

## **2.0.0.CHAPTER TWO**

### **SUMMARY OF RELATED LITERATURE SURVEY**

#### **2.1.0. INTRODUCTION**

#### **2.2.0. PERSONALITY**

#### **2.3.0. MOTIVATION**

#### **2.4.0. PERCEPTION (ATTRIBUTIONAL PROCESS)**

## 2.1.Ø INTRODUCTION

As mentioned earlier, the present study aims to assess the Consumer variables in terms of Personality, Motivation and Perception as the predictor variables in determining the product purchase behaviour. Since the attempt is to quantify and to identify the segments with reference to the above mentioned variables, a brief description about each variable studied and a review of the literature carried out in the past in these areas are presented below.

## 2.2.Ø. PERSONALITY

One of the more engrossing concepts in the study of the consumer behavior is that of Personality. Purchasing behavior, media choice, innovation, segmentation, social influence, product choice, opinion leadership, risk taking, attitude change, and almost anything else one can think have been linked to Personality.

"The past two decades, especially the last five years, have been exciting times in the field of consumer behavior. New data, theories, relationships, and models have been received with such enthusiasm that, in fact, a new field in scientific inquiry has developed. Studies such as consumer economics, rural sociology, social and mathematical psychology, social anthropology, and political science have been so churned and milled that from their amorphous mass the study of consumer behavior has become a relatively well delineated scientific discipline". (Kassarjian, 1971).

A brief summary of researches carried out in the area of Personality and purchase behaviour under various instruments employed is presented below .

#### GORDON PERSONAL PROFILE

This instrument purports to measure Ascendancy, Responsibility, Emotional Stability, and Sociability. Tucker and Painter (1961) had tried to establish the relationship between Personality and product use. Gordon Personal Profile and product usage measures for Headache Remedies, Cigarettes, Mouthwash, Deodorants, Chewing gum, acceptance of new Fashions, Vitamins, Alcoholic drinks and Automobiles were studied.

Tucker and Painter found significant correlations between use of Headache remedies, Vitamins, Mouthwash, Alcoholic drinks, Automobiles, Chewing gum, and the acceptance of new Fashions and one or more of these four Personality variables. The correlations ranged from .27 to .46 accounting for perhaps 10% of the variance.

Research by Tucker and Painter revealed certain distinguishable relationships between Personality traits and use or non-use of products. Acceptance of new Fashions by a predominantly Male sample, was positively related to Ascendancy and Sociability, but use of Headache remedies was negatively related to Ascendancy and Emotional Stability. Some products were related to all four Personality traits measured, such as Cigarettes. Gottlieb (1958) found that compulsive individuals are more likely to use Antacid analgesic products than were non-compulsive individuals; also, people with Punitive orientations tended to use these products less often.

Sparks and Tucker (1971), attempted to study the relationship between Personality and buying behaviour.

Data was collected from collage students using Gordon Personal Profile and product usage with the help of 17 multiple choice questionnaire on Headache remedies, Mouthwash, Men's Cologne, Hair spray, Shampoo, Antacid remedies, Playboy, Alcoholic Beverages, Complexion aids, Vitamins, Cigarettes, Coffee, Chewing gum, After Shave lotion, Frequency of brushing teeth and Hair cut, and new Clothing Fashion.

Canonical analysis was carried out and, the first two roots of canonical R. were .606, and .548 significant at .0001 level. The first root was associated with the use of Shampoo, Alcoholic beverages, Cigarettes and Fashion adoption and the related Personality characteristics indicated Sociable, Emotionally Stable and Irresponsible. This indicated clearly that the association of Personality was not a simple relationship, but a complex one. Probably this was in conformity with gestalt in which the entire Personality and the entire situation form a particular configuration. In view of all these differential behaviour and differential results, to build a general model, is extremely complex.

Kernan (1968) used decision theory in an empirical test of the relationship between decision behaviour and Personality. He added the Gordon Personal Inventory to measure Cautiousness, Original Thinking, Personal Relations, and Vigor. Pearsonian and multiple correlations indicated few significant relationships, but Canonical correlation between sets of Personality variables and Decision behaviour gave a coefficient of association of .77, significant at the .10m level. Cluster analysis then showed that behaviour was consistent with Personality profiles within clusters. Kernan's results, like those of Tucker and Painter (1961) showed interesting relationships but were by no means startling.

#### EDWARDS PERSONAL PREFERENCE SCHEDULE

The EPPS has been used in more than two dozen studies or rebuttals in consumer behaviour from a trait and factor theory approach. The purpose of the instrument was to develop a factor-analysed, paper-and-pencil, objective instrument to measure the psychoanalytically-oriented needs or themes developed by Henry Murray. Its popularity in consumer behaviour can be traced to Evans' landmark study (1959) in which he could find no differences between Ford and Chevrolet owners to an extent that would allow for prediction.

He was, however, able to account for about 10% of the variance. Criticism of Evans' study and conclusions came from many fronts and on many grounds (Jacob, 1969; Marcus, 1965; Martinears, 1957; Murphy, 1963; Steiner, 1961; Winick, 1961). Rejoinders were written (Evans, 1959; 1961; 1963; 1964).

Using Evans' original data, Kuehn (1963) then concluded that predictive ability could be improved if one computes a Discriminant function based on the two needs displaying the largest initial predictive ability. Kuehn improved Evans' results by using Dominance scores minus Affiliation scores. Nevertheless, the controversy over Evans' study is in the very finest tradition of the physical and social sciences, with argument and counter-argument, rejoinder and replication, until the facts begin to emerge, something very seldom seen in marketing and consumer behaviour research. The final conclusion that seemed to trickle through is that Personality does account for some variance but not enough to give much solace to Personality researchers in marketing.

Along other lines, Koponen (1957) used the EPPS scale with data collected on 9,000 persons in the J. Walter Thompson panel. His results indicated that Cigarette smoking is positively related to Sex Dominance, Aggression, and Achievement needs among Males and negatively related to Order and Compliance needs. Further, he found differences between filter and non-filter smokers and found that these differences were made more pronounced by heavy smoking. In addition, there seemed to be a relationship between Personality variables and readership of three unnamed magazines.

Massy, Frank, and Lodahl (1967) used the same data in a study of the purchase of coffee, tea, and beer. Their conclusion was that personality accounted for a very small percentage of the variance. In fact, Personality plus socioeconomic variables accounted for only 5% to 10% of the variance in purchases.

In a sophisticated study, Claycamp (1965) presented the EPPS to 174 subjects who held savings accounts in banks or savings and loan associations. His results indicated that Personality variables predicted better than demographic variables whether an individual was a customer of a bank or a savings and loan association.

These results contradicted those of Evans, who concluded that socioeconomic variables were more effective than personality variables alone. Claycamp correctly classified 72% of the subjects.

Brody and Cunningham reanalyzed Koponen's data employing techniques like those of Claycamp and Massy, Frank, and Lodahl(1968) with similar results, accounting for about 3% of the variance. Further, these results are similar to those from the Advertising Research foundation's study on toilet paper (1) in which 5% to 10% of the variance was accounted for by Personality and other variables. Brody and Cunningham(1968) argued that the weak relationships might have been caused by an inadequate theoretical framework. Theirs consisted of three categories: perceived performance risk (the extent different brands perform differently), specific self-confidence (how certain the consumer is that a brand performs as he expects) and perceived social risk (the extent he thinks he will be judged on the basis of his brand decision. The authors concluded that, "when trying to discriminate the brand choice of people most likely to have perceived-high performance risk and to have high specific self-confidence, Personality variables were very useful".

An attempt was made to relate Personality and demographic variables to brand loyalty. The data was generated from 2 brands of Coffee users - Maxwell House, Chase and Sanborn and Hills Brothers; Folgers Coffees, from 296 families of J. Walter Thompson Panel. Seven of the EPPS Scores for Female head of the households and Male head of the households were considered for the regression analysis. Since the main objective was to predict two discrete groups, multiple discriminant analysis was used again. The regression analysis did not explain the extent of discrimination between the brand users. It did not predict the specific and most useful Personality variable which led to the purchase of Chase and Sanborn Coffee. However, it gave rise to a group of variables that were important in the prediction.

Horton (1974) had mentioned about the use of EPPS in consumer Personality research. He had given the following reasons for choosing EPPS.

- (i) scoring is simple, mechanical, and unambiguous.
- (ii) published results are available for comparison purposes
- (iii) it is based upon 'Murray's system of personality needs'

Horton had criticised, the usage of EPPS in consumer Personality research because of its ipsative scaling procedure. Ipsative scales reflect intra-individual differences rather than inter-individual differences in the absolute level. This limits the usage of the test in consumer behaviour research.

It can be concluded that significant relationship between Personality characteristics and consumer behaviour had revealed in many of the studies. The results were to be handled with caution since;

- a) a particular Personality test might not be applicable to all types of marketing situations;
- b) product or brand or attribute prediction made by Personality factors in a particular test situation need not remain constant, due to the fact that the manufacturer can always manipulate these three.

Most of the studies have indicated that either there was no relationship between Personality factors and aspects of buying behaviour or only weak relationship was existing. This may be because of the validity of using such Personality tests in the marketing situation, which were originally developed for clinical situation.

In addition, the validity was questionable, since most of these tests were modified haphazardly and adapted in the marketing situation and lead to perilous conclusions.

As a conclusion one could summarize that the researches done using EPPS and purchase behaviour indicated that the relationship of basic Personality variables to buying behaviour has been investigated across a fairly wide range of products and services.

#### THURSTONE TEMPERAMENT SCHEDULE

This is another factor-analysed instrument. Westfall (1962) in a well known study that is often interpreted as a replication of Evans' study, compared personalities of automobile owners and could find no differences between brands. He further found no differences between Compact and Standard car owners on the Thurstone variables. However, personality characteristics did differ between owners of Convertibles and Standard models.

Westfall's results were that the Convertible owner was much more Active, Impulsive, and Sociable than the Standard or Compact owner and somewhat less Stable and Reflective.

Using the same instrument, Kamen (1964) showed a relationship between the number of people who had no opinion on foods to be rated and the number of items they left unanswered on the Thurstone scale. Using a specially created questionnaire, he concluded that the dimension of "no opinion" is not related to food preference. Proneness to have an opinion does not seem to be a general trait, but rather is dependent on the content area.

#### CALIFORNIA PERSONALITY INVENTORY

This is the newest paper-and-pencil test to be used extensively. Roberston and Myers (1969,1970) and Bruce and Wits (1970) developed measures for innovativeness and opinion leadership in the areas of food, clothing, and appliances. A multiple stepwise regression with 18 traits on the CPI indicated poor R-'s; the portion of variance accounted for was 4% for clothing, 5% for food, and 23% for appliances.

The study tended to support previous studies on innovation and opinion leadership that showed a minimal relationship between Personality variables and behaviour toward new products. Several studies indicated that Gregariousness and Venturesome were relevant to opinion leadership.

Other traits, such as Informal and Formal Social Participation, Cosmopolitanism, and Perceived risk, were related to innovative behaviour in some studies, while another set of studies show no differences. These studies were reviewed by Robertson (1971). A very recent study by Boone (1976) attempted to relate the variables on the California Personality Inventory to the consumer innovator on the topic of a community antenna television system. His results indicated significant differences between innovators and followers on 10 of 18 scales. Unfortunately, the statistical techniques were quite different from those employed by Robertson and Myers, so it was not possible to determine whether or not the two studies were in basic agreement with Personality.

Finally, Vitz and Johnston (1965) using the Masculinity scale of both the CPI and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, hypothesized that the more Masculine a smoker's Personality, the more Masculine the image of his regular brand of cigarettes. The correlations were low but statistically significant, and the authors concluded that the results moderately support product preference as a predictable interaction between the consumer's Personality and the product's image.

## SELF-CONCEPT AND SELF-CONFIDENCE

Jacobson and Kossoff (1963) studied self-perception and attitudes toward small cars. Individuals who perceived themselves as "cautious conservatives" were more likely to favour small cars as a practical and economic convenience. Another self-confidence group of "confident explores" preferred large cars, which they saw as a means of expressing their ability to control the environment.

Birdwell (1964, 1968) using the semantic differential, tested the hypotheses that: (1) an automobile owner's perception of his car is essentially congruent with his perception of himself and (2) the average perception of a specific car type and brand is different for owners of different sorts of cars. The hypotheses were confirmed with varying degrees of strength. However, this did not imply that products have personalities and that a consumer purchases those brands whose images were congruent with his self-concept; Birdwell's study did not test causality. It could very well be that only after a product is purchased does the owner begin to perceive it as an extension of his own personality.

Jacobson and Kossoff (1963) correlated a test assessing self-concept with attitudes toward small cars. The self-concepts defined were "cautious conservatives," "middle-of-the-roaders," and "confident explorers." Cautious conservatives were found to be more favourably inclined toward small cars. Furthermore, cautious conservatives were more likely to favour small American cars, but confident explorers tended to prefer small foreign cars.

In a follow-up study of Pontiac and Volkswagen owners Grubb (1968) indicated that owners of one brand of automobile perceive themselves as similar to others who own the same brand and significantly different from owners of the other brand. Sommers indicated by the use of a Q-sort of products that subjects are reliably able to describe themselves and others by products rather than adjectives, say on a semantic differential or adjective checklist Sommers, (1963, 1964). That is, individuals are able to answer the questions, "What kind of a person am I?" and "What kind of a person is he?" by Q-sorting products.

Grubb (1968) and Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) concluded that consumers' different self-perceptions were associated with varying patterns of consumer behaviour. They claimed that self-concept is a meaningful mode of market segmentation. Grubb found that beer drinkers perceived themselves as more Confident, Social, Extroverted, Forward, Sophisticated Impulsive, and Temperamental than their non-beer-drinking brethren. However, the comparison of self-concept and beer brand profiles revealed inconclusive results; drinkers and nondrinkers perceived brands similarly.

Dolich (1969) further tested the congruence relationship between self-images and product brands and concluded that there was a greater similarity between one's self-concept and images of his most preferred brands than images of least preferred brands. Dolich claimed that favoured brands were consistent with and reinforce self-concept.

Finally, Hamm (1967) and Hamm and Cundiff (1969) related product perception to what they called self-actualization, that is, the discrepancy between the self and ideal-self.

Those with a small discrepancy were called low self-actualizers, a definition which did not seem consistent with Maslow's work on the hierarchy of needs. High self-actualizers described themselves in terms of products differently from low self-actualizers, and in turn perceived products differently. For both groups, some products such as House, Dress, Automatic Dishwasher, and Art prints tended to represent an ideal-self, Wife, or Mother, while others such as Cigarettes, TV dinners, or a Mop did not.

Bell (1967) made study of self-confidence and persuasion with particular reference to car buying. 234 new car buyer in the age group of 26-45 were personally interviewed. Day and Hamblin and many others used the procedure to measure generalised self-confidence. A set of statements were presented for which the subject had to either agree or disagree. Persuasibility was determined by measuring the extent of influence of salesman on price, payment, particular car (colour, style, size etc.) accessories, delivery, and service. His specific self-confidence seemed to be more relevant than his overall confidence. The relationship between specific self-confidence and persuasibility was curvilinear.

Bauer (1978) had indicated the existence of curvilinear relationship between self-confidence and persuasibility. Alpert (1971) had related personality with product choice; where 88 male undergraduate students were selected for this study subjects had rated product attributes on desirability and product difference ratings on five point scales. Edward's Personal Preference Schedule was used to measure Personality traits. The product groups selected for this study were automobiles, movies and place of residence. Factor analysis was used to eliminate the highly copious attributes.

#### LIFE STYLE

An integration of the richness of motivation research studies and the tough-mindedness and statistical sophistication of computer technology has led to another type of research involving personality, variously called psycho-graphic or life-style research. The life-style concept is based on distinctive or characteristic modes of living of segments of a society (Lazer, 1960).

The technique divides the total market into segments based on Interests, Values, Opinions, Personality characteristics, Attitudes, and Demographic variables using techniques of Cluster analysis, Factor analysis, and Canonical correlation. Wells(1968) dubbed the methodology "backward segmentation" because it groups people by behavioural characteristics before seeking correlates. Pessemier (1967) and Tigert reported that some preliminary relationships were found between the factor-analyzed clusters of people and market behaviour. Similar results were reported in (Bass, 1968; Levy, 1959; Pessemier, 1966 Wells, 1968; Wilkie, 1970 and Wilson, 1966).

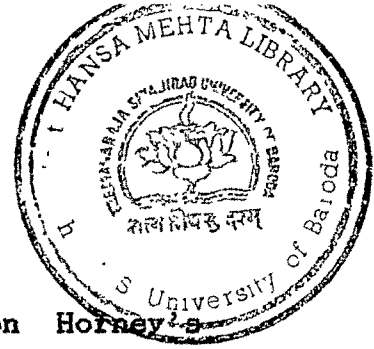
Generally, the relationship of the Attitude-Interest-Personality clusters, when correlated with actual buyer behaviour, indicated once again that 10% or less of the variance was accounted for. Yet quite properly the proponents of the technique claimed that very rich data were available in the analyses for the researcher and practitioner interested in consumer behaviour.

## PERSONALITY AND PERSUASIBILITY

To complete a review on the relationship between Personality and consumer behaviour, the wide body of research findings relating Personality to persuasibility and attitude change must be included.

In addition to the dozens of studies carried out under Carl Hovland (1959) there were many relating personality characteristics to conformity, attitude change, fear appeals, and opinions on various topics. The consumer behaviour literature studies by Cox and Batter (1964), Bell (1968) Carey (1963), and Barach (1969) tried self-confidence to persuasibility in the purchase of goods. These studies indicated a curvilinear relationship between specific self-confidence and persuasibility.

Venkatesan's (1968), results, however, throw some doubt on these findings. In recent re-analysis and review of much of this literature, Shuchman and Perry (1969) found contradictory data and felt these were inconsequential. The authors claimed that neither generalized nor specific self-confidence appeared to be an important determinant of persuasibility in marketing. Bauer(1970)in turn, had found fault with the Shuchman and Perry re-analysis.



COHEN'S CAD

Cohen (1968) administered a test based on Horney's paradigm of Compliant (moving toward), Aggressive (moving against), and Detached (moving away from) individuals. His results, across a wide range of products, suggested important differences in interpersonal orientation for product use and brand choice. High Complaint individuals, for example, were heavier users of Mouthwash, Soap, and Wine, but high Aggressive individuals were heavier users of Men's Cologne and Manual Razors. Cohen did not find differences, however, for Cigarettes and Headache remedies.

The review of researches related to Personality and purchase behaviour indicate that among the various Personality instruments, EPPS tended to be the most frequently tool compared to the other instruments. The product group studied using personality segmentations varied from cars to coffee. However, much of the criticism has been aimed against the use of the existing personality instruments mainly because they were primarily constructed for different objective and purpose.

Hence the use of these instruments tended to yield varied results. The present study, however, has taken into account the criticisms leveled against the use of the existing personality measures, made an attempt to employ only those that might have some direct relevance to the consumer behaviour.

### 2.3.0 MOTIVATION

The major issue in consumer behaviour which is still more persistent, more perplexing and more resistant to easy solution seems to be the problem of motivation. Needs, drives, reasons, instincts, goals, persuasion, rewards, punishment, achievement, power, dedication are words that deal with the concept of motivation, yet, what motivation really is and how it can be activated is an ongoing process of exploration.

#### 2.3.1. MOTIVATION AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

The role of motives is to arouse and direct the behaviour of consumers. The arousal component activates bodily energy for mental and physical activity. In their directive role, motives have several important functions for guiding behaviour.

Motives influence consumers to develop and identify their basic strivings. Included among basic strivings are very general goals such as safety, affiliation, achievement, or other desired states which consumers seek too achieve. They serve to guide behaviour in a general way across a wide variety of decisions and activities.

Influencing Choice Criteria Motives also guide consumers in developing criteria for evaluating products. Thus, for a car buyer strongly influenced by the convenience motive, features such as electronic speed control and easy-servicing requirements would become more important choice criteria than would styling or mileage.

Marketers are also influence consumers' choice criteria. Inn some cases, this occurs because consumers are not consciously aware of their own motives. In other cases, people may be aware of their motives but unsure of the specific criteria to use in their product evaluations.

Geraldine Fennell (1975) states "consumers of goods and services perceive themselves to be in one of five motivating situation, each of which has an activating condition and behaviour mode". The five motivating situations are:

1) Aversive elements escape:- The consumer is motivated to buy a product to solve (escape from) some problems;

2) Anticipated Aversive elements/Prevention:- The consumer is motivated to buy a product to keep away an undesirable situation.

3) Normal Depletion/Maintenance:- The consumer is motivated to buy the product because supplies are exhausted or to use the product because normal departure from a maintenance level has occurred.

4) Product-related Aversive Elements/Conflict Resolution:- The consumer is motivated to avoid potential problems inherent in the consumption of the product itself.

5) Positive Elements/Diversion Enjoyment:- The consumer is motivated to buy the product primarily because he sees the product use situation as an opportunity for fun, novelty, complexity, and aesthetic or sensory pleasure.

The major attempts in the area of Motivation and Purchase behaviour have been to classify consumers based on the purchase patterns or motives. Hence most of the contribution in this area deals with identification of various motives, classification of motives and relatively few researches trying to establish the relationship between motivation and purchase behaviour. The findings are presented below.

Eight types of hidden or subconscious needs were mentioned by Vance Packard (1957) which were of relevance to marketing situation. According to this the products sold, satisfied some specific need. The following were the different needs sought after :

## Subconscious Needs

1. Emotional security
2. Reassurance of worth
3. Ego-gratification
4. Creative outlets
5. Love object
6. Sense of power
7. Sense of roots
8. Immortality

Copeland classified consumer product motives as emotional and rational (Newman, 1958). Emotional motives are those that have origin in human instincts and rational motives are aroused by appeals. Following is Copeland's list of consumer products buying motives.

### A. Emotional Buying Motives

1. Distinctiveness
2. Emulation
3. Economical evaluation
4. Pride of personal appearance

5. Pride in appearance of property
6. Social achievement
7. Proficiency
8. Expression of artistic taste
9. Happy selection of gifts
10. Ambition
11. Romantic instinct
12. Maintaining and preserving health
13. Cleanliness
14. Proper care of children
15. Satisfaction of the appetite
16. Pleasing the sense of taste
17. Securing personal comfort
18. Alleviation of laborious tasks
19. Security from danger
20. Pleasure of recreation
21. Entertainment
22. Obtaining opportunity for greater leisure
23. Securing home comfort

## B. Rational Buying Motives

24. Handiness
25. Efficiency in operation or use
26. Dependability in use
27. Dependability in quality
28. Reliability of auxilliary service
29. Durability
30. Enhancement of earnings
31. Enhancing productivity of property
32. Economy in use
33. Economy in purchase

Melvin S. Hattwick (Newman, 1958) listed eight basic wants in life. These are also called as fundamental drives.

1. Food and drink
2. Comfort
3. To attract the opposite sex
4. Welfare of loved ones
5. Freedom from fear & danger
6. To be superior
7. Social approval
8. To live longer

Secondary wants were identified by Hattwick and were learned by people through experiences, namely:

1. Bargains
2. Information
3. Cleanliness
4. Efficiency
5. Convenience
6. Dependability, quality
7. Style, beauty
8. Economy, profit
9. Curiosity

Cunningham and Cirssy (1972), analysed market segmentation by motivation and attitude, where 120 new compact car owners of the brands Mavericks, Volkswagens Toyotas and Renaults were studied. At the time of their study Maverick was the only American brand. The tested motivational and attitudinal variables were Status Concern, Conservation, attitude towards big business Dogmatism and attitude towards Foreign Products. All these were measured on a Likert type scale. Inverse factor analysis was used on motivational and personality variables.

The results indicated that on 4 of the 5 motivational variables, Maverick and Foreign Compact Car owners differed. Maverick owners were more Status Conscious, were Conservative more positive attitude towards big business and more Dogmatic than the foreign car owners. Attitude towards foreign products was more positive among foreign car owners.

Kassarjian and Cohen (1967) conducted a study on cognitive dissonance on Surgeon General's findings linked cigarette smoking with lung cancer and other medical abnormalities. To study the effect of this a public opinion study was conducted on 221 smokers on a probability basis. The results were surprising.

Although one might expect that since heavy smokers were in a greater state of dissonance, they would attempt to stop. But the influence of persuasive communication on smoking behaviour was so high, that there was no significant difference at all the smoking behaviour.

Mason Haire (1950) used a modified Thematic apperception test to find out attitude towards Nescafe (instant coffee). He prepared two identical shopping lists with 7 items on each list.

The only difference in the list was that while the first list contained Nescafe Instant coffee (List-1) and the second list contained Maxwell House Coffee Drip grind (list 2). 100 women were to write their comments on the women who bought list 1 items and women who bought list 2 items. According to the list result list 2 women were described as Practical, Frugal etc. List 1 with instant coffee women were described as Lazy, Lonely, a person who never thinks ahead very far.

In a study by Wilson (1971) to find out on what people think of housewives who use instant coffee, 199 housewives were selected and they had to imagine and associate regular coffee users and instant coffee users. The respondents associated instant coffee users as housewives who are Lazy, Dislike to cook, who likes to sleep late and poor cooks. In addition, thrifty housewives were associated more with instant coffee users than spend thrifts.

Pan American Coffee Bureau did a research to learn about coffee buying and consumption. Although the research started with highly unstructured interviews, at successive stages it proceeded to structured questionnaires.

Depth interviews were conducted with trained interviewers. Even coffee history was collected. The number of subjects was 200. Taste tests were conducted with 128 respondents to learn the acceptability of coffee of different strengths. Coffee advertisements test was administered on 217 respondents. Some personality of coffee was revealed e.g. Coffee is intimate, coffee is a symbol of grown up, relaxation, etc.

Newman (1958) had cited a study which aimed to know the reasons for people, to go for automobile insurance and the qualities looked for in an automobile insurance. The techniques adapted were snowball interviews with the help of tape recorders and projective techniques like incomplete sentences, narrative projection and balloon test. Some of the generalisations that had come of this study were 'insurance is fatherly', 'insurance is ritual', 'insurance provides means of control over the future.'.

Motivations for owning an automobile and selecting a particular brand was also studied by means of projective techniques: incomplete sentences, cartoon, TAT, attitude and opinion questions ratings 352 men and women who had bought new cars or potential buyers were interviewed.

The findings revealed that owning automobile was a social symbol and it expressed individual personality. It also indicated owners social status and the nature of social participation. For Americans automobiles expressed self-assertiveness and affiliation some of the motives revealed through this study were:

- i) the wish to be conservative or reserves,
- ii) the wish to be sociable or participant, and
- iii) the wish for attention.

Sheth (1973) had criticised the uses of motivation research to study consumer behaviour. He had categorised consumer motivation research into 3 sections and had given his views.

(i) subjective, qualitative type of research, borrowed from psychiatry and unstructured depth interviews and group interviews are more liberally used.

(ii) the second type is not as subjective; it uses quantitative methods to measure consumption behaviour, personality profile etc., with the help of standard personality batteries like EPPS, MMPI etc. Most of the studies are just repetitive.

(iii) the third type utilises the methodology of clinical psychology, but the theory part of same is neglected.

Though Motivation Research has been criticised for various reasons as mentioned above, motivation still tends to be the corner stone for the success of marketing.

Survey of literature regarding motivation show that motivation is a complex phenomenon needing further exploration. While studying consumer behaviour, often researchers tended to use more of Personality instruments for assessing motivation. Most of the work in the area of motivation has been to classify motives and developing theories of motivation.

Motivation, though tend to determine the decision making process, is an area needing further exploration. The present study has made an attempt to employ a tool measuring motivational variables in the institutional (organizational) setup. Since, the students of the university (Organization) served as the sample for the present study, it was therefore assumed that the instrument measuring motivation in the organizational setup would yield a meaningful results.

#### 2.4.0. PERCEPTION (ATTRIBUTIONAL PROCESS)

The present investigation has used the Attribution process for studying the perceptual variables. A brief summary of the literature regarding the attribution process, attribution theories and the findings of a handful of researches in the area of Attribution and purchase behaviour is presented below.

Attribution theory is not a single theory, but an evolution of theories that form a set of major developments in the area of causal attribution. Attribution theory can be divided into three foci: person-perception(Heider, Jones and Davis, Kelley): self-perception (Bem, Kelley), and object-perception (Kelley).

Heider's primary interest has been in the area of interpersonal relations, focusing specifically on how individuals understand and attempt to validate their perceptions of others, i.e., person-perception, while, Bem's theory of self-perception indicates that people will apply the same sort of attributional principles to their own behaviour that they use with others. Through this process, they are able to understand and infer how they feel and why they have carried out certain actions.

#### 2.4.1. CAUSES OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE

Many of the things people do represent attempts to achieve a goal or accomplish a task. The problems to be solved are sometimes intellectual, sometimes physical and sometimes social. Many of the things people do, in other words, end in success or failure.

In attempting to explain why someone succeeds or fails at a given task, the implicit psychologist employs a number of implicit rules.

In addition to the distinction between internal and external causes, a distinction can be made between causes that are stable over time and those that are variable, or likely to change over time. The stable-variable distinction is independent of the internal-external distinction. Stable causes can be either external or internal can be said for variable causes.

The stable-variable distinction in combination with the internal-external distinction provides a framework for specifying the potential causes of success and failure. This framework, shown in Figure 2.1, was first suggested by Bernard Weiner and his colleagues (Weiner, 1974).

As human beings search for order and meaning in their environment, they attempt to explain the causes of the events they observe. This quest to know and understand the world is the focus of attribution theory.

As Kelley (1973) defines it, "Attribution theory is a theory about how people make causal explanations, about how they answer questions beginning with why?" The theory attempts to describe the information people use in making causal inferences and how they use that information.

Attribution theory deals only with the processes by which attributions are derived from information input (Kelley 1973). It encompasses the cognitive sequence from stimulus manipulation to the attribution, but strictly speaking, does not treat the consequences of the attribution.

Kelley (1973) takes an even stronger stand by asserting that causal explanations play an important role in providing an impetus to action and in decisions among alternative courses of action. Therefore, it is this extension (i.e. behavioural consequences) of attribution theory that makes the study of how people attribute causes germane to the analysis of consumer decision making.

Table 2.4.1: Showing Potential Causes of Success and Failure

	Internal causes	External causes
Stable causes	Ability	Task difficulty
Variable causes	Effort	Luck or chance

Listed in the table are four potential causes of success or failure. Attribution to each of these four causes is based on different sources of information.

The amount of ability we attribute to a person depends largely on the person's degree of success at similar task on the past. In term of Kelley's model of attribution, high consistency leads to an ability attribution.

Another term from Kelley's model - consensus - is useful for understanding when ability is seen as the cause of success or failure. High ability, in other words, is attributed when the actor succeeds at a task at which most people fail; low ability is perceived as the cause of an actor's performance when he fails at tasks at which most other succeed.

Ability is a stable attribution; once a person has been labeled as having high or low ability, this label tends to stick--even if the person's degree of success changes drastically in the future.

An ability attribution, generates expectations for continued performance at the same level of success. Rather than revise one's ability estimates if these expectations are then contradicted, one tends to attribute the change in performance to a change in effort or to luck. Support for the persistence of an ability attribution is provided in a study of Edward Jones and his colleagues (1968).

Like ability, effort represents an internal locus of causation for causes and failure. Unlike ability, however, it is variable rather than stable. Effort is thus used to account for fluctuations in performance, particularly if the fluctuations correspond to changes in the incentive for success.

Task difficulty differs from ability in that it represents an external locus of causation, but like ability, it is considered to be a stable rather than a variable cause of success and failure. Ability is perceived to be the cause of success or failure when the person's performance is different from that of most other people, that is, when it is at variance with high consensus. But if a person's performance is consistent with high consensus, the performance is likely to be attributed to the difficulty (or ease) of the task.

Task difficulty, in fact, is a common attribution for our failures, whether in athletic endeavours, scholastic situations or social encounters.

Attributing a person's success or failure to luck is a curious phenomenon. In effect, the attributer is claiming that neither the person nor the difficulty of the task were important. The fact that it is such a common attribution suggests that quite often we simply cannot account for someone's successes or failures. Though we know that every outcome has a cause; but some causes are more subtle than others. Person or task-related causes are particularly difficult to identify when the pattern of successes and failures for a person is highly variable, appearing to be random.

Attribution theories explain how people come to understand the reasons behind their own and other's behaviour. One of the basic issues of attribution concerns whether a behaviour is due to the situation or to the disposition of the person being observed.

Since attribution theory was introduced into the consumer behaviour literature in the early 1970's (Settle, Faricy, and Warren 1971), it has been loosely applied and sometimes misinterpreted. Mizerski, Golden and Kernary, 1979 reviewed 34 articles focusing specifically on attribution theory in consumer behaviour.

Their conclusion indicate that, one of the most critical aspects in consumer-oriented attribution research is the choice of an attributional focus, i.e., object, person-or self-perception.

Many consumer behavior situations are not as clear, however, particularly when the study investigates interactions between perceptual areas. There may be a series of causal belief processes, e.g., causal chains (Brickman, Ryan, and Wortman 1975), involving several attributional focus. For example, the studies concerning how attributions about a source that provides product information affect perceptions (beliefs) about the product described may be approached in several ways. One would be to first apply principles of person-perception to assess beliefs concerning source credibility, and then to apply object-perception to judge the effect of others attributions on causal inferences and the ultimate beliefs formed about the product.

An alternative would be to utilize the object-perception paradigm from Kelley only, as Kelley's model specifically incorporates the way in which the opinion of other will affect object-perception.

The latter approach was used by Settle and Golden (1974b) in their investigation of the effects of disclaiming on advertisement claim believability; however, Hansen and Scott (1976) prescribe the former two-stage approach. Unfortunately, the theory does not provide clear rules for selecting an attributional of perceptual orientations may be best for some consumer situations.

Just as person-perception may influence object-perception, such as when investigating advertising and personal selling, the reverse might also be true. However, just because the perceptions of one entity influence the causal beliefs resulting from the attribution process for another entity, it does not necessarily follow that one is focusing on a two-stage causal chain. For example, several studies have focused on the way in which object-perception mediates person-perception, focusing on the dispositional or trait attributions made about a consumer (actor), based on information about the brand purchased.

Settle and Gibby (1972) investigated person-perception as influenced by the brand of automobile purchased, while Jolibert and Peterson (1976) investigated person-perception as influenced by the accessories purchased with the automobile.

While object perception, followed by person-perception, has received the most attention, investigations into self-perception, where attribution theory is the primary conceptual framework, are relatively few. Two studies reflect the research in self-perception. Yalch (1975) investigated the behavioral and attitudinal influence of experimentally induced self-attribution, while Swinyard and Ray (1977) focused on the impact of labeling on the effectiveness of personal selling.

Although person-perception has been used to investigate attributions from product cues to other persons, self-perception has not been used to investigate the attributions made to the self from product purchase cues. The study of self-perception, with its potential interactions with other attributional foci, suggests the same caveats as that for person- and object-perception.

In general, investigators have inferred self attributions on the basis of acceptance or non-acceptance of self-perception predictions. Sternthal, Scott and Dholakia (1976), Scott (1976; 1977), Reingen and Kernan (1977; 1979), Reingen (1977)a,b), and Tybout (1978) all report at least equivocal support for self-perception hypotheses regarding the effectiveness of foot-in-the-door. Scott (1977) explicitly measured self-attributions, but these measures offered no conclusive evidence.

Finally, attribution theory is not a single theory, but several related theories that provide a common approach to a large class of questions related to the cognitive processes. The breadth of the theory, coupled with the inevitable attempts to define and refine it, allow this approach to be applicable to a wide range of consumer situations. Thus, attribution theory may be classified as an "epittheory" (Jolibert 1975).

The present investigation has employed the Attributional process in measuring the perceptual variables. As stated before, attribution has not been much exploited in the consumer research, but this study aimed to identify the attributional process and use them as the Perceptual measures in determining the purchase of products.

Thus, the vast literature related to consumer behaviour showed that personality has been much explored and studied and at the same time inviting criticisms for using the type of instruments. Since most of the existing instruments were not designed nor developed for the study of consumer behaviour, the results and findings tended to be not consistent. Similarly, very often personality tools were employed for assessing motivational variables in the absence of instruments to measure motivational dimensions.

Thus the attempts in the area of consumer behaviour indicated that further explorations with relevant instruments to assess consumer behaviour would yield better and more meaningful results. Hence, the present study makes an attempt to employ only those instruments that were considered relevant for the study of consumer behaviour.