divorced or widowed).
- *Gross monthly income of household*: As medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics* and *Cashing Out* it can be inferred that respondents' monthly household income may influence their agreement with these trends. The lowest income group (less than R5 000) had a substantially higher level of agreement with these specific trends than the higher income groups.
- *Number of people in household*: Medium and large effect sizes were obtained for *Fantasy Adventure*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging* and *Vigilante Consumer*. It can be inferred that the number of people in a respondent's household may influence his/her agreement with

these trends. It became clear that in the cases of *Fantasy Adventure* and *Vigilante Consumer* respondents with 7 or more people in their households had the highest level of agreement with the statements. In the case of *Cashing Out*, respondents' households consisting of 6 people had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than those consisting of 2 people. Finally, in the case of *Down-Aging*, respondents living in a household with 1 person had the highest level of agreement.

In Chapter 6 the conclusions and recommendations of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 5 the research findings of the study were presented and discussed. This chapter focuses on conclusions drawn and recommendations that can be made. It will also describe the limitations of this research and possible future research.

During the literature review, relevant subject literature was investigated and explored in order to establish what the nature, importance and impact of the ten consumer trends of Faith Popcorn entail, namely *Cocooning*, *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive*, *Vigilante Consumer*, *99 Lives* and *SOS (Save our Society)* within the field of IMC.

The research problem that directed this study was that knowledge on consumer trends in the South African market place (similar to Faith Popcorn's report for the American fraternity) is limited. If knowledge in this regard could be obtained it could be put to good use to formulate more effective IMC strategies, as the consumer forms the crux in any IMC approach.

Keeping this research problem in mind, an empirical survey was undertaken in order to establish and determine whether these consumer trends occurred among a group of staff at the NWU and if so, to what degree.

6.2 ACHIEVEMENT OF THE STUDY'S RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In Chapter 1 specific objectives were identified. After examining various aspects relating to the research topic under investigation, it is possible to determine whether these objectives were met.

6.2.1 Primary research objective

For marketers to be able to segment the consumer market and effectively direct their integrated marketing strategies, they need to have knowledge on consumers' lifestyle trends. It was the intention of the study to determine whether Popcorn's (1991) ten consumer trends are relevant to permanent staff of the NWU..

The literature review indicated that IMC has an important role with regard to successful communication with consumers. The consumer is therefore the focus in IMC. It was also established that consumer trends, placed within the study of consumer behaviour, may be an influencing factor in consumers' decision-making process when deciding to buy products or services.

From the empirical findings it became clear that among the consumer trends measured, the group of respondents had a neutral response to the trend of *Fantasy Adventure*, agreed with the trends of *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Vigilante Consumer* and *Save our Society* and strongly agreed with the trend of *Being Alive*.

During the empirical phase it was possible to establish that the questions in the questionnaire could be grouped together by means of a factor analysis to reflect 8 out of 10 trends as discussed in the literature review. Cronbach's alpha-measurement was used in the study and rendered an acceptable indication of the reliability of the measurement for *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Being Alive*, *Vigilante Consumer* and *Save our Society*. The trends of *Cocooning* and *99-Lives* could not be measured since the measuring instrument obtained a low reliability value.

6.2.2 Secondary research objectives

The secondary objectives of the study that were identified as supportive towards meeting the primary objective were also met, where possible (see Chapter 1, 1.3).

- The literature overview has provided a substantial amount of information confirming the importance of consumer trends.
- The importance of IMC was investigated and its value underlined.
- The nature of consumer behaviour was investigated and consumer trends were placed in a model of consumer behaviour to illustrate their influencing role in the decision-making process of consumers.
- The empirical section of the study was clearly aimed at determining whether there was a practical level of agreement among the respondents on the trends (if possible).
- It was established that different relationships exist between the occurrence of the consumer trends and specific demographic variables.
- The results obtained on the consumer trends can be used in terms of market segmentation and deciding on approaches when compiling IMC strategies.

Therefore, the objectives formulated for the study have been met. In conclusion, the primary and secondary research questions set in Chapter 4 towards obtaining the research objectives have been answered positively, namely:

Primary research question:

The primary research question of this study is: Are the ten consumer trends identified by Faith Popcorn in the American marketplace also relevant to the staff members of the NWU? And if so, how can knowledge about these trends be used to formulate more effective IMC strategies?

Secondary research questions:

- Q1 What are the various degrees of occurrence or absence of the ten consumer trends among the staff of the NWU?
- Q2 Does a relationship exist between the occurrence or absence of the trends and demographic factors such as gender, ethnic group, age, level of education and income group among the staff of the NWU?
- Q3 Does the degree of occurrence of the ten consumer trends have any implication for an IMC strategy?

6.3 CONCLUSION AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

This discussion deals with the most important conclusions and research findings within the scope and nature of this research study. These conclusions and findings were obtained from the literature review and corroborated by the empirical research conducted (see Chapters 4 and 5).

6.3.1 General information

After a comprehensive literature review was undertaken into the fields of IMC and consumer behaviour, an empirical study was performed.

6.3.2 Specific issues

The following research findings and conclusions were obtained as contributing towards the objectives of the study:

6.3.2.1 Objective 1: To determine the various degrees of occurrence or absence of the ten consumer trends.

This objective was met by means of a quantitative investigation. A questionnaire was developed according to the constructs identified in the work of Faith Popcorn, and self-administered questionnaires were distributed. A number of 633 participants from the NWU participated in the study, representing the Potchefstroom, Vanderbijlpark and Mafikeng campuses, and the institutional head office. The questionnaire comprised 50 statements reflecting specific activities, interests and opinions of consumers. By answering the questionnaire, respondents indicated their level of agreement with the statements, thereby indicating whether they demonstrated agreement with the consumer trends.

This objective was achieved and the research findings are indicated in Chapter 5.

6.3.2.2 Objective 2: To determine whether a relationship exists between the occurrence or absence of the trends and demographic factors such as gender, ethnic group, age, level of education and income group.

The quantitative investigation identified certain relationships between the level of agreement with the trends and certain demographic variables (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 indicates whether practical significant relationships exist between the occurrence of a trend and specific demographic variables. It is illustrated that a specific demographic variable may have an influence on consumers' agreement with the trend. This research objective was met and detailed discussions on each demographic variable can be found in Chapter 5, 5.5.

6.3.2.3 Objective 3: To provide theoretical points of departure with regard to the integration of these consumer trends into the formulation IMC strategies.

The literature review in Chapters 2 and 3 investigated the scope and nature of the three theoretic domains of marketing, communication and consumer behaviour from a general systems theory perspective. The field of IMC was investigated, as well as the consumer-centric approach necessitating marketers and organisations to be knowledgeable about their target audience's consumer trends. The study was placed within the field of consumer behaviour to illustrate the influence of consumer trends in the decision-making process of consumers. Successful marketers need to be familiar with the decision-making process in

order to direct their IMC strategies and to build the image of their brand and/or induce a desired action.

It is believed that the study of consumer trends contributed towards obtaining consumer information that may be useful to compile more effective IMC strategies, and in particular in selecting marketing communication message content to be used to address consumer needs and when performing market segmentation. It was pointed out in Chapter 3 that database-driven market segmentation can be useful for communicating with consumers. In these databases one can make valuable use of the information obtained on consumer trends. It is believed that not many organisations make use of the opportunity to incorporate consumer trend information/analysis to strengthen relationships with consumers and to build IMC programmes. Organisations need to have a thorough understanding of how consumer information can be converted into integrated communication strategies. Information, such as demographics and buying history, are important to understand consumers, but the value of motivation-related information, such as consumer lifestyles, values, needs, motivations and priorities, should not be under-estimated.

As another theoretical point of departure, an adaptation of Figure 3.4 in Chapter 3 is proposed in Figure 6.1. This adaptation illustrates where data on consumer trends can be incorporated into the relationship between database management and IMC, and an additional phase of continued consumer trend research is proposed. In the literature review it was emphasised that consumer trends constantly change over time and new trends are identified. This necessitates the marketer to keep his/her database current and up to date with the latest consumer trend information. The model by Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003:97) emphasises the importance of interactive IMC and the role that database management fulfils. The researcher is of the opinion that the role of interactivity in IMC and advanced database management to analyse consumer trends, will become increasingly important in future.

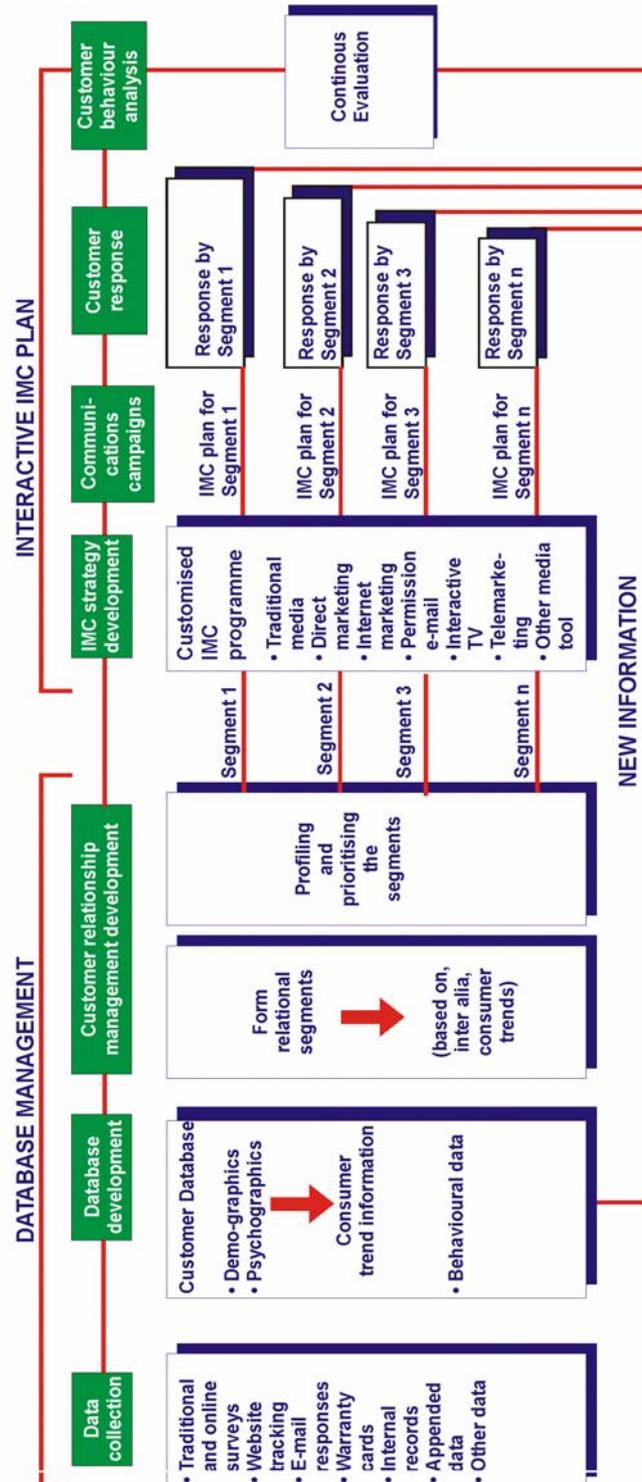
Table 6.1: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE OCCURRENCE OF THE TRENDS AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES.

Trend	Gender	Age	Home language	Ethnic group	Campus	Position held	Highest qualification	Marital status	Income	No. in household
Fantasy Adventure		**				**		**		** & ***
Small Indulgences	***	*** & **		**		** & ***	**	** & ***	** & ***	
Egonomics			**	**	** & ***	**		** & ***	**	
Cashing Out			**	**	** & ***	**	**	**	**	**
Down-Aging	***						**	** & ***		**
Being Alive			**	**	**		**	**		** & ***
Vigilante Consumer				***		**				** & ***
Save our Society			**	** & ***			** & ***	**		

** may indicate practical significance

*** indicates practical significance

Figure 6.1: A PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSUMER-CENTRIC DATABASE MANAGEMENT AND INTERACTIVE IMC



Source: Adapted from Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003:97)

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

It is important to include specific recommendations to make a contribution towards the literature available on the subject under investigation. Recommendations are needed to establish and determine the future application of the consumer trends in order to improve IMC strategies. The following recommendations are made:

6.4.1 Applying Faith Popcorn's consumer trends in IMC

Faith Popcorn proposed that if marketers include four or more of the identified consumer trends in the development of brands and subsequently incorporate the trends into their communication about the brand, it will result in more successful campaigns (see Chapter 3, 3.5.1). The researcher recommends that when formulating IMC strategies, marketers should incorporate at least four and preferably more of Faith Popcorn's consumer trends.

6.4.1.1 *General recommendation towards applying the trends*

The completed research indicated that the group of respondents from the NWU had an overall positive level of agreement with eight of the ten consumer trends. It was reported in 6.2.1 that the empirical findings concluded that the average respondent had a neutral response to the trend of *Fantasy Adventure*, agreed with the trends of *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Vigilante Consumer* and *Save our Society* and strongly agreed with the trend of *Being Alive*. It is recommended that marketers include message content relating to these trends in their marketing communication for a target audience similar to that of the study's respondents. It may be inferred that a similar target audience will probably have a favourable response to such message content, as it will address their lifestyle trends.

In the following section only significant highlights with regard to the results are provided since a complete discussion of each result item will be too elaborate.

6.4.1.2 *Specific recommendations towards applying the trends*

The relationships determined between the occurrence of the trends and specific demographic variables illustrated that different types of consumers have different levels of agreement with the trends. When applying this consumer trend information, a marketer can incorporate these trends, namely *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Egonomics*,

Cashing Out, Down-Aging, Being Alive, Vigilante Consumer and *Save our Society*, into more effectively reaching a specific target population.

Although the general recommendation in 6.4.1.1 is applicable to all respondents in the sample frame, it was found that certain trends had meaningful practical effect sizes between specific demographic variables. Some recommendations can be made towards applying this knowledge when determining the creative approach in a IMC strategy directed at a similar sample frame:

- Women had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trends of *Small Indulgences* and *Down-Aging* than males. When compiling a marketing communication message directed at women specifically, one can include elements/examples of *Small-Indulgences* and *Down-Aging* in order to reach this market.
- Younger age groups tended to have substantially higher levels of agreement with *Fantasy Adventure* and *Small Indulgences* than older respondents. It is recommended that when marketers would like to address young consumers specifically, they include message elements of these trends to direct their attempts.
- It was established that the African languages group tended to agree substantially more with *Egonomics, Cashing Out, Being Alive* and *Save our Society* than the Afrikaans and English respondents. Therefore, a marketer communicating to a target audience comprising of consumers speaking African languages specifically, should include message content relating to these trends in particular.
- The coloured respondents had a substantially higher level of agreement with the trend of *Small Indulgences* than black and white respondents. On the other hand, black respondents had a substantially higher level of agreement with *Egonomics, Cashing Out, Being Alive, Vigilante Consumer* and *Save our Society* than the white and coloured respondents. It can be recommended that marketers include message content on *Small Indulgences* when directing a campaign to a similar coloured audience. Marketers can also include message content on *Egonomics, Cashing Out, Being Alive, Vigilante Consumer* and *Save our Society* when targeting a similar black group specifically.
- Respondents from the Mafikeng campus' had a substantially higher level of agreement with *Egonomics, Cashing Out* and *Being Alive* than those from the Potchefstroom campus, Vanderbijlpark campus and the institutional head office. Marketers can include message content on these specific trends in their marketing communication strategy towards a similar target audience.

- In general, professors had a substantially lower level of agreement with *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Economics*, *Cashing Out* and *Vigilante Consumer* than respondents with alternative positions at the NWU, which means that they may not be as interested in these trends as the other respondents.
- It was found that in general, respondents' qualification level influences their agreement with *Small Indulgences*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive* and *Save our Society*. In most instances the Grade 11 and less group had the highest level of agreement with these specific trends. It is recommended that marketers for this market include message content on these specific trends in their marketing communication, since this target audience follow or aspire to these lifestyle trends.
- It was established that respondents' marital status may influence their agreement with the trends of *Fantasy Adventure*, *Small Indulgences*, *Economics*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging*, *Being Alive* and *Save our Society*. In most instances, respondents who were part of a couple had a substantially lower level of agreement with the trends than those living alone (unmarried, divorced or widowed). It is recommended that marketers use this information by including message content on these trends when directing their campaigns to similar target audiences that are living alone.
- It was inferred that respondents' monthly household income may influence their agreement with *Small Indulgences*, *Economics* and *Cashing Out*. The income group receiving less than R5 000 had a substantially higher level of agreement with these specific trends than the higher income groups. It is recommended that marketers include message content on these trends in their campaigns directed to an income group similar to that of the respondents.
- Finally, it was inferred that the number of people in respondents' households may influence their agreement with *Fantasy Adventure*, *Cashing Out*, *Down-Aging* and *Vigilante Consumer*. It became clear that in the cases of *Fantasy Adventure* and *Vigilante Consumer* respondents with 7 and more people in their households had the highest level of agreement. In the case of *Cashing Out*, respondents' with households consisting of 6 people had a substantially higher level of agreement with the statements than those consisting of 2 people. In these instances, marketers can include message content on *Fantasy Adventure*, *Vigilante Consumer* and *Cashing Out* to a target audience similar to the respondents with larger households. In contrast, in the case of *Down-Aging* respondents living in a household with 1 person had the highest level of agreement with

the statements. It is recommended that marketers who target households of consumers living alone should include elements of *Down-Aging* in their marketing messages.

6.4.2 Further research

Ample opportunities exist with regard to research on consumer trends. The following opportunities were identified in the course of this study:

- A descriptive study can be undertaken by incorporating additional trends of Popcorn into an investigation since the trends covered in the study are not inclusive of all her identified trends. Each year new trends are described, which can be researched.
- In this research the consumer trends were studied within the context of a specific group of staff members at a university. It will be informative to perform a similar study amongst a sample population representative of the demographic groups of South Africa.
- Since this particular study focused on the description of the occurrence of the consumer trends, a qualitative research investigation explaining the occurrence/non-occurrence of Faith Popcorn's trends could also provide valuable information.
- An explorative study can be done to identify alternative consumer trends among a similar sample frame.
- Investigating the applicability of these trends within an organisation's IMC strategy, leading to more effective market segmentation and consequently better results.
- An explorative study is recommended into the relationship between the LSM groups, as identified by the South African Advertising Research Foundation (SAARF), and the consumer trends in order to improve marketers' market segmentation.
- An exploratory study ought to be launched into the possible application of the consistency theory of human communication into the fields of consumer trends and IMC.
- A qualitative investigation is recommended into the relevance of consumer trend analysis in the formulation of corporate strategy.

6.5 CONTRIBUTION AND LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

The study made a contribution to the sub-disciplines of IMC and consumer behaviour by performing research on consumer trends at the NWU according to clear theoretic points of departure. Apart from that, the research provided more insight into the importance of an integrated approach to marketing communication. It is obvious that some organisations have

not yet discovered the importance of strategically integrating marketing communications, or do not have organisational structures in place to implement IMC properly. This study therefore provides insight into the use of IMC and into the incorporation of knowledge about consumer trends in developing customised IMC strategies with the consumer as the main focus.

Limitations of the study included the following:

- The sample frame that was used within the scope and nature of this study, included only a specific group of staff members within the NWU, and it is therefore important that any reference made to this study, should be interpreted as such and not as representative of the total NWU or South African population.
- If the trends of *Cocooning* and *99-Lives* could have been measured in the study, it would have contributed even more to the value of the study, but since Popcorn's measurement instrument was not available to the researcher, the development of a questionnaire for these trends was difficult.
- As the results are not generalisable beyond the participants of the study, it can be debatable whether the research can be applied to all IMC strategies. Further research will be required to establish what the effect will be of applying the trends in IMC strategies.

6.6 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This study dealt with ten consumer trends first identified by Faith Popcorn in the 1990s. The consumer trends were placed within the fields of integrated marketing communication (IMC) and consumer behaviour by using a general systems approach. The main objective of the study was to determine whether these consumer trends occurred among a specific group at the North-West University.

In the literature review it became clear that consumer trends have the potential to benefit an organisation when applied in IMC by enabling marketers to direct their marketing messages and approaches more effectively. In a broader organisational perspective, an analysis of consumer trends can also act as a strategic tool in identifying markets, identifying opportunities and developing new technology.

In the empirical research it was found that, in general, the respondents agreed with the consumer trends measured and it was inferred that these trends occurred among the specific consumer group. The study was concluded with recommendations for applying this

knowledge in an IMC strategy, the contribution and limitations of the study, as well as recommendations for further research.

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**APPENDIX 1:
EXAMPLE OF A COVER LETTER SENT VIA E-MAIL (ENGLISH)**

NWU CONSUMER TRENDS – QUESTIONNAIRE

**STAND A CHANCE TO WIN 1 OF 3 WOOLWORTHS VOUCHERS TO THE VALUE OF R100
EACH!**

Dear colleague

I would like to invite you to participate in a marketing communication study, which is part of my master's degree studies. This research study is performed among all staff members of the North-West University (NWU).

The main objective of this exciting research study is to determine whether specific consumer trends, initially identified in the USA, can also be measured among the staff of the NWU. The results will be used to make recommendations for the development of more effective integrated marketing communication strategies.

You should be able to complete the questionnaire on your computer in less than 10 minutes.

Please return your completed questionnaire by saving the document to your computer and e-mailing it as an attachment to bkkvc@puk.ac.za. You may also send a hard copy of the completed questionnaire to Internal Mailbox 185, Potchefstroom Campus.

All information will be treated confidentially and will be used for research purposes only. You may choose to remain anonymous.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated!

Kind regards,

Vivian Claassen
Department of Marketing and Communication
Potchefstroom Campus, NWU

APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTED VIA E-MAIL (ENGLISH)

QUESTIONNAIRE

A. CONSUMER TRENDS

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by marking the relevant option. Option (1) indicates that you strongly disagree, while (5) indicates that you strongly agree with the statement. You may indicate your answer by clicking on "Select".

- 1) Strongly disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 3) Neither disagree nor agree
- 4) Agree
- 5) Strongly agree

1.1	When being social, I prefer to spend time at my own home or the homes of friends or family, rather than going out.	Select:
1.2	When doing bank transactions, I prefer to make use of internet, telephone or OTM bank services, rather than bank services at the counter.	Select:
1.3	When I want to see a film, I prefer to watch a DVD or video at home.	Select:
1.4	I spend money on improving my house and making it more comfortable.	Select:
1.5	A safe home and working environment is a priority.	Select:

2.1	I spend money on going on holiday.	Select:
2.2	I enjoy spending time at a theme park (e.g. Ratanga Junction or Gold Reef City).	Select:
2.3	I enjoy experimenting with interesting types of foods.	Select:
2.4	I enjoy going on adventure excursions (e.g. "abseiling", "bungee jumping", a game drive in a nature reserve or a ski trip).	Select:
2.5	I prefer adventure activities that are not too dangerous.	Select:

3.1	I like to spoil myself with something affordable.	Select:
3.2	I like to spoil myself with a unique item of clothing.	Select:
3.3	I like to spoil myself with a special body product (e.g. body lotion, perfume or aftershave).	Select:
3.4	I like to spoil myself with a good haircut.	Select:
3.5	I like to reward myself by doing something special for myself.	Select:

1) Strongly disagree - 5) Strongly agree

4.1	I like to read about subjects that are specifically in my area of interest.	Select:
4.2	I like to participate in group activities that are based on special interests (e.g. hobbies, religious, academic or politics).	Select:
4.3	I like to wear clothes that are designed according to my individual needs.	Select:
4.4	I like to buy vehicles that are customised according to my own preferences.	Select:
4.5	I prefer a house that is furnished according to my own preferences.	Select:

5.1	I aim to earn an income from home one day.	Select:
5.2	I aim to live in a more serene environment at some stage in my life.	Select:
5.3	It is my ideal to pursue a fast-paced career.	Select:
5.4	It is my ideal to own my own business.	Select:
5.5	It is one of my ideals to have the freedom one day to pursue other interests than my career.	Select:

6.1	I enjoy getting older.	Select:
6.2	I use products to prevent me from looking and feeling older.	Select:
6.3	I eat balanced foods to keep my body healthy.	Select:
6.4	I enjoy humorous moments (e.g. in movies, books or shows).	Select:
6.5	I enjoy participating in activities that make me feel young.	Select:

7.1	I believe that food plays an important part in disease prevention.	Select:
7.2	I am concerned about the effects of pollution on my health.	Select:
7.3	I try to be informed about the characteristics of a healthy lifestyle.	Select:
7.4	I am concerned about diseases (e.g. HIV/AIDS, heart conditions, cancer).	Select:
7.5	I believe that a healthy lifestyle will increase my life expectancy.	Select:

8.1	I comment on poor service (e.g. in a shop or restaurant).	Select:
8.2	I do research before I decide to buy a product or to make use of a service.	Select:
8.3	I boycott companies that do not act responsibly towards the community or the environment.	Select:
8.4	I feel strongly about the quality standards that companies have to meet.	Select:
8.5	I like to buy products that are guaranteed by the company.	Select:

1) Strongly disagree - 5) Strongly agree

9.1	I am willing to supplement my income by doing more than one job.	Select:
9.2	I prefer eating smaller meals during the day, rather than sitting down at a table for large meals.	Select:
9.3	I prefer technology that saves time (e.g. a cell phone that can take photos, and send and receive e-mails and faxes).	Select:
9.4	I prefer that my computer's e-mail programme be scanned for advertisement-type e-mails.	Select:
9.5	I prefer shopping at a single shopping centre, rather than driving to different shops.	Select:

10.1	I am concerned about the future of our planet.	Select:
10.2	I do not use products that are proven to cause damage to the environment.	Select:
10.3	I am involved in projects to educate people in my community.	Select:
10.4	I offer my time and skills to contribute towards the wellness of my community.	Select:
10.5	I prefer to support companies that are involved with environmental and social issues.	Select:

B. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1.1	Gender	Select:
1.2	Age	Select:
1.3	Home language	Select:
1.4	Ethnic group	Select:
1.5	Campus of the NWU	Select:
1.6	Position held at the NWU	Select:
1.7	Highest qualification	Select:
1.8	Marital status	Select:
1.9	Gross monthly income of household (optional question)	Select:
1.10	Number of people in your household	Select:
1.11	Personnel number (optional question - complete if you would like to participate in the lucky draw)	

Thank you for your participation!

**APPENDIX 3:
EXAMPLE OF COVER LETTER SENT VIA INTERNAL MAIL
(ENGLISH)**

NWU CONSUMER TRENDS – QUESTIONNAIRE

STAND A CHANCE TO WIN 1 OF 3 WOOLWORTHS VOUCHERS TO THE VALUE OF R100 EACH!

Dear colleague

I would like to invite you to participate in a marketing communication study, which is part of my master's degree studies. This research study is performed among all staff members of the North-West University (NWU).

The main objective of this exciting research study is to determine whether specific consumer trends, initially identified in the USA, can also be measured among the staff of the NWU. The results will be used to make recommendations for the development of more effective integrated marketing communication strategies.

You should be able to complete the questionnaire in approximately 10 minutes.

Please return your completed questionnaire via internal mail to Ivan Gontsana, Public Relations Department, Mafikeng Campus.

All information will be treated confidentially and will be used for research purposes only. You may choose to remain anonymous.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated!

Kind regards,

Vivian Claassen
Marketing and Communications Department
Potchefstroom Campus, NWU

APPENDIX 4: QUESTIONNAIRE SENT VIA INTERNAL MAIL (ENGLISH)

QUESTIONNAIRE

A. CONSUMER TRENDS

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by marking the relevant option. Option (1) indicates that you strongly disagree, while (5) indicates that you strongly agree with the statement. You may indicate your answer by marking the appropriate box with an X.

- 1) Strongly disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 3) Neither disagree nor agree
- 4) Agree
- 5) Strongly agree

1.1	When being social, I prefer to spend time at my own home or the homes of friends or family, rather than going out.	1	2	3	4	5
1.2	When doing bank transactions, I prefer to make use of internet, telephone or OTM bank services, rather than bank services at the counter.	1	2	3	4	5
1.3	When I want to see a film, I prefer to watch a DVD or video at home.	1	2	3	4	5
1.4	I spend money on improving my house and making it more comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5
1.5	A safe home and working environment is a priority.	1	2	3	4	5

2.1	I spend money on going on holiday.	1	2	3	4	5
2.2	I enjoy spending time at a theme park (e.g. Ratanga Junction or Gold Reef City).	1	2	3	4	5
2.3	I enjoy experimenting with interesting types of foods.	1	2	3	4	5
2.4	I enjoy going on adventure excursions (e.g. "abseiling", "bungee jumping", a game drive in a nature reserve or a ski trip).	1	2	3	4	5
2.5	I prefer adventure activities that are not too dangerous.	1	2	3	4	5

3.1	I like to spoil myself with something affordable.	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	I like to spoil myself with a unique item of clothing.	1	2	3	4	5
3.3	I like to spoil myself with a special body product (e.g. body lotion, perfume or aftershave).	1	2	3	4	5
3.4	I like to spoil myself with a good haircut.	1	2	3	4	5
3.5	I like to reward myself by doing something special for myself.	1	2	3	4	5

1) Strongly disagree - 5) Strongly agree

4.1	I like to read about subjects that are specifically in my area of interest.	1	2	3	4	5
4.2	I like to participate in group activities that are based on special interests (e.g. hobbies, religious, academic or politics).	1	2	3	4	5
4.3	I like to wear clothes that are designed according to my individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5
4.4	I like to buy vehicles that are customised according to my own preferences.	1	2	3	4	5
4.5	I prefer a house that is furnished according to my own preferences.	1	2	3	4	5

5.1	I aim to earn an income from home one day.	1	2	3	4	5
5.2	I aim to live in a more serene environment at some stage in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
5.3	It is my ideal to pursue a fast-paced career.	1	2	3	4	5
5.4	It is my ideal to own my own business.	1	2	3	4	5
5.5	It is one of my ideals to have the freedom one day to pursue other interests than my career.	1	2	3	4	5

6.1	I enjoy getting older.	1	2	3	4	5
6.2	I use products to prevent me from looking and feeling older.	1	2	3	4	5
6.3	I eat balanced foods to keep my body healthy.	1	2	3	4	5
6.4	I enjoy humorous moments (e.g. in movies, books or shows).	1	2	3	4	5
6.5	I enjoy participating in activities that make me feel young.	1	2	3	4	5

7.1	I believe that food plays an important part in disease prevention.	1	2	3	4	5
7.2	I am concerned about the effects of pollution on my health.	1	2	3	4	5
7.3	I try to be informed about the characteristics of a healthy lifestyle.	1	2	3	4	5
7.4	I am concerned about diseases (e.g. HIV/AIDS, heart conditions, cancer).	1	2	3	4	5
7.5	I believe that a healthy lifestyle will increase my life expectancy.	1	2	3	4	5

8.1	I comment on poor service (e.g. in a shop or restaurant).	1	2	3	4	5
8.2	I do research before I decide to buy a product or to make use of a service.	1	2	3	4	5
8.3	I boycott companies that do not act responsibly towards the community or the environment.	1	2	3	4	5
8.4	I feel strongly about the quality standards that companies have to meet.	1	2	3	4	5
8.5	I like to buy products that are guaranteed by the company.	1	2	3	4	5

1) Strongly disagree - 5) Strongly agree

9.1	I am willing to supplement my income by doing more than one job.	1	2	3	4	5
9.2	I prefer eating smaller meals during the day, rather than sitting down at a table for large meals.	1	2	3	4	5
9.3	I prefer technology that saves time (e.g. a cell phone that can take photos, and send and receive e-mails and faxes).	1	2	3	4	5
9.4	I prefer that my computer's e-mail programme be scanned for advertisement-type e-mails.	1	2	3	4	5
9.5	I prefer shopping at a single shopping centre, rather than driving to different shops.	1	2	3	4	5

10.1	I am concerned about the future of our planet.	1	2	3	4	5
10.2	I do not use products that are proven to cause damage to the environment.	1	2	3	4	5
10.3	I am involved in projects to educate people in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
10.4	I offer my time and skills to contribute towards the wellness of my community.	1	2	3	4	5
10.5	I prefer to support companies that are involved with environmental and social issues.	1	2	3	4	5

B. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please answer each question by selecting **ONE** option.

1.1	Gender	Male	1
		Female	2

1.2	Age	18-21 years old	1
		22-30 years old	2
		31-40 years old	3
		41-50 years old	4
		51-60 years old	5
		61 years and older	6

1.3	Home language	Afrikaans	1
		English	2
		Tswana	3
		Sesotho	4
		Sepedi	5
		Xhosa	6
		Zulu	7
		Tsonga	8
		Venda	9
		Ndebele	10
		Swati	11
Other	12		

THE INCIDENCE OF FAITH POPCORN'S CONSUMER TRENDS AMONG NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY STAFF

1.4	Ethnic group	White	1
		Coloured	2
		Black	3
		Indian	4
		Other	5
1.5	Campus of the NWU	Potchefstroom	1
		Mmabatho	2
		Vanderbijlpark	3
		Institutional head office	4
1.6	Position held at the NWU	Junior lecturer	1
		Lecturer	2
		Senior lecturer	3
		Associate professor/Professor	4
		Other academic position	5
		Support staff member	6
		Middle management	7
		Top management	8
1.7	Highest qualification	Grade 11 and less	1
		Grade 12	2
		College qualification	3
		Technikon qualification	4
		University degree	5
		Postgraduate university degree	6
		Other	7
1.8	Marital status	Single	1
		Living together	2
		Married	3
		Divorced	4
		Widowed	5
		Other	6
1.9	Gross monthly income of household (optional question)	Less than R5 000	1
		R5 001 – R14 999	2
		R15 000 – R19 999	3
		R20 000 – R24 999	4
		R25 000 – R29 999	5
		More than R30 000	6
1.10	Number of people in your household	1	1
		2	2
		3	3
		4	4
		5	5
		6	6
		7	7
		8 and more	8
1.11	Personnel number (optional question - complete if you would like to participate in the lucky draw)		

Thank you for your participation!

**APPENDIX 5:
EXAMPLE OF A COVER LETTER SENT VIA E-MAIL (AFRIKAANS)**

NWU-VERBRUIKERSTENDENSE – VRAELYS

STAAN 'N KANS OM 1 VAN 3 WOOLWORTHS GESKENKBEWYSE TER WAARDE VAN R100 ELK TE WEN!

Geagte kollega

Ek wil u vriendelik uitnoui om deel te neem aan 'n bemarkingskommunikasiestudie met die oog op die verwerwing van my meestersgraad. Hierdie navorsing word onder alle personeel van die Noordwes-Universiteit (NWU) gedoen.

Hierdie opwindende navorsingstudie het ten doel om vas te stel of bepaalde verbruikerstendense, wat in die VSA geïdentifiseer is, ook gemeet kan word by die personeel van die NWU. Die resultate sal gebruik word om aanbevelings rakende die ontwikkeling van meer suksesvolle geïntegreerde bemarkingskommunikasie-strategieë te verskaf.

Die vraelys behoort u slegs 10 minute te neem om rekenaarmatig te voltooi.

Stuur asseblief u voltooide vraelys terug deur die dokument op u rekenaar te stoor en as 'n aanhangsel ('attachment') te stuur na bkkvc@puk.ac.za. U kan die voltooide vraelys ook in hardekopieformaat na Bussie 185 toe stuur.

Alle inligting sal vertroulik hanteer word en slegs vir navorsingsdoeleindes aangewend word. U mag anoniem bly deur u vraelys uit te druk en aan my terug te stuur.

U samewerking sal opreg waardeer word!

Vriendelike groete,

Vivian Claassen
Departement Bemarking en Kommunikasie
Potchefstroomkampus, NWU

APPENDIX 6: QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTED VIA E-MAIL (AFRIKAANS)

VRAELYS

A. VERBRUIKERSTENDENSE

Dui asseblief aan in watter mate u met elk van die volgende stellings saamstem deur die toepaslike opsies te merk. Opsie (1) dui aan dat u beslis nie saamstem nie, terwyl (5) aandui dat u beslis saamstem met die stelling. Klik op 'Kies' om 'n keuse uit te oefen.

- 1) **Stem beslis nie saam nie**
- 2) **Stem nie saam nie**
- 3) **Neutraal**
- 4) **Stem saam**
- 5) **Stem beslis saam**

1.1	Wanneer ek sosiaal verkeer, verkies ek om tyd by my eie, of vriende of familie se huise deur te bring, eerder as om uit te gaan.	Kies:
1.2	Wanneer ek banktransaksies doen, verkies ek om van internet- telefoon- of OTM-bankdienste gebruik te maak, eerder as van toonbankdienste.	Kies:
1.3	Wanneer ek 'n fliek wil kyk, verkies ek om 'n DVD of video tuis te kyk.	Kies:
1.4	Ek spandeer geld om my huis te verbeter en gemakliker te maak.	Kies:
1.5	'n Veilige huis- en werkomgewing is 'n prioriteit.	Kies:

2.1	Ek spandeer geld om met vakansie te gaan.	Kies:
2.2	Ek spandeer graag tyd by 'n tempark (bv. Ratanga Junction of Gold Reef City).	Kies:
2.3	Ek geniet dit om met interessante kossoorte te eksperimenteer.	Kies:
2.4	Ek geniet dit om op avontuuruitstappies te gaan (bv. "abseiling", "bungee jumping", 'n wildbesigtigingsrit in 'n natuureservaat of 'n ski-uitstappie).	Kies:
2.5	Ek verkies avontuuraktiwiteite wat nie te gevaarlik is nie.	Kies:

3.1	Ek hou daarvan om myself te bederf met iets bekostigbaars.	Kies:
3.2	Ek hou daarvan om myself met 'n unieke kledingstuk te bederf.	Kies:
3.3	Ek hou daarvan om myself met 'n spesiale liggaamsproduk te bederf (bv. lyfroom, parfuim of naskeermiddel).	Kies:
3.4	Ek hou daarvan om myself met 'n goeie haarsny te bederf.	Kies:
3.5	Ek hou daarvan om myself te beloon deur iets spesiaals vir myself te doen.	Kies:

4.1	Ek lees graag oor onderwerpe wat spesifiek in my belangstellingsveld val.	Kies:
4.2	Ek neem graag deel aan groepaktiwiteite wat gebaseer is op spesiale belangstellings (bv. stokperdjies, godsdienstig, akademies of politiek).	Kies:
4.3	Ek dra graag klere wat volgens my individuele behoeftes ontwerp is.	Kies:
4.4	Ek geniet dit om voertuie te koop wat aangepas is volgens my eie voorkeure.	Kies:
4.5	Ek verkies 'n huis wat ingerig is volgens my eie voorkeure.	Kies:

5.1	Ek wil graag eendag van die huis af 'n inkomste verdien.	Kies:
5.2	Ek wil graag eendag in 'n rustiger omgewing woon.	Kies:
5.3	Dit is my ideaal om 'n besige loopbaan te volg.	Kies:
5.4	Dit is my ideaal om my eie besigheid te besit.	Kies:
5.5	Dit is 'n ideaal om op 'n stadium in my lewe die vryheid te hê om ander belangstellings as my beroep uit te leef.	Kies:

6.1	Ek geniet dit om ouer te word.	Kies:
6.2	Ek gebruik produkte om te voorkom dat ek ouer lyk en voel.	Kies:
6.3	Ek eet gebalanseerde kosse om my liggaam gesond te hou.	Kies:
6.4	Ek geniet humoristiese oomblikke (bv. in fliks, boeke of vertonings).	Kies:
6.5	Ek geniet dit om deel te neem aan aktiwiteite wat my jonk laat voel.	Kies:

7.1	Ek glo dat kos 'n belangrike rol speel om siektes te voorkom.	Kies:
7.2	Ek is besorgd oor die effek van besoedeling op my gesondheid.	Kies:
7.3	Ek poog om ingelig te wees oor die eienskappe van 'n gesonde lewenstyl.	Kies:
7.4	Ek is besorgd oor siektes (bv. HIV/VIGS, hartkwale, kanker).	Kies:
7.5	Ek glo dat 'n gesonde lewenstyl my lewensverwagting kan verhoog.	Kies:

8.1	Ek lewer kommentaar oor swak diens (byvoorbeeld by 'n winkel of restaurant).	Kies:
8.2	Ek doen navorsing voordat ek besluit om 'n produk te koop of diens te gebruik.	Kies:
8.3	Ek boikot maatskappye wat nie verantwoordelik optree teenoor die gemeenskap of die omgewing nie.	Kies:
8.4	Ek voel sterk oor die gehaltstandaarde waaraan maatskappye moet voldoen.	Kies:
8.5	Ek koop graag produkte wat gewaarborg word deur die maatskappy.	Kies:

9.1	Ek is bereid om my inkomste aan te vul deur meer as een werk te verrig.	Kies:
9.2	Ek eet klein etes deur die loop van die dag, eerder as om aan te sit vir groot maaltye.	Kies:
9.3	Ek verkies tegnologie wat tydbesparing meebring (bv. 'n selfoon wat foto's kan neem, en e-posse en fakse kan stuur en ontvang).	Kies:
9.4	Ek verkies dat my rekenaar se e-posprogram deurgekyk word vir advertensietipe-e-posse.	Kies:
9.5	Ek verkies om inkopies te doen by 'n enkele winkelsentrum, eerder as om na verskillende winkels toe te ry.	Kies:

10.1	Ek is besorg oor die toekoms van ons planeet.	Kies:
10.2	Ek gebruik nie produkte waarvan dit bekend is dat dit skadelik is vir die omgewing nie.	Kies:
10.3	Ek is betrokke by projekte om mense in my gemeenskap op te voed.	Kies:
10.4	Ek bied my tyd en vaardighede aan om 'n bydrae te lewer tot die welstand van my gemeenskap.	Kies:
10.5	Ek verkies om maatskappye te ondersteun wat betrokke is by omgewings- en maatskaplike vraagstukke.	Kies:

B. DEMOGRAFIESE INLIGTING

1.1	Geslag	Kies:
1.2	Ouderdom	Kies:
1.3	Huistaal	Kies:
1.4	Etniese groep	Kies:
1.5	Kampus van die NWU	Kies:
1.6	Posisie beklee by die NWU	Kies:
1.7	Hoogste kwalifikasie	Kies:
1.8	Huwelikstatus	Kies:
1.9	Bruto maandelikse inkomste van huishouding (opsionele vraag)	Kies:
1.10	Aantal mense in u huishouding	Kies:
1.11	Personeelnommer (opsionele vraag – voltooi indien u in aanmerking wil kom vir die gelukkige trekking)	

Baie dankie vir u deelname!

**APPENDIX 7:
EXAMPLE OF COVER LETTER SENT VIA INTERNAL MAIL
(AFRIKAANS)**

NWU-VERBRUIKERSTENDENSE – VRAELYS

STAAN 'N KANS OM 1 VAN 3 WOOLWORTHS GESKENKBEWYSE TER WAARDE VAN R100 ELK TE WEN!

Geagte kollega

Ek wil u vriendelik uitnoui om deel te neem aan 'n bemarkingskommunikasiestudie met die oog op die verwerwing van my meestersgraad. Hierdie navorsing word onder alle personeel van die Noordwes-Universiteit (NWU) gedoen.

Hierdie opwindende navorsingstudie het ten doel om vas te stel of bepaalde verbruikerstendense, wat in die VSA geïdentifiseer is, ook gemeet kan word by die personeel van die NWU. Die resultate sal gebruik word om aanbevelings rakende die ontwikkeling van meer suksesvolle geïntegreerde bemarkingskommunikasie-strategieë te verskaf.

Die vraelys behoort u slegs 10 minute te neem om te voltooi. Stuur asseblief u voltooide vraelys terug na Interne Bussie 185, Potchefstroomkampus.

Alle inligting sal vertroulik hanteer word en slegs vir navorsingsdoeleindes aangewend word. U mag anoniem bly deur u naam op die etiket te verwyder.

U samewerking sal opreg waardeer word!

Vriendelike groete,

Vivian Claassen
Departement Bemarking en Kommunikasie
Potchefstroomkampus, NWU

APPENDIX 8: QUESTIONNAIRE SENT VIA INTERNAL MAIL (AFRIKAANS)

VRAELYS

A. VERBRUIKERSTENDENSE

Dui asseblief aan in watter mate u met elk van die volgende stellings saamstem of nie saamstem nie deur die toepaslike opsie te merk. Opsie (1) dui aan dat u beslis nie saamstem nie, terwyl (5) aandui dat u beslis saamstem met die stelling. Dui u antwoord met 'n **X** in die toepaslike blokkie aan.

- 1) **Stem beslis nie saam nie**
- 2) **Stem nie saam nie**
- 3) **Neutraal**
- 4) **Stem saam**
- 5) **Stem beslis saam**

1.1	Wanneer ek sosiaal verkeer, verkies ek om tyd by my eie, of vriende of familie se huise deur te bring, eerder as om uit te gaan.	1	2	3	4	5
1.2	Wanneer ek banktransaksies doen, verkies ek om van internet- telefoon- of OTM-bankdienste gebruik te maak, eerder as van toonbankdienste.	1	2	3	4	5
1.3	Wanneer ek 'n fliek wil kyk, verkies ek om 'n DVD of video tuis te kyk.	1	2	3	4	5
1.4	Ek spandeer geld om my huis te verbeter en gemakliker te maak.	1	2	3	4	5
1.5	'n Veilige huis- en werkomgewing is 'n prioriteit.	1	2	3	4	5

2.1	Ek spandeer geld om met vakansie te gaan.	1	2	3	4	5
2.2	Ek spandeer graag tyd by 'n tematiese park (bv. Ratanga Junction of Gold Reef City).	1	2	3	4	5
2.3	Ek geniet dit om met interessante kossoorte te eksperimenteer.	1	2	3	4	5
2.4	Ek geniet dit om op avontuuruitstappies te gaan (bv. "abseiling", "bungee jumping", 'n wildbesigtigingsrit in 'n natuurreservaat of 'n ski-uitstappie).	1	2	3	4	5
2.5	Ek verkies avontuuraktiwiteite wat nie te gevaarlik is nie.	1	2	3	4	5

3.1	Ek hou daarvan om myself te bederf met iets bekostigbaars.	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	Ek hou daarvan om myself met 'n unieke kledingstuk te bederf.	1	2	3	4	5
3.3	Ek hou daarvan om myself met 'n spesiale liggaamsprodukt te bederf (bv. lyfroom, parfuum of naskeermiddel).	1	2	3	4	5
3.4	Ek hou daarvan om myself met 'n goeie haarsny te bederf.	1	2	3	4	5
3.5	Ek hou daarvan om myself te beloon deur iets spesiaal vir myself te doen.	1	2	3	4	5

1) Stem beslis nie saam nie - 5) Stem beslis saam

4.1	Ek lees graag oor onderwerpe wat spesifiek in my belangstellingsveld val.	1	2	3	4	5
4.2	Ek neem graag deel aan groepaktiwiteite wat gebaseer is op spesiale belangstellings (bv. stokperdjies, godsdienstig, akademies of politiek).	1	2	3	4	5
4.3	Ek dra graag klere wat volgens my individuele behoeftes ontwerp is.	1	2	3	4	5
4.4	Ek geniet dit om voertuie te koop wat aangepas is volgens my eie voorkeure.	1	2	3	4	5
4.5	Ek verkies 'n huis wat ingerig is volgens my eie voorkeure.	1	2	3	4	5

5.1	Ek wil graag eendag van die huis af 'n inkomste verdien.	1	2	3	4	5
5.2	Ek wil graag eendag in 'n rustiger omgewing woon.	1	2	3	4	5
5.3	Dit is my ideaal om 'n besige loopbaan te volg.	1	2	3	4	5
5.4	Dit is my ideaal om my eie besigheid te besit.	1	2	3	4	5
5.5	Dit is 'n ideaal om op 'n stadium in my lewe die vryheid te hê om ander belangstellings as my beroep uit te leef.	1	2	3	4	5

6.1	Ek geniet dit om ouer te word.	1	2	3	4	5
6.2	Ek gebruik produkte om te voorkom dat ek ouer lyk en voel.	1	2	3	4	5
6.3	Ek eet gebalanseerde kosse om my liggaam gesond te hou.	1	2	3	4	5
6.4	Ek geniet humoristiese oomblikke (bv. in fliks, boeke of vertonings).	1	2	3	4	5
6.5	Ek geniet dit om deel te neem aan aktiwiteite wat my jonk laat voel.	1	2	3	4	5

7.1	Ek glo dat kos 'n belangrike rol speel om siektes te voorkom.	1	2	3	4	5
7.2	Ek is besorgd oor die effek van besoedeling op my gesondheid.	1	2	3	4	5
7.3	Ek poog om ingelig te wees oor die eienskappe van 'n gesonde lewenstyl.	1	2	3	4	5
7.4	Ek is besorgd oor siektes (bv. HIV/VIGS, hartkwale, kanker).	1	2	3	4	5
7.5	Ek glo dat 'n gesonde lewenstyl my lewensverwagting kan verhoog.	1	2	3	4	5

8.1	Ek lewer kommentaar oor swak diens (byvoorbeeld by 'n winkel of restaurant).	1	2	3	4	5
8.2	Ek doen navorsing voordat ek besluit om 'n produk te koop of diens te gebruik.	1	2	3	4	5
8.3	Ek boikot maatskappye wat nie verantwoordelik optree teenoor die gemeenskap of die omgewing nie.	1	2	3	4	5
8.4	Ek voel sterk oor die gehaltestandaarde waaraan maatskappye moet voldoen.	1	2	3	4	5
8.5	Ek koop graag produkte wat gewaarborg word deur die maatskappy.	1	2	3	4	5

1) Stem beslis nie saam nie - 5) Stem beslis saam

9.1	Ek is bereid om my inkomste aan te vul deur meer as een werk te verrig.	1	2	3	4	5
9.2	Ek eet klein etes deur die loop van die dag, eerder as om aan te sit vir groot maaltye.	1	2	3	4	5
9.3	Ek verkies tegnologie wat tydbesparing meebring (bv. 'n selfoon wat foto's kan neem, en e-posse en fakse kan stuur en ontvang).	1	2	3	4	5
9.4	Ek verkies dat my rekenaar se e-posprogram deurgekyk word vir advertensietipe-e-posse.	1	2	3	4	5
9.5	Ek verkies om inkopies te doen by 'n enkele winkelsentrum, eerder as om na verskillende winkels toe te ry.	1	2	3	4	5

10.1	Ek is besorg oor die toekoms van ons planeet.	1	2	3	4	5
10.2	Ek gebruik nie produkte waarvan dit bekend is dat dit skadelik is vir die omgewing nie.	1	2	3	4	5
10.3	Ek is betrokke by projekte om mense in my gemeenskap op te voed.	1	2	3	4	5
10.4	Ek bied my tyd en vaardighede aan om 'n bydrae te lewer tot die welstand van my gemeenskap.	1	2	3	4	5
10.5	Ek verkies om maatskappye te ondersteun wat betrokke is by omgewings- en maatskaplike vraagstukke.	1	2	3	4	5

B. DEMOGRAFIESE INLIGTING

Antwoord asseblief elke vraag deur **EEN** opsie te merk.

1.1	Geslag	Manlik	1
		Vroulik	2

1.2	Ouderdom	18-21 jaar oud	1
		22-30 jaar oud	2
		31-40 jaar oud	3
		41-50 jaar oud	4
		51-60 jaar oud	5
		61 jaar en ouer	6

1.3	Huistaal	Afrikaans	1
		Engels	2
		Tswana	3
		Sesotho	4
		Sepedi	5
		Xhosa	6
		Zulu	7
		Tsonga	8
		Venda	9
		Ndebele	10
		Swati	11
		Ander	12

1.4	Etniese groep	Blank	1
		Bruin	2
		Swart	3
		Indiër	4
		Ander	5
1.5	Kampus van die NWU	Potchefstroom	1
		Mmabatho	2
		Vanderbijlpark	3
		Institusionele hoofkantoor	4
1.6	Posisie beklee by die NWU	Junior lektor	1
		Lektor	2
		Senior lektor	3
		Medeprofessor/professor	4
		Ander akademiese posisie	5
		Ondersteuningspersoneel	6
		Middelbestuur	7
		Topbestuur	8
1.7	Hoogste kwalifikasie	Graad 11 en laer	1
		Graad 12	2
		Kollege-kwalifikasie	3
		Technikon-kwalifikasie	4
		Universiteitsgraad	5
		Nagraadse universiteitsgraad	6
		Ander	7
1.8	Huwelikstatus	Enkellopend	1
		Woon saam	2
		Getroud	3
		Geskei	4
		Wewenaar/weduwee	5
		Ander	6
1.9	Bruto maandelikse inkomste van huishouding (opsionele vraag)0	Minder as R5 000	1
		R5 001 – R14 999	2
		R15 000 – R19 999	3
		R20 000 – R24 999	4
		R25 000 – R29 999	5
		Meer as R30 000	6
		Verkies om nie te spesifiseer nie	7
1.10	Aantal mense in u huishouding	1	1
		2	2
		3	3
		4	4
		5	5
		6	6
		7	7
		8 en meer	8
1.11	Personeelnommer (opsionele vraag – voltooi indien u vir die gelukkige trekking in aanmerking wil kom)		

Baie dankie vir u deelname!