Chapter II

Review of Literature
Consumer behaviour encompasses all that the consumers exhibit in searching, purchasing and evaluating the products and services that would satisfy their needs. The purchase decision depends on the buyer himself, his lifestyle, his attitudes and his perceptions. It is also influenced by various external factors like the product attributes, the price, the company salesperson, the family, friends, relatives and advertisements.

In the present chapter the researcher attempts to briefly review the studies related to consumer lifestyles and purchase decisions.

2.1 STUDIES ON LIFESTYLE

2.1.1 Life Style – Definitions

Philip Kotler (1983) defined lifestyle pattern as a system concept. “It refers to a distinctive mode of living in its aggregate and broadest sense. It embodies the patterns that develop and emerge from the dynamics of living in a society. It is concerned with those unique ingredients or qualities which describe the style of life, some culture or group and distinguish it from others”.

William Lazer introduced the concept of lifestyle patterns and its relationship to marketing, in 1963. He defined life style pattern as a
"systems concept".\(^2\) Lazer's (1963) model, shown in the Fig. 4 shows the linkage of life style patterns and values to purchase decisions.

**Figure 2.1**

Lazer's Life Style Hierarchy Model

Life style refers to a pattern of consumption reflecting a person's choices of how he or she spends time and money. In an economic sense, one's lifestyle represents the way one has elected to allocate income, both in

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terms of relative allocations to different products and services and to specific alternatives within these categories.\(^3\)

Mitchell (1969)\(^4\) defined it as a macro social phenomenon or a distinct trait of a society as a whole in a particular period of time. Using Maslow’s hierarchy of motivation, Mitchell identified the developmental process of society’s life style and defined it as “Life way”

Feldman and Thelbar (1972)\(^5\) developed a life style definition on the basis of group phenomenon. They pointed out four distinctive characteristics of life style.

1. Life style is a group phenomenon. A person’s life style is not a unique or individual pattern of behaviour. It is influenced by his participation in various social groups and by his relationship with others.

2. Life style pervades many aspects of life. Knowing how an individual behaves in one area of his life may allow us to predict how he will act in other areas.

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3. Life style implies a central life interest. A distinct life style is evident when a single activity or interest pervades a person’s other interests and unrelated activities, and

4. Life style differs according to sociologically relevant variables.

Reynolds and Darden (1972)⁶ defined life style as a personal construct system, which is the way each individual organizes and structures his world in order to anticipate the events happening there.

Plumer (1974)⁷ defined lifestyle by emphasizing its behavioural aspect. He compared the life style construct with demographic, social class and psychological variables. “The new construct, life style patterns, combines the virtues of demographics with the richness and dimensionality of psychological characteristics and depth research. Life style deals with everyday behaviorally oriented facets of people as well as their feelings, attitudes and opinions”.

Lifestyle according to Wells (1974)⁸ refers to the disparate modes of living in a whole society or any of its segments, including activity, interest opinions needs values, attitudes and personality traits.

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2.1.2  Life Style Construct And Consumer Behaviour

From the discussion in the previous section, it is seen that a life style construct is an individual’s psychological and relatively enduring trait, a multidimensional whole embodying a systematic pattern. Further, it is also concerned with all facets of human environment. Now the question that arises is how an individual’s life style is related to the specific consumer behaviour.

Wind, Yoram and Green (1974) developed a conceptual framework of life style in relation to consumer behaviour. They considered life style as “made up of values and personality as reflected in activities, interests and attitudes towards leisure time, work and consumption of person alone and person with others.”

One important point in this framework is that consumption environment is treated as only one part of a person’s total environment, and his representative mode of consumption environment is one dimension of his life style.

Reynolds and Darden (1974) agreed with this point when they attempted to reconcile life style construct with psychographics by applying the theory of personal construct. Reynolds and Darden divided a person’s

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multitude of personal constructs into non-consumer constructs and consumer constructs. Consumer constructs deal with the communicating, purchasing and consuming facets of a consumer.

Because it is almost impossible to cover all possible relevant ranges of personal constructs of a person, they proposed, for convenience, to limit the range of life style within a consumer construct domain. Non-consumer constructs are treated simply as irrelevant ranges of consumer life style.

Lazer (1963)\(^\text{11}\) stated “from one perspective, the aggregate of consumer purchases and the manner in which they are consumed reflect a society’s life style”.

A strong advocacy of the product-specific approach can be seen in the benefit segmentation studies extensively conducted by Haley (1968)\(^\text{12}\). He used segmentation whereby it was possible to identify market segments by causal factors rather than by descriptive factors. Haley strongly believes that the benefits, which people were seeking in consuming a given product, were the basic reasons for the existence of true market segments.

In this approach people were first segmented in accordance with the benefits they are seeking, and each segment was then contrasted with all the other segments in terms of its demographic characteristics, its volume of


consumption, its brand perceptions, its media habits, its personality and its life style characteristics, in relation to benefit segments and life style dimensions. Haley concluded that to a large extent the benefit segments were unique to the product categories being analyzed and that some of the general life style segments appeared among the customers of almost all products and services, although there was no guarantee that a majority of them or any of them existed in any given product category.

In his market segmentation study Pernica (1974)\textsuperscript{13} drew a conclusion similar to Haley's. Based on the prediction that personality and life style variables had no significant correlation with a person's brand preference, Pernica segmented the subjects on the basis of both more generalized life style variables and product benefits or buying motivation. Pernica drew a conclusion from the study that among a long list of life style variables, only a small number could be hypothesized to have a significant bearing on the purchase of a specific product, that their effects on product choice was indirect and that they were pictured through a set of consumer's specific choice criteria for the product.

Alpert and Gatty (1969)\textsuperscript{14} came up with a "Behavioural Life Style" approach which was solely based on the behavioural pattern of product purchase and use. They identified 25 behavioural life style patterns from the

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{14} L.Alpert and R.Gatty, "Product Positioning by Behavioral Life Style", \textit{Journal of Marketing}, April 1969.
\end{itemize}
analysis of the subject's consumption propensities of 80 different products. Twenty-five behavioural life style patterns were then correlated with heavy versus light beer drinkers and with Y versus W brand beer drinkers.

The basic logic behind his behavioural life style approach was that a person's consumption of some products were inter-related with consumption patterns of some other products or particular brands of products, and that people were segmented on the basis of their consumption propensities to the various products and brands.

Heller (1968)\textsuperscript{15} had a different approach known as the attitude sphere approach. This was a combination of product-specific life style variables and product-attribute-specific attitudes. Heller defined the term "Attitude sphere" as "a group of attitudes which represent as many attitudes, beliefs and behaviours as we can define to be related to the decision to buy or use a product".

Heller concluded that a person's lifestyle variables were related to using the product in the attitude sphere. Attitude sphere can be considered equivalent to product-specific life style. It covers a narrow range of consumption environment than covers the behavioral life style approach for the former approach includes family product-specific life styles and attitudes. It does not consider the interrelationship between attitudes towards different product categories.

The most general approach to a life style construct can be seen in the studies of Wells and Tigert and Wilson. Wilson (1966)\textsuperscript{16} believed that housewives lived according to the established behaviour and attitude patterns, which could be identified and measured. He believed that these living patterns were related to other behaviour of more direct economic importance such as product purchase and media exposure.

In this study, a behaviour, interest and opinion measure was used as an operational measure of the housewife’s general living patterns. The important living pattern variables were then identified from the item classification analysis and they were correlated with a variety of product consumption patterns and media habits. It was concluded that there are such things as patterns in daily living behaviour among housewives, which influenced some of their consumption behavior.

Wells and Tigert (1971)\textsuperscript{17} developed “activities, Interests and opinions” measure (AIO Measure), in order to operationally measure the generalized life style patterns. The AIO measure was designed to conceptually cover whole areas of a human environment such as those of leisure, work and consumption. The essential purpose of this study was to develop the generalized life style profiles of the heavy and light users of both eye make ups and shortening. It was concluded in the study that

variation of the product usage rate were identifiable by the variation of the life style variables. Wells and Trigert both jointly and individually continued to use generalized life style variables in order to extend their life style studies into diverse consumption situations.

2.1.3 Studies on Lifestyle Segmentation

Life style segmentation approach clusters people only in terms of the subjects’ responses to the life style questions. It does not assume that the members of any target consumer group are all similar. Instead of attempting to discover what cigarette smokers or readers of a newspaper have in common, life style segmentation believes that users of particular product fall into different lifestyle segments.

A typical example of the life style segmentation approach is the major study conducted by the Newspaper Advertising Bureau, USA (1973). In this study, a national sample of approximately 4000 respondents completed questionnaires containing 300 AIO questions. The life style questions were first reduced to a smaller set of scales by R-type factor analysis and the resulting factor scores were fed into Q type factor analysis to place the respondents into relatively homogenous life style groups. This study identified the following eight male life style groups:

1. The quite family man
2. The traditionalist

(3) The discontented man

(4) The ethical high brow

(5) The pleasure - oriented man

(6) The achiever

(7) The he man

(8) The sophisticated man.

These eight male lifestyle groups were then contrasted in terms of their degree of product usage.

Life style segmentation approach not only ruled out the major disadvantage of life style profile approach, but it was also consistent with the theoretical position of the life style construct and its relationship with consumption behaviour. This theoretical framework of the relationship required the research approach to identify a person’s lifestyle pattern before relating it to the specific consumption behaviour, as a person’s life style is an antecedent and more enduring construct than his consumption behaviour.

In the early 60’s although demographic segmentation had consistently provided actionable consumer insights, market researchers felt that the utilization of demographic variables had reached a point where it was time to explore variables that provided information about different facets of consumer behaviour. In particular, there was general agreement that attention should be given to understanding the life styles and attitudes of consumers.
Two studies of Mathews and Slocum (1969,1970)\(^1\) found a number of interesting and useful relationships between social class and the usage of bank cards. For instance, they found that "members of the lower social classes tended to use their cards for installment purposes; upper classes for convenience."

Further, their results indicated that all users had a favourable general attitude towards credit; however installment users tended to use their cards more frequently. Their study also indicated that "the upper classes are generally favourable toward using credit to purchase luxury goods and the lower class users tended to use their cards for durables and necessity goods."\(^2\)

To explain these relationships, Mathews and Slocum invoked many of the life style differences and value orientations between social classes that had been found in sociological research.

Additional insights about the bank credit card users were given by a study conducted by Plummer (1971)\(^3\). He found the differences existing between users and non-users of commercial bank charge cards, along life style dimensions. However, the evidence in this study is derived from direct style of the life style of users and non-users, rather than from inferences.

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drawn from measurements of social class and income segments. In particular, credit card user's life styles, their contemporary thinking, risk-orientation and service organization affiliation are noteworthy. The life style portrait of the user indicates an active upper socioeconomic, urban – suburban life style with many interests outside the home. The study indicated that users of commercial bank charge cards, in contrast to non-users, exhibited "a contemporary state of mind" and a rejection of conservative, rational concepts.

Villani (1975)\textsuperscript{22} made a specific attempt to indicate that television programme style audience was relatively heterogeneous in terms of the personality and life style characteristics. Using both personality traits and life style factors, he divided the television audience into four segments namely. (i) Heavy television viewer (ii) Light television viewer (iii) Non violent viewer (iv) Action oriented.

The major finding of the study was that television audience segments were relatively heterogeneous at least in terms of life style and demographic characteristics.

Mehrota and Wells (1977)\textsuperscript{23} introduced general life style pattern in the marketing research and formally incorporated this concept into the theory of life style analysis. They reported ten different life style types by

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{22} Kathvyn E.A. Villani “Personality, Life style and Television Viewing Behavior”, \textit{Journal of Marketing Research}, vol.12 Nov1975., pp.432 – 439
\end{itemize}
using general life style characteristics. The five female segments were labeled as (i) The old fashioned traditionalist (ii) The militant mother (iii) The elegant socialite (iv) The chic subordinate and (v) The contended housewife. The five male segments were (i) The retiring homebody (ii) The successful professional (iii) The frustrated factory worker (iv) The devoted family man and (v) Self-made businessman. They reported that within the groups there was a similar life style and each group represented a different pattern of needs for consumption of products and services.

Crask and Reynolds (1980),** employing life style analysis examined the differences between segments of people classified in terms of their print and TV media exposure patterns. They reported four media exposure classes in terms of their life style differences. They are:

i) **The HITV life style** : High Television and Low Print Exposure

ii) **The HIPRINT life style** : Low Television and High Print Exposure

iii) **The HIBOTH life style** : Scoring above medium in both Television and Magazine readership

iv) **The LOBOTH life style** : Print and television scores are both below Median

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They concluded "the four media exposure classes appear to have distinctive life style profiles". In brief, HIPRINT members were self-confident, involved, change-oriented and modern; HITV persons were uninvolved and change-resistant traditionalists.

Urban (1980)\textsuperscript{25} attempted to predict overall magazine readership utilizing both consumer – descriptive and behavioural variables. Demographics, psychographics and activities were included in the former, and overall media use-scores for TV radio, newspapers, and magazine were included in the latter. He found that over 70% of the total variance in the magazine readership could be predicted with a combination of demographic, psychographic, media usage, television programme choice and magazine choice variables. He also stated that psychographics dimensions (lifestyle) were more important predictors for women than men and television programme factors were more important for men than women.

Several researchers tried to assess how consumers felt about the cars they bought and drove, and found that basic demographics like age, sex, and income did not describe the market sufficiently. Bates Sharkey (1985)\textsuperscript{26} conducted an experiment study in which he related the attitudes of car buyers and buying habits instead of using only demographics. He reported six life style segments, namely


\textsuperscript{26} Betsy Sharkey, “Why You’re Driven to Buy that Special Car”, USA Week End, Oct.18-20, 1985, p 18.
traditional shopper, dedicated fringe shopper, price shopper and transitional shopper. The findings also contributed to the development of market segmentation theory.

Life style analysis, since its inception, explored many unanswered questions in marketing. It is also used in other spectrums. Lastovicka (1987)\(^{29}\) attempted to study the drinking – driving behaviours of young males.

They developed a life style based typology and then tried this typology to drinking driving behaviours. Four different segments namely the good timers, the well adjusted, the nerds and problem kids were found among the young males (18 to 24 years old.) According to National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (1984) “Studies of personality ...... variables that may be related to drinking-driving have not been conclusive...”. In contrast, the study shows that the life style traits are related to drinking driving behaviour.

In the Indian context, there are very few life style research studies that have attempted to use a life style segmentation approach. Very few studies relate lifestyles with consumption patterns for both present and future, product attributes and brand choice behaviour.

Vinoo Mathew (1990) attempted to examine the stereo types among the urban Indian men. He followed the method used by Troiano (1983) on female stereo types in Brazil. He conducted 25 in-depth interviews in the four cities of Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras. Respondents consisted of men from four income (lower, middle, upper, upper-upper) and three age groups (18-25, 26-35, 36-45). Each interview consisted of two stages, namely.

- A broad ranging discussion about the respondent, his aspirations, likes/dislikes, his background, past and current activities, hobbies, interests, his relationship with his job, family, friends and the like.

- An exercise where respondents sorted print ads into three categories: those that in some way represented themselves, those that presented something they aspired to and those that were neither of these. Respondents were then encouraged to explain why they had put certain ads into the first two categories; after which they were asked to further sub-divide the third category into different 'types' of other men.

The study found three stereotypes among Indian urban consumers namely, the Career Driven, the self-seeker and the home lover. It also found that there were differences within a stereo type that arose due to age.

30 Vinoo Mathew, "Triople Faced", Advertising and Marketing, Col.11 Issue 6, September 1990, pp26-29
background and circumstances. The study did not try to correlate the life style and consumption behaviour, but made an attempt to segment them on general life style basis.

Agarwal, Muthukumaran and Sharma (1990)\(^{31}\) made an exploratory study of the Indian urban youth market (people in 15 to 19 years age group, living in towns and cities). The study used the model provided by Wind and Green (1974), and they identified five sets of variables that could be included to define a person’s life style.

These were a person’s

a) Value system
b) Personality traits
c) Product and service consumption
d) Activities, interests, opinions (AIO’S) and
e) Attitudes towards product class or brands.

Based on the mode, information was collected on personality attitudes, opinions, and activities and on a subset of product consumption. Twelve focus groups were contacted in different locations in India to understand the attitudes, opinions and life styles of the youth. The final survey included 60 personality statements, 46 activity statements and 20 psychographic statements. The psychographic statements covered aspects

such as the respondent's opinion and attitudes towards shopping, sex role, future orientation, family, religion and so on. The personality statements were rated on a three point (yes, no, sometimes) scale.

Quota sampling was used to ensure adequate representation with respect to sex, income, regions and town classes. Seven thousand seven hundred and ninety one complete responses were obtained. Convergent cluster analysis (Sawttok, software, 1988) was used for clustering.

The study found five clusters among males as well as females. They were a) Traditional b) Transitional c) Drifter d) Rebel e) Liberal. The study found that psychographic statements aimed at obtaining a clear and meaningful segmentation of the urban youth market. Personality, activity and consumption variables had helped in highlighting inter segment differences and in better understanding of segment character. Further analysis revealed that psychographic segmentation was a useful tool to marketers in India, a tool that could provide information's on the consumption of product class.

Verma and Hanspal (1997)\textsuperscript{32} examined the influence of buyer's lifestyle on his purchase behaviour. The study was carried out on middle class consumers residing in various parts of Delhi. They identified seven dominant lifestyle segments among the sample based on the AIO (Activities, Interest and opinion) statements. They were

Purchase behaviour of people representing each of the above lifestyles was studied with reference to the following dimensions: interest in shopping, Interest in trying new brands, seeking friend’s advice on the choice of brands, preference for the store that back up the product guarantee and store loyalty. The study revealed that the ‘Stay at home traditionalist’ and the Progressive provident’ had no significant interest in shopping or trying new brands or seeking the advice of their friends on what brand to buy or from which store to buy. They were however, substantially store-loyal. This implies that the retailer played an important role in the purchase made by people belonging to the two life styles mentioned above. The ‘social climbers’ liked to shop and frequently seek the advice of their friends regarding what brand to buy. They had no significant interest in trying new brands, in patronizing any reliable store or in being store-loyal.

The ‘conservatives’ loved to shop and try new brands. They also sought advice on brands from their friends and were significantly store-
loyal; but they showed no noticeable preference for stores that backed up their products guarantee.

The 'privileged' tried new brands and patronized reliable shops or stores, but they showed no significant preference for the advice of friends on which brands to buy or on being store-loyal.

The 'independents' who were mostly women, showed no significant interest in shopping, in new brand trial, in seeking advice of friends on the choice of a brand or a store. Since they had been associated with making purchase decision for the family, there was a need for studying their purchase behaviour closely.

A study was carried out by Jain and Dhingra (1999) to analyse the fashion lifestyles of young females and identifying the underlying fashion lifestyle dimensions that could be used as a basis of segmenting the young female fashion market and profiling the identified fashion segments in terms of self concept, general lifestyle, shopping behavior and demographics of the segment members.

The study was conducted during May-October, 1998 among 400 young females living in and around Delhi. They measured the dimensions of the fashion lifestyle construct, that is fashion interest and innovativeness, looking sensuous and attractive, shopping enjoyment, planned wardrobe,

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anti-fashion attitude, fashion social value, decision making confidence, fashion personal value, fashion extravagance, label and store mindedness, opinion leadership, self-indulgence and extensive shopping. K mean cluster analysis was applied only on the five major fashion lifestyle factors. Based on the mean factor scores, six clusters were found and named as fashion leaders, fashion followers, fashion independents, fashion neutrals, fashion uninvolved and fashion negatives. These clusters were found to have different fashion lifestyles.

The study also focused on how different fashion segments differed on general lifestyles and self-concepts. The general lifestyle pattern was classified as free spiritedness, flirtatious tendencies, versatility, self-centeredness, career mindedness, perseverance and reclusivity. The factors used to explain the self-concept was leadership, traditionalism, studious nature, fashion consciousness and adventuresome.

The study established the applicability of usefulness of fashion psychographics as a basis of market segmentation. It identified six clusters of respondents, which differed in their fashion lifestyles. The respondents across the six clusters were found differing in their general lifestyle pattern, self-concept, demographic and buying behaviour. These differences suggested that the marketers could immensely gain from evolving distinct marketing strategies and positioning concepts for each of the target clusters.
2.1.4 Studies On Feminine Lifestyle

Reynolds, Crask and Wells (1977)\textsuperscript{34} made an attempt to examine the lifestyle differences between women who preferred the ‘traditional – feminine’ orientation and women who preferred a ‘modern – feminine orientation’. They found women who had opted for the modern feminine orientation differed from traditional women in a number of ways. They were more liberal in their attitudes toward life, events and business, and more cosmopolitan in their interests. They were financially optimistic but careful spenders. They were very interested in personal appearance and identified themselves with a youthful and fashionable lifestyle. The traditional women were reported to have higher usage levels of lipstick and hair spray than the modern women. They wanted to look attractive with reference to other women. They concluded that ‘the interplay of motives and life style leads to differential purchasing behaviour by modern and traditional women.

Anderson (1972)\textsuperscript{35} classified women into liberated, non liberated women and undecided women. His studies revealed that liberated women made more food shopping trips than either non-liberated or undecided woman.


But he also found in his study\textsuperscript{36} non-liberated women to be less concerned about convenience and speed of shopping. Then the study sample was classified into working and non-working women, working women were found to make fewer shopping trips and to be more brand loyal than their non-working counterparts.

Douglas and Urban (1977)\textsuperscript{37} compared the patterns of lifestyle of women in three countries namely the US, the UK, and the France. They found that there were five factors that determined the lifestyle patterns of women. The first four factors were the home factor, social factor, frustration factor and the innovation factor which were similar in all the three countries. The fifth factor was intellectual factor for the US and the UK whereas it was the role factor for France.

Roberts and Wortzel (1979)\textsuperscript{38} in their study took lifestyle variables as predictors of food shopping behaviour. They also used a set of intervening variables reflecting women’s attitudes to food preparation to explain their food shopping behaviour which they considered better than either a working or non-working classification or general role orientations.


\textsuperscript{38} Mary Lou Roberts, and Lawrence H Wortzel, “New Life Style Determinants of Women’s food shopping Behaviour”, Journal of Marketing, vol.34, summer, 1979, pp.28-39
They found that "traditional oriented" women did not seem to cook for pleasure. Instead, they cooked because they have a sense of responsibility to provide satisfying and nutritious food for their families, with little concern for the time required for the shopping and meal preparation. Roberts and Wortzel conceded "neither employment role nor career-orientation had much effect on food shopping behavior.

Richards and Sturman (1977)\(^3\) conducted an experimental study on the application of life style market segmentation techniques to branded apparel which involved a combination of satisfying both physical needs, fashion and style criteria. The results indicated five actionable segments in this market, namely (a) conservative (b) Brand – conscious (c) Home/price oriented (d) Fashionable and (e) out – going. Significant variation among segments was discovered in the style preferred. The study proved helpful in selecting target markets, and in guiding product design, advertising, positioning and execution and sales promotions for these target segments.

Life style analysis technique was even extended to the field of retailing business.\(^4\) Associated Merchandising corporation (USA) pioneered a series of three to four segmentation studies among major department store customers (Both male and female) These studies were valuable to managers in overall store planning both to meet the needs of their current customers and to attract new ones.


Further an increasingly wider application of life style segmentation techniques in packaged goods such as soap, foods and drugs have helped marketers in all major aspects of market planning and management. With the growing involvement of many companies throughout the world in globalizing their markets, increasing interest has been focused on examining customer attitudes and behavior patterns in different countries. A key question for management in this context is to determine whether customers will respond similarly to marketing strategies in each country and thus to assess how far the same segmentation or marketing strategies can be used throughout the world.

2.1.5 Lifestyle and media usage

AT&T attempted to segment its nation-wide market for its telephone and allied services. From 1969-1974 the company used only demographic variables like life cycle, employment status, family income and education for segmentation. By the mid 1970's, AT&T developed its initial battery of attitudinal – psychographic statements to profile customers with Touch Tone Telephone service. The study indicated that attitudinal – psychographics profiles were primarily useful for preparing advertisement and promotional content, and that demographic segmentation was principally useful for marketing media decisions.


Alan Bush, Memon and Smart (1987) studied on media habits of DO-It-Yourselves. The study found that the active DIYers were significantly different from the non-DIYers in terms of age, sex, home ownership, income and martial status. The study concluded that the DIYers were found to be a promising segment for advertisers as this segment consisted of self educationists and display opinion leadership traits.

Ellen D, Davis, Dove, and Warren (1987) in their attempt to study the behaviour of the senior citizens, found that elderly people could not be viewed as comprising one market. The study revealed that since the media habits varied considerably within the elderly population and that distinctly different lifestyle groups existed amongst them, there was need to tailor the creative strategy to the needs and characteristics of these segments.

Potter, Forrest, Sapolsky and Ware (1988) demonstrated that the VCR users consisted of different types of people who had very different motives patterns of usage and they identified four main reasons for acquiring VCR's. Source shifting; Time shifting, Zipping and Zapping. Based on the patterns, the consumers were segmented as Time shifters and Source shifters.

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The study revealed that the time shifters were more likely to be self-controlled and valued their freedom and personal happiness more and liked to try new and different things as compared to source shifters. The source shifters were found to enjoy solving complex problems and sought pleasure and inner harmony. The study concluded that the role of VCR in extending or eroding the network audience depended upon the segment one examined.

Aresh Shirali and Iqbal Singh (1997) in a study on symbol for the Indian male used a list of 30 status symbols, which included services and products that appealed to different kinds of lifestyles. The study concluded that the objects of desire whose status power had increased were home, location, educational job, second car, laptop, computer, painting and antiques internet connection and wife's job. The status symbols attached to club membership, child's school, credit card, flying first class, apparel, dining at five star hotels, air conditioners, colour TV, cordless phone, VCD/DVD systems, refrigerator, washing machine, and male toiletries have decreased.

2.2 PURCHASE DECISION STUDIES

2.2.1 Influence Of Salesperson On Purchase Behaviour

One of the most important factors that influences consumers in their purchase is the sales person as they are the closest representative of marketers.

Bush & Wilson (1976)\(^{47}\) in the study of salesman role in the buyer seller dyad found that salesmen offered expertise about products to make the shopper's choice easier. Alternatively, the customer might be reassured because the salesperson was a likable person whose tastes are similar and is seen as someone who can be trusted.

A buyer seller situation was like any other dyadic encounter and it was a relationship in which some agreement could be reached about the roles of each participant. A process of identity negotiation occurred.\(^{48}\)

The salesperson customer interaction was investigated by Richard Olshavsky (1973)\(^{49}\) He classified the sales interaction process as a three stage sequence; the orientation process, evaluation process and consummation process. The key result of this study was that the sales person often played an extremely powerful role in influencing the customer's actual choice and purchase.

2.2.2 Reference Group Influence

Reference groups have a significant influence on the behaviour of the consumer at all stages. They influence the attitudes and self-concept and


they create pressures for conformity that may affect actual product and brand choices.

George Homans (1975) noted that consumers accepted reference group influence because of the perceived benefits in doing so. It had been suggested that the nature of social interaction between individuals would be determined by the individual’s perception of the profit of interaction. An interaction situation might result in rewards (such as friendship, information, satisfaction and so on) but would also exact costs (lost time, money expended, alternative people and activities sacrificed). Individuals would attempt to maximize the difference between these rewards and the costs that were the net product from the social exchange. Thus individuals would choose their groups and interact with members based upon their perception of the benefit of that exchange, rather than rewards or costs alone.

M. Venkatesan (1966) studied the influence of group pressure on consumer decision-making and the effects of choice restriction by group pressure in the consumer decision-making process. Student subjects were instructed to evaluate and choose the best suit among three identical men’s suits.

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Three group members were instructed to select suit "B" which then put pressure on the last subject, who was questioned last to agree with the group or to differ in his judgment and thus resist the group influence. It was found that individuals tended to conform to the group influence and group norms. The implication was that consumers accepted information provided by their peer groups on the quality of a product, of a style, and so forth, which was difficult to evaluate objectively.

Reference group influences were not equally powerful for all types of products and consumption activities. For example, products that were not very complex, that were low in perceived risk and that could be tried prior to purchase are less susceptible to personal influence.\(^{52}\)

Bearden and Etzel (1982)\(^{53}\) in their study found that there were two dimensions that influenced the degree to which reference groups influenced the purchase. They were whether the purchase was to be consumed publicly or privately and whether it was a luxury or a necessity product. As a rule, group effects were stronger for purchases that are luxuries rather than necessities because products that were purchased with discretionary income were subject to individual tastes and preferences whereas necessities did not offer this range of choices.


Similarly if the purchase was consumed publicly, or if it was socially conspicuous product visible to others, the influence of the reference group was greater, because consumers did not tend to be swayed as much by the opinion of others if their purchases would never be observed by anyone but themselves.

2.2.3 Types and Sources of Information

John A Howard and Jagadish N. Seth (1969) identified three different stages of information search: i) information about the existence and availability of various product and service offered, ii) information useful in forming the evaluating criteria which are employed to evaluate alternatives, and iii) information on the properties and characteristics of alternatives. The information sought depended on what the consumer already knew.

In addition to the above search, the information sources could be classified into three major categories: (i) market dominated sources, (2) consumer sources and (3) neutral sources. Information in marketer-dominated channels stemmed from salespeople, packaging and other sources under the control of the marketer. Consumer sources included all those interpersonal communications not under the control of the marketer. Neutral sources included a portion of the mass media, government reports and publications from independent product testing agencies. These groups were not under the direct control of the marketer.

The amount of external information search for most products was surprisingly small even when additional information would most likely benefit the consumer.

Beatty and Smith (1987)\textsuperscript{55} in their study on the external search efforts found that some consumers typically visited only one or two stores and rarely sought out unbiased information sources prior to making a purchase decision, especially when little time was available to do so.

This pattern was especially prevalent for decision regarding durable goods such as appliances or autos, even when those products represented significant investments. In the study of Australian car buyers, Srinivasan and Ratchford (1991)\textsuperscript{56} found that more than a third had made only two or fewer trips to inspect cars prior to buying one.

Research suggested that consumers typically consulted a few information sources before making a purchase. Peter R. Dickson and Sawyer (1990)\textsuperscript{57} observed less than 12 seconds elapsed between the time grocery shoppers arrived and departed from a product display, on average.


2.2.4 Product Attributes and Consumer Perception

Consumers consider sets of product attributes using various decision rules and make a final decision rule depending on the complexity of the decision and the importance of the decision to them. There is no single evaluation process used by all the consumers or by one consumer in all the buying situations.

Consumers vary as to which product attributes they see as most relevant and the importance they attach to each attribute. They will pay the most attention to attributes that deliver the sought benefits. In general the consumer's choice of a product would be in such a way so as to maximize the product value. Attributes like appearance, price, performance, durability, safety, after-sales service technology and the like contribute to the value of the product individually or jointly.

Gordon and Lee (1965)\(^{58}\) pointed out that the total product in a broad sense included all the features and conveniences, for which the consumer paid. They also found that the knowledge of the product characteristics could be utilized to predict the nature of the marketing mix, which was suitable for a given product.

\(^{58}\) Gordon and Lee, "Do Higher Prices and Brand Name Assure Top Quality," Eco for Cons (1965), p 34.
Myers and Alpert (1968)\(^59\) identified the attitudes and predispositions of consumers towards the choice of products. In the choice of automobiles, power, comfort, economy, appearance and safety were the attributes that were salient in decision making.

They found that only certain features of a product were proved closely associated with preferences, while other remaining features proved immaterial. Features that were closely related to preference were said to be the determinants.

Cairelli (1976)\(^60\) established the priority given to visual design by consumers in their choice of products. According to him, product appearance gained precedence over structural and functional design, which often increases the manufacturing cost and ultimately resulted in a higher price. All compromise on design or performance would affect the established standards. Therefore, priority should be given to visual design.

Swan and Combs (1976)\(^61\) emphasized the prime instrumental factor, that is performance was quite important since it must be satisfied before satisfying the other expressive factors like style, image, status and comfort.

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Reynolds and Gutman (1984)\textsuperscript{62} identified over sixty attributes that could be ascribed to the purchase of automobiles. They found that the consumers made evaluation based on a limited number of attributes only. According to them, the buyer evaluation of automobile purchase preference was in terms of interior roominess, durability, gasoline economy, warranty coverage and price. Some compared cars in terms of styling, comfort, performance and prestige.

Bloch and Richins (1983)\textsuperscript{63} pointed out that perception of product importance depended on product attributes like cost, time, quality, dependency on product, self image, amount of stake in the purchase of the socially significant products, purchase situation, personality and prepurchase search.

Balram Singh (1986)\textsuperscript{64} stated that the value assigned to television was influenced mainly by brand name, duly supported by quality, price, design and after-sales service.

Datta Majumdar (1987)\textsuperscript{65} concluded that consumers of refrigerators were conscious about the importance of quality and reliability and consequently on the other benefits there of. Apart from these, the features like finish, paint, size and shape also influenced their choice.

\textsuperscript{65} Majumdar Datta, “Creating Quality Consciousness”, \textit{Productivity} Vol. 27, 1987, pp 367-372.
Garvin (1986)\textsuperscript{66} based on his study of behaviour of North American Company Managers, listed out the dimensions of quality as performance, features, reliability, comfort, durability, service ability, aesthetics and perceived quality. He also mentioned that the relationship between quality and price ran in both directions. The relationship broke down when multiple attributes such as brand name, store image and product features were present.

Gerstner (1985)\textsuperscript{67} concluded “Quality price relations are product specific with frequently purchased items displaying weaker relations than non-frequently purchased items. It has been observed that price quality relationship runs in both ways. In a perfect market, one might expect a strong positive relationship between product quality and price. This is not practically possible in today’s market”.

J D Curry and Riesz P C (1988)\textsuperscript{68} argued that the role of price played in consumer evaluation of product alternatives was not an unidimensional one. Price may be viewed as a constraint and as one conveying information on product quality.


Scitovsky (1982)\(^69\) supported the common observation that people frequently judged the product by its price – more expensive a product, the higher may be its quality.

Lichtenstein and Burton (1989)\(^70\) in their study of 18 products, established a positive but not strong correlation between the perceived and objective price-quality relationship.

It was concluded that consumers price-quality perception was a function of general or product type specific scheme, rather than independent evaluation of price-quality relationship for individual category. They also found that the price-quality perception appeared to be more active for non-durable products than for durable products.

Morris A Cohen and Hau L Lee (1990)\(^71\) investigated superior after sales service could increase with first time and repeat sales, and thereby increasing market share.

Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1991)\(^72\) in his study surveyed 25 countries to determine the importance of customers and product quality. The study


showed that customer's service was the top success factor in nearly every country. Product quality, often involving close relationship with suppliers, was also highly ranked. Many companies represented in the survey claimed to have long-term relationships both with their customers and suppliers. In practice, customers were kept at arm's length and suppliers a little closer. According to respondents' report, companies in some countries do more than pay lip service to the importance of their external allies. Germany for example, was higher than the average on scales measuring closeness to both customers and suppliers.

To conclude, this chapter has examined the approaches to lifestyle segmentation, dimension of lifestyle and the inter-relationships between lifestyle and other buyer behaviour variables. The review of literature revealed that lifestyle segmentation was a useful technique. Studies also found that lifestyle variables were a significant factor that explained buying behaviour clearly. Therefore, the present study is designed on the basis of the foundations laid by some of the previous studies.