Chapter – II

Review of Literature and Basic Concepts

In the process of research, the researcher had gone through many research papers, previous studies, articles pertaining to the various dimensions of customers’ attitude and purchase decision. Such a reference work had played an important role in identifying and formulating the research problem and in carrying out this work. The essence of the related literature has been presented in this chapter.

Following the introductory chapter which showed a bird’s eye view of the study, this chapter presents a brief review of literature pertaining to studies on information search, factors of motivation, brand loyalty and purchase behaviour of the consumers.

Information can be considered to be knowledge obtained about some fact or circumstance. In the context in which we are dealing within this chapter, such knowledge is to be used in a consumer behaviour situation. Search refers to mental as well as physical information-seeking and processing activities which one engages oneself in order to facilitate decision making regarding some goal-object in the market place. Consequently, search may be undertaken in order to improve knowledge about products, prices, stores and so on.

Consumer behaviour is the study of individuals, groups, or organizations 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.

It blends elements from psychology, sociology, social anthropology, marketing and economics. It attempts to understand the decision-making processes of buyers, both individually and in groups such as how emotions affect buying behaviour. It studies characteristics of individual consumers such as demographics and behavioural variables in an attempt to understand people's
wants. It also tries to assess influences on the consumer from groups such as family, friends, sports, reference groups, and society in general.\(^3\&\(^4\)\).

There are 5 stages of a consumer buying process: The problem recognition stage, meaning the identification of something a consumer needs. The search for information, which means you search your knowledge bases or external knowledge sources for information on the product. The possibility of alternative options, meaning whether there is another better or cheaper product available. The choice to purchase the product and then finally the actual purchase of the product.\(^5\) This shows the complete process that a consumer will most likely, whether recognisably or not, go through when they go to buy a product.

**Michael D. Johnson and Eugene W. Anderson**\(^6\) in their study, “Rational and adaptive performance expectations in a customer satisfaction frame work,” have made an attempt to develop and test alternative models of market-level expectations, perceived product performance and customer satisfaction. Market performance expectations are argued to be largely rational in nature yet adaptive to changing market conditions. Customer satisfaction is conceptualized as a cumulative construct that is affected by market expectations and performance perception in any given period and is affected by past satisfaction from time to time. It is reported based on an empirical study which supports adaptive market expectations and stable market satisfaction using data from Swedish Customer Satisfaction Barometer.

A model of consumer decision making involves several steps. The first one is problem recognition - you realize that something is not as it should be. Perhaps, for example, your car is getting more difficult to start and is not accelerating well. The second step is information search - what are the alternative ways of solving such problem? You might buy a new car, buy a used car, take your car in for repair, ride the bus, ride a taxi, or ride a skateboard to work. The third step involves evaluation of alternatives. A skateboard is inexpensive, but may be ill-suited for long distances and for rainy days. Finally, we have the purchase stage, and sometimes a post-purchase stage (e.g., you return a product back to the store because you did not find it satisfactory) in reality, people may go back and forth
between the stages. For example, a person may resume alternative identification while evaluating already known alternatives.

Consumer involvement tends to vary dramatically depending on the type of product. In general, consumer involvement will be higher for products that are very expensive (e.g., a home, a car) or are highly significant in the life of the consumer in some other way (e.g., a word processing program or acne medication).

It is important to consider the consumer’s motivation for buying products. To achieve this goal, we can use the Means-End chain, wherein we consider a logical progression of consequences of product use, that eventually lead to desired end benefit. Thus, for example, a consumer may see a car which has a large engine, leading to fast acceleration, leading to a feeling of performance, leading to a feeling of power, which ultimately improves the consumer’s self-esteem. A handgun may aim bullets with precision, which enables the user to kill an intruder, which means that the intruder will not be able to harm the consumer’s family, which achieves the desired end-state of security. In advertising, it is important to portray the desired end-states. Focusing on the large motor will do less good than portraying a successful person driving a car.

Consumers engage in both internal and external information search. Internal search involves the consumer identifying alternatives from his or her memory. For certain low involvement products, it is very important that marketing programs achieve “top of mind” awareness. For example, few people will search the Yellow Pages for fast food restaurants; thus, the consumer must be able to retrieve one’s restaurant from memory before it will be considered. For high involvement products, consumers are more likely to use an external search. Before buying a car, for example, the consumer may ask friends’ opinions, read reviews on Consumer Reports, consult several web sites and visit several dealerships. Thus, firms that make products that are selected predominantly through external search must invest, in having information available to the consumer in need—e.g., through brochures, web sites, or news coverage.
A compensatory decision involves the consumer “trading off” good and bad attributes of a product. For example, a car may have a low price and good gas mileage but slow acceleration. If the price is sufficiently inexpensive and gas efficient, the consumer may then select it over a car with better acceleration that costs more and uses more gas. Occasionally, a decision will involve a non-compensatory strategy. For example, a parent may reject all soft drinks which contain artificial sweeteners. Here, other good features such as taste and low calories cannot overcome this one “non-negotiable” attribute.

The amount of effort a consumer puts into searching depends on a number of factors such as the market (how many competitors are there, and how great are differences between brands expected to be?), product characteristics (how important is this product? How complex is the product? How obvious are indications of quality?), consumer characteristics (how interested is a consumer, generally, in analyzing product characteristics and making the best possible deal?), and situational characteristics.

Two interesting issues in decisions are: Variety seeking, where consumers seek to try new brands not because these brands are expected to be “better” in any way, but rather because the consumer wants a “change of pace,” and “Impulse” purchases - unplanned purchases. This represents a somewhat “fuzzy” group. For example, a shopper may plan to buy vegetables but only decides in the store to actually buy broccoli and corn. Alternatively, a person may buy an item which is currently on sale, or one that he or she remembers that is needed only when one is inside the store.

A number of factors involve consumer choices. In some cases, consumers will be more motivated. For example, one may be more careful choosing a gift for an in law than when buying the same thing for self one. Some consumers are also more motivated to make comparison between shops for the best prices, while others are more convenience oriented. Personality also impacts decisions. Some like variety more than others, and some are more receptive to stimulation and excitement in trying new stores. Perception influences decisions. Some people, for example, can taste the difference between generic and name brand foods while
Selective perception occurs when a person is paying attention only to information of interest. For example, when looking for a new car, the consumer may pay more attention to car ads than when this is not in the horizon. Some consumers are put off by perceived risk. Thus, many marketers offer a money back guarantee. Consumers will tend to change their behaviour through learning—e.g., they will avoid restaurants they have found to be crowded and will settle on brands that best meet their tastes. Consumers differ in the values they hold e.g., some people are more committed to recycling than others who will not want to go through the hassle.

Any analysis of the literature of information-seeking behaviour must be based upon some general model of what might be called "information behaviour", of which information-seeking behaviour is a part. **Wilson's (2001)** model shown below in Figure 2.1 locates the concepts of information need, information seeking, information exchange, and information use in a flow diagram that can be seen as charting the behaviour of an individual faced with the need to find information.

**Figure 2.1**

*Areas of Information Behaviour*

In the same paper Wilson proposed a model of the circumstances that give rise to information-seeking behaviour (Figure 2.2 - simplified for the purpose of this report). The main elements of Wilson's model are the situation within which a need for information arises (the PERSON performing a ROLE in an ENVIRONMENT), the barriers that may exist to either engaging in information-seeking behaviour or in completing a search for information successfully, and information-seeking behaviour itself. Figure 2.4 has been simplified and amended to show how Ellis's (2002) work on information-seeking fits into the model.

Regarding consumers’ interest in pre-purchase information, Thorelli (2002) in his study on 93 Norway sample districts has found that, those with more education might be more information minded than those with less education. Actual or potential buyers or owners of a product were more likely to be better than others and one might expect that higher income or wealth was accompanied by product-informed elite, and hence, there is a concentration of information power among consumers. After all knowledge is power.

In their scholarly study Newman and Staelin (2002) have found that purchase and use of product resulted in learning, which later influences buyer
behaviour. Their results, as well as those of earlier studies indicated that, the amount of information sought by many buyers was small, but it did not necessarily mean that buyers were ill-informed.

In another useful study, Rao (2002) has examined the relationship between the amount of explicit information and brand perceptions and the effect on perceptions of brand image (conjured by the brand name alone) though other sources of information were available. Twelve brands of automobile models (cars) were chosen as stimuli in the study.

O’Brien (2001) has examined four factors in his study—demographic, personality, source and message, and product class and their effects on information handling. The product chosen for the study were cars and break-fast. It was found that factors had varying effect on information handling. Search initiation had no effect on these variables, nor did education, sex, product class or psycho-social classification, except that knowledge increased more for cars than for break-fast. As demographic variables, sex and education also affected search initiation. Higher educated subjects were more likely to go in search of information probably because they were more familiar with sources and benefits of such search.

The subjective expression of need given above is evident, for example, in a definition by Burnkrant (2002) “a cognitive representation of a future goal that is desired”.

However, despite the subjective nature of need, various types of need have been defined through deduction and report. For example, Morgan & King (2003) have proposed that, needs emerge from three kinds of motives:

i) Physiological motives (for example, hunger and thirst)
ii) Unlearned motives (including curiosity and sensory stimulation)
iii) Social motives (the desire for affiliation, approval or status)
In spite of the difficulties with the concept, various categorizations of information needs have been produced. For example, Weigts, et al. (2004)\textsuperscript{14} have suggested the following categories:

i) Need for new information

ii) Need to elucidate the information held

iii) Need to confirm information held.

Dick, Alan S. and Kunal Basu (2006)\textsuperscript{15}, have explained that, Marketers have to understand how consumers search for and evaluate information and how purchase information may considered to be knowledge obtained about some fact or circumstance.

Oliver, Richard L. (2004)\textsuperscript{16} have defined the term search as it refers to mental as well as physical information-seeking and processing activities which one engages in to simplify the decision–making, regarding some goal object in the market place.

Motivation is a reason or set of reasons for engaging in a particular behaviour, especially human behaviour as studied in psychology and neurophysiology.

According to Geen (2006)\textsuperscript{17} motivation refers to initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of human behaviour. Psychologist and consumer behaviourists agree that, basically most people experience the same kinds of needs and motives, and it is these motives which find expression in various ways.

Schiff man and Luzar kannk (1998)\textsuperscript{18} observed that the term consumer refers to those individual who are termed as end-users or ultimate consumers and buy the goods for final use.

J.G.Gandhi (2003)\textsuperscript{19} has explained the difference between meaning of consumer behaviour and consumption beaviour. Consumer behaviour relates to an individual person (micro behaviour), where as consumption behaviour relates to the mass or aggregate of individuals (macro behaviour).
Adrian Palmer (2004) has stated that geographical segmentation has been undertaken in a much more localized level and linked to other differences in social, economic and demographic characteristics which is often referred to as geo-demographic basis.

Bina J (2005) has stated that marketers must carefully analyse the factors that enter into judgment and decision making and also to acquire clear understanding of which family members are involved in acquiring decision and an appeal to all important parties.

Philip Kotler, defines four patterns of behaviour:

i) Hard Core Loyal - who buy the same brand all the time.
ii) Soft Core Loyal - loyal to two or three brands.
iii) Shifting Loyal - moving from one brand to another.
iv) Switchers - with no loyalty (possibly ‘deal-prone’, constantly looking for bargains or ‘vanity prone’, looking for something different).

The pre-purchase process begins with need recognition, which occurs when the consumer has an alignment problem between his/her actual state and desired state. When the consumer recognizes this discrepancy, he/she is motivated to fill a need and initiate the purchase process. Once consumers enter the need recognition stage, they are immediately influenced by knowledge, experience, and perceptions they have developed from the advertisement.

Many times, advertisers attempt to induce cognitive conflict by applying different psychological tactics that may work to their advantage. One such psychological approach is guilt appeals by which marketers create a sense of guilt or play on emotions in an effort to motivate consumers to change some aspect of their lifestyle i.e., purchase their product. “Fraternal and communal guilt appeals are aimed to sell products or even services relevant to the respective audience”(Mohan).

“Cognitive conflict is a pre-decisional uncertainty, different from cognitive dissonance which is a post-decisional state” (Anderson, 2001). At this point, in the process, conflict is aroused due to substitute products that possess distinct
benefits. Different attributes offered by similar products cause consumers to question as to which product or service will be the best to satisfy their needs.

Sweeney, Hausknecht, and Soutar (2004) have analyzed the concept of cognitive dissonance over the entire decision-making process. In their study, they concluded that, conflict “originates in the pre-purchase phase,” and “the construct is labelled apprehensions and increases over the decision process”. Cognitive conflict in the pre-purchase stage is of vital importance because these apprehensions are the source of true dissonance after the purchase is made.

The product could be of high or low involvement depending on the number of brand alternatives and the differences among them. There is a positive relationship between expectations and performance within high-involvement products. On the other hand, there is no relationship between expectations and performance in a low involvement purchase (Sheriff and Houland, 2001). An understanding of the level of involvement is critical in determining the type of strategy the marketer should deploy.

However, Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell have warned that, overstatement or understatement, for that matter, could be a poor strategy and that “a negative disconfirmation of an expectancy can produce an unfavourable product evaluation” (Engel, Kollat, & Blackwell, 2002).

Once the consumer has recognized his/her need, searched for information, and evaluated the alternatives, he or she is ready to purchase the product of his/her choice. At this stage, the consumer’s purchasing intentions are highly influenced by internal and external variables. Internal variables, such as dissonance arousal, can provoke a sense of inconsistency in the mind of the consumer. At this point, the consumer may also be influenced by uncontrollable external factors such as a salesperson’s persuading techniques and the environment in which the purchase is taking place. A better understanding of these factors can assist marketers in the development of successful techniques to reduce the level of post-purchase dissonance.
In order, for marketers, to be able to control dissonance during the purchase, it is important for the marketers to understand the factors that are necessary in the development of dissonance. Not all purchases result in cognitive conflict. There are three main conditions that exist when dissonance is aroused.

Firstly, the decision must be important to the consumer. The level of dissonance the consumer experiences are directly related to the personal involvement of the consumer in the purchase. Secondly, the consumer must feel free while making the choice. When the consumer’s decision is voluntary in nature, he or she may feel more responsible for making the wrong choice. Thirdly, the consumer must display an irreversible commitment to the decision made. In this case, dissonance is aroused due to the fact that the decision will be final, once it is made.

The consumer knows he or she will not have a second chance to make a better choice (Cummings and Venkatesan, 2001). In any major purchase, it is likely that the decision will be important to the consumer.

The marketer should attempt to decrease dissonance by communicating value added attributes that are in line with the high performance expectations of the consumers.

“Cognitive dissonance is perhaps never totally avoidable although it can be managed” (Sheriff). Application of the mentioned strategies will not totally eliminate dissonance but will help create a higher level of satisfaction in the post-purchase. The post-purchase stage is considered the most critical, since it is within this particular stage that the consumer realizes true cognitive dissonance. If cognitive dissonance is not properly managed in the post-purchase stage, it can result in customer dissatisfaction that will ultimately lead to loss of customers.

Sweeney, Hausknecht, and Soutar et al. (2004) have suggested that there are three cognitive dissonance dimensions. These three dimensions include (1) emotion, (2) wisdom to purchase, and (3) concern over deal.
There are seven approaches to minimize anxieties and doubts of the consumers which are mentioned below: (1) summarize the product’s benefits after the purchase; (2) repeat why the product is better than the alternatives; (3) emphasize how satisfied the customer will be; (4) provide toll-free numbers to encourage communication; (5) offer liberalized return and refund policies; (6) engage in staff training to handle complaints; (7) implement a follow-up program (Buyer’s Remorse Can Spoil the Big Sale, 2005). By implementing these strategies, a company communicates to the consumer that he or she has made the right decision and that the company will commit to his/her satisfaction.

Once the new customer-focused environment has been established, the implementation of an excellent tracking and measuring system should follow. A good follow-up program involves paying close attention in detail. This can be accomplished by documenting all details of customer interaction including all purchases and support received (Hamrin and Jasinowski, 2005). A good way to evaluate product performance and measure customer satisfaction is through surveys.

Another effective follow-up activity involves communicating with the customer after the purchase has been made. This communication can be through email, a newsletter, phone calls, or any other effort that allows consumers to discuss how they feel about the product (www.clientize.com). The Carmax Company deploys an approach that it calls the “unexpected thank you.” Many times this “unexpected thank you” is in a letter that is sent to congratulate the customer after the purchase. The company will also benefit from the letter by developing closer relationship with customers, gaining favourable word-of-mouth advertising, acquiring customer loyalty, and enhancing the company’s image (www.carmax.com). By taking these extra steps in the follow-up process, a company may not only establish customer loyalty, but also suppress cognitive dissonance.

By managing cognitive dissonance a company can create a loyal, satisfied customer who in turn will refer others. As illustrated throughout the decision-
making process, marketing plays a major role in controlling buyer’s remorse. Cognitive conflict can be utilized in the pre-purchase stage to attract consumers and initiate action, but it should be eliminated by the post-purchase stage in order to retain the favourable opinion of the consumer.

Once the consumer makes a decision to purchase a product, there can be several types of additional behaviours associated with that decision. Three activities are of primary importance:

i) Decisions on financing the purchase

ii) Decision on the product’s installation and use, and

iii) Decision on products or services related to the item purchased

i) **Decisions on financing the purchase:** In India, it is increasingly run on credits like access to numerous credit avenues such as the credit cards and installment system. Major decision involves the nature of payment to be used in the purchase.

ii) **Decision on the product’s installation and use:** All the consumers are familiar with the need to have their product setup or installed like TV, washing machine and air conditioners, etc. Some goods may be used immediately, for example, a car.

iii) **Decision on products or services related to the item purchased:** It often happens that a buyer of one item becomes a candidate for all sorts of options and related products or services. For example, a 35mm camera buyer may become interested in numerous accessories like lenses and camera bag.

Traditionally, consumer researchers have approached decision making process from a rational perspective. This dominant school of thought views consumers as being cognitive and to some but in a lesser degree, emotional.

Such a view is reflected in the stage model of a typical buying process (often Called the consumer information processing model) depicted in Figure 2.3
In this model, the consumer passes through five stages: problem recognition, information search, evaluation and selection of alternatives, decision implementation, and post-purchase evaluation.

Post-purchase evaluation processes are directly influenced by the type of preceding decision-making process. Directly relevant here is the level of purchase involvement of the consumer which is often referred to as “the level of concern for or interest in the purchase” situation, and it determines how extensively the consumer searches information in making a purchase decision. Although purchase involvement is viewed as a continuum (from low to high), it is useful to consider two extreme cases here. Suppose one buys a certain brand of product (e.g., Diet Pepsi) as a matter of habit (habitual purchase) for him/her, buying a cola drink is a very low purchase involvement situation, and he/she is not likely to search and evaluate product information extensively. In such a case, the consumer would simply purchase, consume and/or dispose the product with very limited post-purchase evaluation, and generally maintain a high level of repeated purchase motivation.
However, if the purchase involvement is high and the consumer is involved in extensive purchase decision making (e.g., personal computer), he/she is more likely to be involved in more elaborate post-purchase evaluation – often by questioning the rightness of the decision with such as “Did I make the right choice? Should I have gone with some other brand?” This is a common reaction after making a difficult, complex, relatively permanent decision. This type of doubt and anxiety are referred to as post-purchase cognitive dissonance.

Source: Hawkins, Best, and Coney (2002)\textsuperscript{35}
According to research, the likelihood of experiencing this kind of dissonance and the magnitude of it is a function of:

i) The degree of commitment or irrevocability of the decision  
ii) The importance of the decision of the consumer  
iii) The difficulty of choosing among the alternatives and  
iv) The individual’s tendency to experience anxiety.

Because dissonance is uncomfortable and the consumer may use one or more of the following approaches to reduce it:

i) Increase the desirability of the brand purchased.  
ii) Decrease the desirability of rejected alternatives.  
iii) Decrease the importance of the purchase decision.  
v) Reject the negative data on the brand purchased.

If the dissonance about the purchase is not reduced, the anxiety may transform into dissatisfaction (general or specific). Certainly, this negative experience leads to new problem recognition, and the consumer will engage himself in problem solving process. The difference, however, is that in the next round of process, memory of the previous negative experience and dissatisfaction will be used as part of information. Therefore, the probability for the unsatisfactory brand to be re-selected and repurchased will be significantly lower, than before.

Another widely-used model in marketing that attempts to explain consumer decision making process is called the hierarchy of effects model. Although different researchers developed slightly different models, the basic idea remains the same: people experience a sequence of psychological stages before purchasing a product.
This model (HOE) is originally conceived to explain how advertising affects consumer’s purchase decisions, it focuses on consumer learning that takes place as he/she processes information from the external world. This (HOE) model begins with the state where a consumer is unaware, then develops awareness triggered by external stimuli, such as advertising message or word of mouth. As he/she obtains and processes more information, the consumer develops more specific knowledge about the brand. The knowledge, then, is used as the basis to form a liking or disliking, leading to a preference of brand(s) relative to the others. However, people need to be pushed beyond the preference stage to actually buy the brand of their preference. The preference stage, after all, simply means that the consumer has formed a preference psychologically. Now needs conviction to actually buy the brand.
The HOE model is quite similar to the consumer information processing model because it also assumes that people are cognitively driven, thinking information processors. The general model (cognition first, preference second) seems to be valid, especially in relatively complex or high-involvement decision making situations (e.g., cars, computers), providing a conceptual framework for thinking about the sequence of events, which begins from the initial awareness to the final action i.e., purchasing.

Many problems can arise when people step on to a showroom floor at a car dealership. In a major purchase situation, feelings of excitement encompass the customer. Often a feeling of uncertainty emerges in the heart and mind of the customer before he/she leaves the showroom. Nearly every major purchase in our society results in some form of cognitive dissonance, which is also known as buyer’s remorse. Almost everyone is faced with the situation of having to choose between two equally valued alternatives. Ultimately the buyer must make a decision between the two and will often feel skeptical about his/her decision. They will spend more time buying what they want as opposed to what they need. The major focus of the salesmen are to change the mindset of customers from something they need to something they want (Wolkenhauer, 2004).

According to Nolan Baker, a sales manager from a middle Tennessee Saturn dealership, creates a loyal customer by providing a pressure-free sales environment. Baker has spent 25 years in the car industry, worked 13 years for a traditional car dealership first before he came to work for Saturn.

In 2005 Saturn hosted a homecoming for all Saturn cars. Saturn car owners were invited to Spring Hill, to visit their car’s birthplace. Customers were given tours and allowed to actually meet the men and women who built their cars. Senior Saturn staff members were involved in meeting and greeting as many people as they could (Goldman, 2005). More than 36,000 people showed up for the event. It further cemented Saturn’s status to a higher level car company (Chappell, 2005).
Saturn has proved that its “no-pressure sales tactics” have paid off with the number-one slot for the second year in a row in customer satisfaction says reports according to J.D. Power and Associates.\textsuperscript{42}

Chris Denove, a partner at J.D. Power and Associates, said, “Automobile dealers of luxury automobiles generate higher customer satisfaction scores because they provide an environment with less pressure and sell to a more sophisticated customer who feels empowered when working with these dealers.

In every problem or situation he faces, he must be contended with his own cognitive predilections. His values, attitudes, personality, role, group influences, culture, family, and so on are all products of his cognitive mechanism. The consumer reconciles and reduces cognitive inconsistencies, undergoes attitude changes, alters his role, and restructures his own self-image and personality (Markin 2002).\textsuperscript{43}

The black box model shows the interaction of stimuli, consumer characteristics, decision process and consumer responses.\textsuperscript{44} It can be distinguished between interpersonal stimuli (between people) or intrapersonal stimuli (within people).\textsuperscript{45} The black box model is related to the black box theory of behaviourism, where the focus is not set on the processes inside a consumer, but the relation between the stimuli and the response of the consumer. The marketing stimuli are planned and processed by the companies, whereas the environmental stimulus are given by social factors, based on the economical, political and cultural circumstances of a society. The buyer's black box contains the buyer characteristics and the decision process, which determines the buyer's response.
The black box model considers the buyer's response as a result of a conscious, rational decision process, in which it is assumed that the buyer has recognized the problem. However, in reality many decisions are not made in awareness of a determined problem by the consumer.

**General Model**

A general model for the buyer decision process consists of the following steps:

- i. Awareness
- ii. Interest
- iii. Understanding
- iv. Attitude
- v. Purchase
- vi. Repeat Purchase
i. **Awareness** – before anything else can happen the potential customer must become aware that the product or service exists. Thus, the first task must be to gain the attention of the target audience. All the different models are, predictably, agreed on this first step. If the different models are, predictably, agreed on this first step, but the audience never hears the message, they may not act on it, no matter how powerful it.

ii. **Interest** – but it is not sufficient to grab their attention. The message must interest them and persuade them, that the product or service is relevant to their needs. The content message(s) must therefore be meaningful and clearly relevant to that target audience’s needs, and this is where marketing research comes into play.

iii. **Understanding** – Once the interest is established, the prospective customer must be able to appreciate how well the offering may meet his or her needs, again as revealed by the marketing research.

iv. **Attitude** – But message must go their further to personage the reader to adopt a sufficiently positive attitude towards the product or service that she or he will purchase it, albeit as a trial.

v. **Purchase** – All the above stages might happen with in few minutes while the reader is considering the advertisement scated confortably in his/her favourable armchair. The final buying decision, on the other hand, may take place some time later; perhaps weeks later, when the prospective buyer actually tries to find a shop which stocks the product.

vi. **Repeat Purchase** – but in most case this first purchase is bet viewed as just a trial purchase. Only if the experience is a success for the customer it will be turned into repeated purchases. These repetitions, not the single purchase which is the focus of most models, are where the vendors focus should be, for these are where the profits are generated. The earlier stages are merely a very necessary pre-requisite for this.
Congruence between personality and the way a persuasive message is framed (i.e., aligning the message framing with the recipient’s personality profile) may play an important role in ensuring the success of that message. In a recent experiment, five advertisements (each designed to target one of the five major trait domains of human personality) were constructed for a single product. The results demonstrated that advertisements were evaluated more positively and they covered more participants’ dispositional motives\(^46\). Tailoring persuasive messages to the personality traits of the targeted audience can be an effective way of enhancing the messages’ impact.

**Section Summary**

This Chapter concentrates on basic concepts used in the study and information about consumer behaviour such as consumer satisfaction, dissatisfaction, various consumer choices and also covers the various motivational theories of human behaviour. It brings out the loyalty which creates demand and demand retention and also deals with the pre-purchase behaviour, during purchase behaviour and post-purchase behaviour of the consumers, the consumer information processing models, purchase involvement, purchase decision process which consist of awareness, interest, understanding, attitude, purchase, repeated purchase and the digital revaluation and changes in consumer behaviour. The essence of the selected literature has also been reviewed in this chapter.
References and Notes


