

PROFILING BOTSWANA CONSUMERS OF FURNITURE, APPLIANCES
AND ELECTRONICS: DEMOGRAPHICS, LIFESTYLE, VALUES,
SHOPPING MOTIVATION, PRODUCT ATTITUDE AND
INFORMATION SOURCES

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

Retail is an indispensable part of modern human life, with the acquisition of furniture, appliances and electronics (FAE) integrally linked to the improvement of the standard of living of most consumers. FAE retail in Southern Africa has been under pressure in recent years, with the collapse of the biggest chain and store closures in other chains. Under these circumstances, having a better understanding of and insights into consumer behaviour could constitute a competitive advantage for a furniture retail chain operating in this market. Improved segmentation and profiling of consumers could result in better product positioning and marketing and promotions tailored to consumer needs.

Despite the importance of FAE, published research on this category specifically is rare and seemingly non-existent in Botswana, which, despite its small population, is an attractive target market and deserving of more research.

The main objectives of this study were to determine to what extent FAE consumers in Botswana could be clustered and/or segmented according to demographics, lifestyle (activities, interests, and opinions), values, shopping motivation, product attitude and information sources; and to profile the different clusters of FAE consumers.

The study was exploratory, quantitative, and descriptive. A non-random convenience sample was drawn from consumers who had made an FAE purchase in one of the nationwide stores within a large Botswana retail chain during the data collection period. The store intercept method was used for data collection, using a survey instrument consisting of three sections, namely section A, a general section (type of product, price paid, payment options and product attitude); section B that dealt with lifestyle, values and shopping motivation, and section C that contained questions on demographics. A sample of 343 respondents realised ($n = 343$). Data analysis included descriptive statistics, reliability analyses, principal component analyses, a clustering analysis aiming to identify FAE segments or clusters, and concluded with ANOVA analyses to determine the differences between the identified clusters.

Consumer motivation is commonly classified based on the distinction between utilitarian (functional, task focused) and hedonic (experiential, pleasurable, sensory) consumption needs. The main findings indicated that the respondents could be clustered by differences in shopping

motivation and were predominantly functionally motivated. Four clusters were identified, namely Moderate Shoppers (37%); Pragmatic Shoppers (26%); Shopping Avoiders (20%) and Involved Shoppers (16%). The Involved Shoppers, being more hedonically motivated than the other clusters, had a higher preference for a hedonic prize, and were more prone to impulse buying. The clusters also differed on the time spent from making the decision to buy to the actual purchase, with the Moderate Shoppers, the youngest in age, taking the longest time.

The findings and recommendations provide guidance to Botswana FAE retail management about where to focus their efforts to improve the shopping experience of their consumers, and how to target marketing practices to fulfil the diverse needs of their consumers. The limitations of the study are noted and future research possibilities are highlighted.

OPSOMMING

Die kleinhandel het 'n onontbeerlike deel van 'n moderne leefwyse geword en die aankoop van meubels, toestelle en elektroniese toerusting (MTE) word geassosieer met 'n verhoogde lewenstandaard vir die meeste verbruikers. In Suider-Afrika het handel in MTE's in die onlangse verlede druk ervaar met die ineenstorting van die grootste kettinggroep en die sluit van verskeie ander meubelwinkels. Teen hierdie agtergrond kan groter insigte in verbruikersgedrag 'n mededingingsvoordeel in die mark vir 'n meubelkettinggroep inhou. Verbeterde segmentering en beskrywing van verbruikers kan aanleiding gee tot beter produkposisionering en bemerking en promosies wat pasgemaak is vir die behoeftes van verbruikers.

Hoewel die aankoop van MTE's belangrik is, is navorsing wat tot nog toe oor hierdie onderwerp gepubliseer is skaars en grootliks onontgin, veral met betrekking tot Botswana. Ten spyte van sy klein bevolking is hierdie land 'n aantreklike teikenmark wat meer navorsing verdien.

Die hoofdoelwitte van hierdie studie was om vas te stel tot watter mate MTE-verbruikers in Botswana gegroepeer en /of gesegmenteer kan word volgens demografie, leefstyl (aktiwiteite, belangstellings en menings), waardes, aankoopmotivering, houding teenoor die produk en inligtingsbronne en om die verskillende verbruikersgroeperings te beskryf.

Hierdie studie is verkennend, kwantitatief en beskrywend van aard. 'n Nie-ewekansige gerieflikheidsteekproef is by 'n landswye kettingwinkel in Botswana verkry van verbruikers wat MTE-aankope gedoen het tydens die periode van data-insameling. Verbruikers is in winkels versoek om aan die studie deel te neem. Die vraelys het uit drie dele bestaan. Afdeling A het gehandel met algemene kwessies soos tipe produk, prys betaal, betaalkeuses en houding teenoor produk; Afdeling B met leefstyl, waardes en aankoopmotivering en afdeling C, met demografie. Die grootte van die steekproef wat gerealiseer kon word, was 343 ($n = 343$). Data-analises het onder andere bestaan uit beskrywende statistiek, betroubaarheidstoetsing, hoofkomponentanalises, 'n groepeeringsanalise wat ten doel gehad het om MTE-segmente of groepeerings te identifiseer en 'n ANOVA-analise om die verskille tussen die groepeerings wat geïdentifiseer is, te bepaal.

Verbruikersmotivering word normaalweg geklassifiseer na aanleiding van die onderskeid tussen utilitaristiese (funksioneel en taakgerigte) of hedonistiese (ervaring-, plesier- en

sensoriesgerigte) verbruikersbehoefte. Die hoofbevinding is dat die respondente gegroepeer kan word volgens verskille in aankoopmotivering en dat verbruikers hoofsaaklik funksioneel gemotiveerd is. Vier groeperings is geïdentifiseer, naamlik “Gematigde Kopers” (37%), “Pragmatiese Kopers” (26%), “Vermydingskopers” (20%) en “Betrokke kopers” (16%). Die “Betrokke Kopers” was meer hedonisties gemotiveerd as die ander groeperings, het ’n groter voorkeur gehad vir hedonistiese pryse en was meer geneig tot impulsiewe aankope. Die groeperings het ook verskil met betrekking tot die tyd wat hulle spandeer het vandat hulle besluit het om die aankoop te doen tot die tyd van die aankoop self. Die “Gematigde Kopers” was die jongste ouderdomsgroep en het die langste geneem om die aankoop te doen.

Die bevindinge en aanbevelings van die studie gee riglyne aan MTE-kleinhandelbestuur in Botswana oor wat hulle kan doen om verbruikers se koopervaring te verbeter en hoe om meer optimaal te bemark om aan verskillende verbruikersbehoefte te voldoen. Ten slotte word die beperkings van die studie vermeld met spesifieke verwysing na moontlikhede vir toekomstige navorsing.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	African Development Bank
AIO	Activities, Interests and Opinions
AMPS	All Media Product Survey
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BWP	Botswana Pula
CC	Childless Marriage
CCB	Consumer Complaint Behaviour
CDs	Compact Discs
CLV	Customer Life time Value
CSI	Consumer Style Inventory
DESC	Departmental Ethics Screening Committee
DM	Delayed Marriage
DPVN	Du Preez, Visser and Van Noordwyk (model)
DVD	Digital Video Disc
EBM	Engel-Blackwell-Miniard
ELM	Elaboration Likelihood Model
EN	Empty Nest
ES	Establishment Survey
ESCs	Extended Service Contracts
FAE	Furniture, Appliances and Electronics
FLC	Family Life Cycle
FMCG	Fast-Moving-Consumer Goods
FRL	Food Related Lifestyle
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
Gen-Y	Generation Y
HED	Hedonic
HED/UT	Hedonic/Utilitarian
HLC	Household Life Cycle
HMM	Hawkins and Mothersbaugh model
HRL	Housing-Related Lifestyle

IMF	International Monetary Fund
LCA	Latent Class Analysis
LOV	List of Values
LPS	Limited Problem Solving
LSM	Living Standard Measures
NAB	National Association of Broadcasters
NW	Newly-Wed
PC	Personal Computer
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
Pula	Botswana Currency
REC	Research Ethics Committee
RPS	Routine Problem-Solving
RVS	Rokeach's value system
SAARF	South African Audience Research Foundation
SACU	Southern African Customs Union
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
STP	Segmenting, Targeting and Positioning
SVI	Schwartz Value Inventory
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
US	United States
USA	United States of America
UT	Utilitarian
VALS	Value and Lifestyle
VCR	Videocassette Recorder
WRMCA	Wholesale, Retail and Motor Trade, Catering and Accommodation
ZAR	South African Currency

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Why a study on retail? Worldwide, the retail trade is a major contributor to employment and the economy. In Botswana, trade, hotels and restaurants contributed 20.7 per cent to total gross domestic product (GDP) in the first half of 2018, the biggest industry and ahead of mining (16.3%), as well as financial and business services (14.2%) (Statistics Botswana, 2018b, p. 10). Moreover, wholesale and retail trade employed over 12 per cent of the total Botswana workforce in December 2017, and is the biggest employer in the private sector (Statistics Botswana, 2018a, p. 6). This is not much different from South Africa, where the wholesale, retail and motor trade, catering and accommodation (WRMCA) is the third largest industry, after finance (22.3%) and general government services (16.8%), contributing 15.0 per cent to GDP during 2017 (Statistics South Africa [Stats SA], 2018a, p. 8). The WRMCA trade is also the second largest employer in the formal sector, employing just fewer than 20 per cent of South Africans, after community and social services at 22.7 per cent (Stats SA, 2018b, p. 2).

According to statistics published by Stats SA (2018c), the South African retail trade comprises six major categories, as indicated in Figure 1. Unfortunately, comparable figures are not available for Botswana.

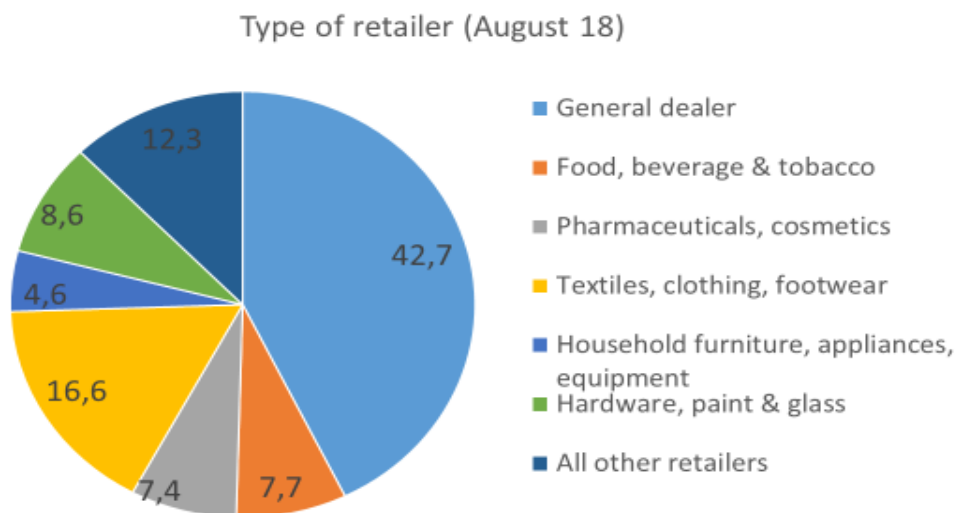


Figure 1. SA Retail Trade Sales – August 2018

(Compiled from Stats SA, 2018c, p. 2)

At 4.6 per cent of total retail trade, household furniture, appliances and electronics (FAE) is the smallest of the six retail categories that are separately reported. The retail trade is dominated by general dealers – which include grocers and supermarkets (42.7%) – and apparel, consisting of clothing, textiles and footwear (16.6%). Despite its relatively small size, FAE retail remains an important category that has been fairly consistent over the past thirteen years, having made a similar contribution (5.8%) to total retail in 2005 (Stats SA, 2015b). The ownership of FAE products is an accepted indicator of wealth – in both Botswana and South Africa household ownership of certain durables such as a television, fridge or cell phones is measured to provide an indication of wealth status or standard of living (Statistics Botswana, 2014; South African Audience Research Foundation [SAARF], 2012).

According to Makgosa and Sangodoyin (2018), Botswana's retail sector has grown at a remarkable rate over the last number of years, with the most attractive categories being clothing, accessories, food, beverages, furniture and home appliances. Kearney (2015, p. 2) argues that retail in Sub-Saharan Africa is still the “next big thing” and ranks Botswana second in the whole of Africa in attractiveness for retail development.

Published research on FAE retail specifically is surprisingly scarce. Burnsed and Hodges (2014) argue that this is because the primary attention is focused on the textiles and apparel industry. As is the case with groceries/fast-moving-consumer goods (FMCG), this is understandable, given the far greater contribution of these segments to the economy. However, regardless of the reason, the FAE category remains an important and deserving sector for research, given its contribution to the total economy and to the fulfilment of consumers' product needs.

If global published research on FAE specifically is limited, it is even rarer in South Africa, and apparently non-existent in neighbouring Botswana. This scarcity could arguably be attributed to the relatively small population of Botswana (2,335m), compared to the population of 57,420m of South Africa, which is the fourth largest of the 45 countries that form part of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), after Nigeria, Ethiopia and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), whilst Botswana is in 35th position (International Monetary Fund [IMF], 2018). At first glance, this makes Botswana unattractive for consumer-focused producers, marketers and retailers alike. However, the Botswana per capita GDP in USD is \$8,167, which is the fifth highest in SSA after that of the Seychelles, Equatorial Guinea, Mauritius and Gabon, and higher than the

\$6,560 of South Africa, in sixth position. If purchasing power parity is considered, the GDP per capita in Botswana is \$17,888 – still ranked fifth in SSA – with that of South Africa at \$13,775, ranked sixth (IMF, 2018). The people of Botswana are thus relatively affluent. Seen against the background of their stable democracy, high ranking on Transparency International's 2017 Corruption Perceptions Index (Transparency International, 2018) (ranked 34th out of 180 in 2017, compared to South Africa's rank of 71st), and close proximity to South Africa, Botswana is an attractive target market, and thus the Botswana consumer market segment is deserving of more research.

In summary, three main reasons are advanced to motivate this research: Firstly, it is argued that the retail trade in general is an indispensable part of human life, which would always benefit from more scientific knowledge; secondly that, within retail, the FAE sector is specifically important to the improvement of consumers' standard of living and their acquisition of wealth; and thirdly, that Botswana, despite its relatively small population, is an attractive market to research. The context of the study will be discussed next.

1.1 Context of the study

The furniture retail industry in Southern Africa has been under pressure for the last number of years. In August 2014, the failure of African Bank led to the demise of Ellerines, then the biggest furniture retailer in Southern Africa. At the time, Ellerines had 1,025 stores, followed by JD Group with 960, and Lewis with 642. How fiercely competitive and overtraded the industry was, can be deduced by comparing the total of 2,627 furniture stores of these three retail chains at the time with the 2,800 stores in total operated by Shoprite, Pick-n-Pay and Spar, whose combined sales were more than five times that of the whole of furniture retail (Stafford, 2014, par. 4). In February 2016 the JD Group, which made a loss of R2.1 billion in 2014, announced their intention to restructure and reduce the number of furniture stores by 265. Paul Griffiths, the CEO, cited difficult economic conditions, exacerbated by the decline of mining and manufacturing, the weakening exchange rate, increased unemployment, high levels of consumer indebtedness and debt defaults as reasons for the decision (Griffiths, 2016).

In a region where the middle class is growing, combined with increased access to electricity, the Southern African FAE industry, despite its difficulties, still offers growth opportunities, especially in certain product classes such as electronics and white goods, as demonstrated by

Table 1 (Stats SA, 2012; Statistics Botswana, 2014; Statistics Botswana, 2016). While the level of ownership of cell phones and computers is very similar in South Africa and Botswana, far fewer households in Botswana possess fridges and televisions than in the neighbouring country, possibly indicating that the potential for sales growth of these two products specifically exceeds that of South Africa.

Table 1.

Percentage of SA and Botswana Households with Household Goods in Working Order

Product	South Africa			Botswana		
	2001	2007	2011	2001	2006	2011
Cell phone	31,9	72,7	88,9	n/d	63,7	89,7
Computer (desk & laptop)	8,5	15,6	21,4	3,9	7,7	20,8
Fridge	49,9	63,9	68,4	n/d	n/d	43,5
Landline telephone	23,9	18,5	14,5	33,5	14,6	10,8
Radio	72,1	76,5	67,5	67,6	72,3	64,5
TV	52,6	62,5	75,5	25,1	41,7	54,1

Note. n/d = no data

(Compiled from Stats SA, 2012; Statistics Botswana, 2014; Statistics Botswana, 2016)

Whilst the Botswana market segment is viable, the current operating conditions across Southern Africa are difficult. Under these circumstances, having a better understanding of and insights into FAE consumers in Botswana could constitute a competitive advantage for a furniture retail chain operating in this market. Improved insights into, and successful clustering or segmentation of consumers could result in better product positioning and marketing and promotions tailored to consumer needs.

How could a retailer go about improving their insights into and understanding of the behaviour of their consumers? At the outset, retailers should take cognisance of the complexity of consumer behaviour. Consumer behaviour can be studied from various perspectives, some of which, for example consumer decision processing, buyer behaviour, store patronage and perception of store image, are specifically relevant to retailers. To improve the understanding of consumer behaviour, a selection of models illustrating these different perspectives will be discussed briefly in the next section.

1.2 Models of consumer behaviour

Whilst many different models that attempt to explain consumer behaviour exist, four models that describe consumer behaviour from different perspectives are discussed next. For retailers, these models all contribute to the understanding of their consumers' behaviour.

1.2.1 The Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model of decision processing behaviour (EBM Model)

The consumer decision processing model, also known as the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard or EBM Model, was originally developed in 1968, building on Nicosia's model of buyer behaviour (Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013). The EBM model is a general consumer decision processing model. The EBM Model has been subjected to numerous revisions, the latest in 2006 (refer to [Appendix 1](#)). A seven-point decision-making process underpins the model structure, namely: 1) need recognition, followed by 2) a search of information both internally and externally, 3) the evaluation of alternatives, 4) purchase, 5) consumption, 6) post-purchase evaluation, and finally, 7) divestment. Two main sets of variables influence these decisions, namely stimuli received and processed by the consumer combined with memory of previous experiences, and external variables in the form of either individual differences or environmental influences (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel as cited in Bray, 2008).

Whilst the consumption process depicted is intuitively pleasing, the linear nature of the model leads to criticism, as the steps in the process do not necessarily occur in a set order and may occur concurrently (Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013). The fairly mechanistic approach is moreover regarded as too restrictive to deal with the vast array of diverse consumer decision situations that occur. Furthermore, the fact that the environmental and individual variables are deemed to impact only on certain steps of the model ignores the possibility that they may have a wider impact. Finally, the role that individual motives may play in purchase decisions is only mentioned in the need recognition state, neglecting an important area of consideration (Bray, 2008). Despite these criticisms, Geringer, Patterson and Forsyth (2014) and Tordera (2013) confirm that the model remains a highly respected decision-making model in the consumer behaviour field, balancing theoretical and practical constructs.

The next model, the Howard-Sheth model, turns the focus to buyer behaviour.

1.2.2 Howard-Sheth model of buyer behaviour

Howard and Sheth's 1969 model of buyer behaviour was developed from an earlier 1963 model, and was extended in 1973 to include exogenous variables (Bray, 2008). The model depicts an information flow through four major components, namely: 1) inputs (marketing and social stimuli), 2) perceptual constructs (attention and information search), 3) learning constructs (motives, choice criteria, brand comprehension, leading to an attitude, confidence, intention, and satisfaction), and 4) outputs (purchase, intention, attitude, brand comprehension and attention). Exogenous variables constitute the fifth element. These include the background of the consumer; his/her personality traits; the importance of the purchase; reference groups; financial status; and time available. These variables are not regarded as being part of the information flow itself, but included as an influence on the perceptual and learning constructs (Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013). The model is depicted in [Appendix 2](#).

Howard and Sheth were the first to link the problem-solving behaviour of the consumer to their attitude towards a product or brand, which was largely determined by their knowledge and familiarity with such a product or brand. Where the buyer has no prior knowledge of the brand or product and no strong preferences, s/he will rely on extensive problem solving (EPS) behaviour that results in extensive information seeking and lengthy deliberations to reduce brand ambiguity. Where the buyer is more familiar with a product or brand, the process will become less conscious, with limited problem-solving behaviour (LPS), which will eventually lead to routine problem-solving or automatic response behaviour (RPS) (Seborro, 2011).

Milner and Rosenstreich (2013) posit that, whilst the model shows the complexity of the buyer's decision-making process, this very comprehensiveness creates considerable difficulties in operationalising it. Further criticisms centre on the linear nature of the model, which does not consider that buyers do not always follow one step after the other, take all steps or complete the process. The model also does not allow for joint decision-making, which is common for high-value goods (Bray, 2008; Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013). However, the model remains a valuable conceptual tool in the field of consumer behaviour.

Where the Howard-Sheth model deals with buyer behaviour in general, Darden's model focuses on patronage behaviour and will be discussed next.

1.2.3 Darden's patronage model of consumer behaviour

Darden's 1981 patronage model of consumer behaviour is depicted in [Appendix 3](#). The model consists of two sections or phases: In the first phase, lifestyles, terminal values, family life cycle and social class are regarded as antecedents to shopping orientations. Together with instrumental values and media habits, these antecedents also impact on the importance of store attributes and the evoked store set. Phase two of the model is triggered when a stimulus sets the needs queue in motion. Once the consumer is aware of a need, the information search is initiated, which evokes a specific set of stores, and this set, in turn, influences store attribute importance, leading to intentions of patronage and patronage behaviour (Welker, 2004). For instance, should a consumer need a new television, he or she may consider Carnival, Furnmart, Home Corp, House & Home and Supreme (all sizeable Botswana FAE retailers), and depending on what attributes of these stores are considered important by the consumer, he or she may ultimately decide which store to patronise.

Darden's model was successfully operationalised in research conducted on apparel shoppers by Shim and Kotsiopulos (1992a; 1992b), as well as Welker (2004), and is regarded as a useful tool in understanding patronage behaviour.

The final model that is presented in this section investigates store image.

1.2.4 Du Preez, Visser and Van Noordwyk's conceptual theoretical model of store image and related consumer behaviour (DPVN model)

South African researchers Du Preez, Visser and Janse van Noordwyk (2008) proposed a conceptual theoretical model of store image and related consumer behaviour. It is depicted in [Appendix 4](#). The DPVN model delineates the domain of store image. The interaction between store attributes and store image is central to the model. Store image is formed by consumers' perceptions of all the different attributes of a store. The model employs seven different consumer (behaviour) variables as independent variables of perceived store image, namely: demographics, psychographics, socio-cultural factors (all of these mediated by shopping orientations and information sources), situational influences, socio-psychological, store-specific and product-specific variables. The nine different dependent variables include attitude, approach/avoidance behaviour, emotional state, consumer satisfaction, patronage behaviour,

store loyalty, patronage preference, decision-making, and product-specific variables. It is a useful and comprehensive model of the store image construct. Since store image is closely linked to the retail store brand (Du Preez et al., 2008; Möller & Herm, 2013), retailers will benefit from being more aware and having a better understanding of all the variables at play.

From the brief explanation of the four different models, it is clear that consumer behaviour is complex and multi-dimensional, with multiple variables involved. Armed with an increased understanding of the complexity of the behaviour of their consumers, a retailer should then turn their focus to consumer profiling and market segmentation.

1.3 Benefits of consumer profiling and segmentation

Why is it important for retailers and marketers to profile and segment their consumers? Market segmentation is regarded as crucial to business success by many writers, and it has long been considered a fundamental concept in marketing (Dibb & Simkin, 2001; Morton, Anable & Nelson, 2017; Venter, Wright & Dibb, 2015; Wind, 1978). Parment (2013, p. 189) describes finding segments or groups of consumers that have strong and similar bonds as akin to finding the 'Holy Grail' in marketing: when such homogeneity exists, marketers can offer the same or very similar communication programs, service, product and distribution to a sizeable number of potential customers who are more likely to respond in a similar manner. Market segmentation "drives more precise targeting and positioning, which ultimately increases the creation of customer value" (Campbell, Ferraro & Sands, 2014, p. 435). Furthermore, being able to understand the specific needs and requirements of different segments of consumers would place companies in a position where they could achieve a competitive advantage within existing market conditions, while failure to do so could result in a loss of market share (Dibb & Simkin, 2010; Muhamed, Melewar, Faridah & Alwi, 2012). Moreover, Dibb and Simkin (2001) argue that grouping customers with similar buying behaviour and needs into segments makes it easier to decide who are the most appropriate customers to target, thereby optimally allocating finite resources. Foxall, Goldsmith and Brown (2009) agree, observing that market segmentation allows a producer, marketer or retailer to select one or two target markets on which to focus, making the allocation of corporate resources more efficient. Segmentation is thus key to marketing effectiveness and efficiency (Barry & Weinstein, 2009; Parment, 2013). Most companies have limited resources, and can thus not pursue all the consumer segments

identified. Furthermore, not all segments are viable or profitable – there is general agreement that an effective target segment should be identifiable, sizeable, accessible/reachable, stable or growing and consistent with the marketer’s objective (Dibb & Simkin, 2001; Dibb & Simkin, 2009; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014).

Market segmentation also makes the marketing strategy more effective, because it is aimed at specific and identifiable groups of consumers as opposed to a diverse collection of individuals (Dibb & Simkin, 2001; Dibb & Simkin, 2009; Dibb & Simkin, 2010; Foxall et al., 2009, Parment, 2013). Schiffman and Kanuk (2014) mention that segmentation research is also commonly used to identify the most appropriate media for reaching the target audience. Segmentation furthermore enables producers to avoid head-on competition in the market by differentiating their products and services based on the distinct needs of consumers (Yankelovich & Meer, 2006).

From the foregoing, the main benefits of market segmentation can be summarised as follows:

- It can increase consumer value by understanding consumer needs;
- It enables the selection of profitable target markets;
- It leads to better product positioning;
- It can help to establish the correct media to use to reach the target market; and
- It assists in new product development.

The importance of segmentation is generally accepted by academics, marketers, and retailers. In a review of 205 articles on shoppers published over a 60-year period, Jones and Runyan (2016) reported that 92 or almost 50 per cent dealt with segmentation, reflective of its significance. However, successful segmentation is not an easy task: In 2009, an issue of the *Journal of Marketing Management* was dedicated to addressing the divide between marketing theory and practice, and reported that market segmentation was regarded as one of four “hot topics” of concern by marketing professionals, together with sustainability, digital marketing and employee engagement (Dibb & Simkin, 2009, p. 220). Several years later, Venter et al. (2015) lamented that the value that practitioners gain from applying marketing approaches such as segmentation often remains unclear in practice. Dibb and Simkin (2009) surveyed academics and practitioners to identify their research priorities and reported that both groups

allocated the highest priority to research on segmentation variables. This included questions on the choice of variables; finding more cost-effective variables; which new variables to include in segmentation models; generation segmentation; divergent families as a segmentation group; geodemographic segmentation; and cross-cultural, ethnic and cross-country segmentation. The choice of variables to include in the research is thus important.

To decide which variables to include in the study, the different consumer behaviour models discussed in section 1.2 were subjected to deductive reasoning to determine which variables were common to all or most of the models. These variables were subsequently compared to the variables proposed by Wind (1978, p. 320) for consumer studies done to improve the general understanding of a market (benefits sought, purchase decision, product purchase, usage patterns, needs, brand loyalty and switching patterns or a combination thereof); and for advertising decisions (benefits sought, media usage, psychographic/lifestyle; purchase/usage patterns or a combination thereof). A conceptual framework of consumer behaviour in general, which could be used by FAE retailers, was compiled in this manner. In a region where the paucity of consumer information in the public domain is evident, such a framework could add value. This theoretical framework for profiling Botswana FAE consumers will be presented next.

1.4 Theoretical framework: profiling Botswana FAE consumers

When studying consumer behaviour, researchers are confronted with the question of which variables to include (Díaz, Gómez, Molina & Santos, 2018; Wind, 1978). As discussed in section 1.3, consumer behaviour models from different perspectives were studied to determine which variables they had in common, as it is argued that these could be regarded as pertinent to reach the objectives of this study.

Since consumer purchases lead to retailer turnover and ultimately profits, purchase behaviour was included as the dependent variable - specifically the type of product bought, the price and whether the product was bought cash or on credit. Purchase behaviour is commonly used as dependent variable in segmentation studies (Geringer et al., 2014; Tordera, 2013; Wind, 1978). Venter et al. (2015) reports that the origins of the consumer segmentation concept lie in economic pricing theory, which suggests that maximum profit levels are achieved when pricing levels discriminate between segments (Wind, 1978). Even though price differentiation is not

the objective of this study, the statement supports the view that price is an important variable to include in a study of consumer behaviour. The inclusion of the type of purchase (cash or credit) was motivated by the fact that credit purchases are an important part of the retail chain's revenue and better knowledge of credit consumers can be valuable (Erasmus & Mathunjwa, 2011).

To select the independent variables, a scientifically justifiable decision had to be made about which variables would be best suited to profile and then segment FAE consumers. Traditionally, the most common segmentation criteria were demographic and geographic segmentation (Díaz et al., 2018; Mohsen & Dacko, 2013). Demographics are also often used as descriptors of segments (Morton et al., 2017; Wind, 1978). Demographics were thus included in the study, using the comprehensive list contained in the DPVN model discussed in section 1.2.4 (Du Preez et al., 2008). Since behavioural and psychographic criteria have been found to outperform demographics in describing the purchasing behaviour of customers in diverse industries, the lifestyles and values of the FAE consumers were also researched to profile consumers and to establish whether consumer segments differ based on these variables (Díaz et al., 2018; Ekinci, Uray & Ülengin, 2014; Hattingh, Russo, Sun-Basorun & Van Wamelen, 2012).

Furthermore, shopping motivation as a variable is central in studies that address consumer profiles, as depicted in the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard (EBM) and Howard-Sheth models and numerous other studies (Bray, 2008; Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000; Hartman, Shim, Barber & O'Brien, 2006; Kim, Lee & Park, 2014; Milner & Rosenstreich, 2013; O'Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001; Teed et al, 2010; Voss, Spangenberg & Grohmann, 2003; Yim, Yoo, Sauer & Seo, 2014). Another prominent variable is attitude (included in the EBM, Howard-Sheth and DPVN models). Whilst attitude can be defined and operationalised in a number of different ways, in this study it refers to the consumer's attitude toward the product purchased. Product attitude is operationalised as the consumer's familiarity with the product, as well as whether they regard the product as functional or hedonic or a combination of both (Eisenbeiss, Wilken, Skiera & Cornelissen, 2015; Im, Bhat & Lee, 2015).

Information search and/or information sources together with situational influences (included in all the models mentioned to earlier) may influence individual differences in patronage or purchase behaviour (Chang, Fang & Huang, 2015b; Singh, Ratchford & Prasad, 2014). Whilst a

number of different situational influences can affect behaviour, the focus of this study was on the time dimension and the nature of decision making (joint-decision making) (Cross & Gilly, 2014; Gentry, Commuri & Yun, 2003; Viswanathan & Jain, 2013; Yavas, Babakus & Delener, 1994).

Subsequently, a simplified conceptual theoretical framework to profile Botswana FAE consumers was proposed to guide the profiling of Botswana consumers for the purpose of this study (refer to Figure 2).

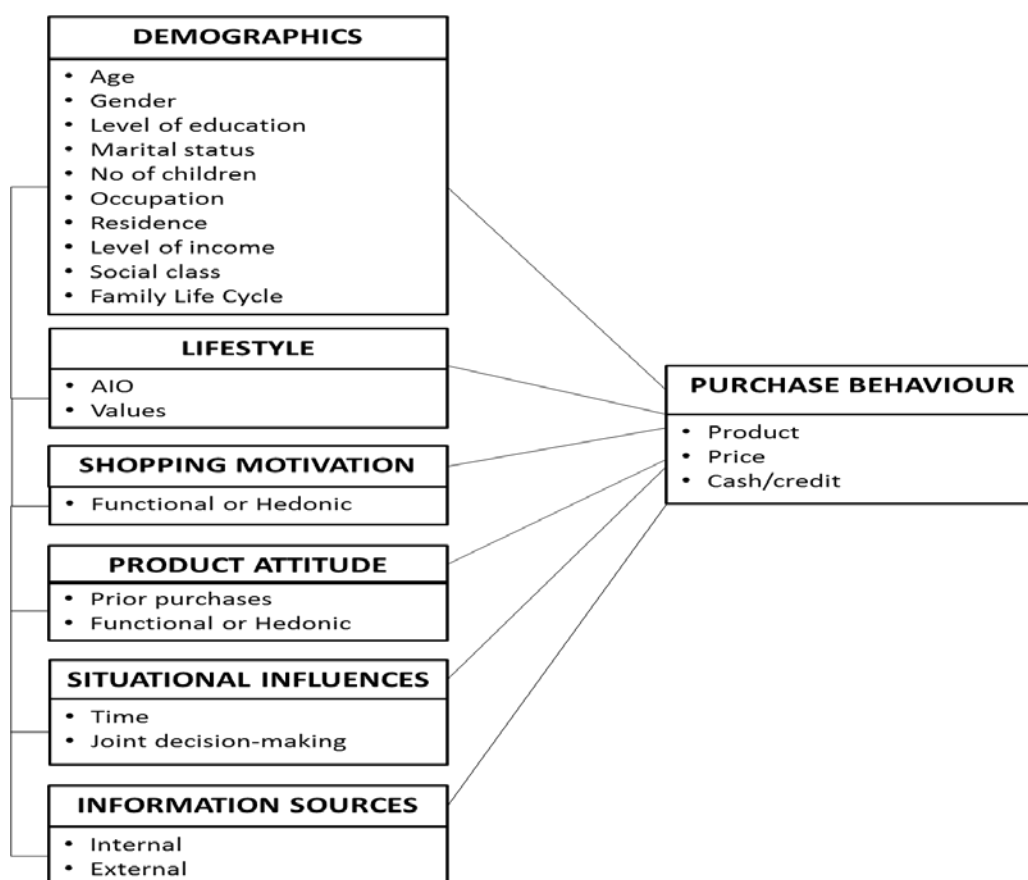


Figure 2. Simplified Conceptual Theoretical Framework for Profiling Botswana FAE Consumer Segments

From the framework it is evident that not all the variables that could influence decision-making and FAE consumer behaviour are included. The choice of variables served to focus the scope of the research and to delineate the study. The choice of scope included both consumer and consumption-based variables, hence the most pertinent variables commonly applied in market

segmentation studies (Ekinci et al., 2014; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014). The framework served as point of departure and theoretical basis for the literature review, and guided the empirical component of this research. The objectives of the study will be clarified in the next section.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The research questions that guided the research were: *Who are the consumers of FAE in Botswana and to what extent can they be profiled and clustered according to their demographic characteristics, lifestyle, values, shopping motivation, product attitude and the information sources used in pre-purchase?*

The study was exploratory and descriptive, with the broad objective to expand the existing body of knowledge relating to the behaviour of FAE consumers in Botswana.

To achieve this broad objective, the study included the following literature-related objective:

- To investigate how demographic characteristics, lifestyle, values, shopping motivation, product attitude and information sources could be used to cluster and/or segment FAE consumers.

Once this literature-related objective had been met, the empirical study focused on the following aims:

- To determine to what extent FAE consumers in Botswana could be clustered according to demographics, lifestyle (activities, interests and opinions [AIO]), values, shopping motivation, product attitude and information sources;
- To determine which of the foregoing variables contribute to differences between the clusters;
- To determine between which clusters these differences occur; and
- To profile different clusters of FAE consumers.

From the findings, the following objectives were addressed, namely to:

- Formulate the implications of the cluster profiles for FAE retailers in Botswana; and
- Formulate relevant recommendations for future research.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study addressed the paucity in knowledge on consumers of durable goods in Botswana. All indications are that this study was the first to do so and therefore could broaden the knowledge available to the Botswana FAE industry and contribute to the understanding of the FAE Botswana consumer segments. Pham (2013) criticised the field of consumer psychology for being overly reliant on WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialised, Rich, and Democratic) people, especially college-students, and encouraged studies of consumers from a wider range of socioeconomic conditions and marketplaces. As this study researched actual consumers in a developing market, it also answered this call.

An increased knowledge and understanding of consumers will enable retailers to target their marketing and promotional practices. It may also assist retailers to improve product selection and positioning. Ultimately, these efforts can contribute to the growth of a sustainable FAE industry in Botswana, as marketing strategy is driven by consumer insights.

1.7 Delimitations of the study

The study focused on consumers of FAE products of a specific retail chain operating in Botswana. It thus dealt with durable goods only, as opposed to fast-moving-consumer goods or apparel. Since online shopping is in its infancy in Botswana, on-line shopping was not investigated. The focus was on the patronage of brick and mortar store consumers only. The sample population consisted of consumers who purchased a product at one of the FAE retail stores during the data gathering period. It thus excluded consumers who purchased during other periods or at other retail stores, as well as potential consumers (browsing). The measurement instrument was compiled from predominantly existing measurements to be as reliable, short and user friendly as possible. The questionnaire further had to adhere to the practicalities of gathering data (e.g. not be too long as these questionnaires had to be completed in store). The items and scales were adapted for legibility, to make provision for possible low levels of literacy, especially in rural and remote areas.

To conclude this chapter, some commonly used terms and constructs will be defined next.

1.8 Definition of terms and constructs

For this research, the following terms are defined and operationalised:

Big ticket items: “Big ticket items” is a North American colloquialism that refers to something expensive (OED Online, 2018). This refers to goods with high selling prices, and includes houses, cars and big household appliances such as fridges or washing machines. Big ticket items are normally durable.

Consumer behaviour: The scope of consumer behaviour includes desire (problem recognition, need arousal, deprivation, wants, wishes and aspirations, interests and tastes); acquisition (search, shopping, selection, decision-making and choice, purchase, shipment/transportation, gift, rental/leasing, borrowing and stealing); use or consumption (set-up, preparation, customisation, consumption, enjoyment, sharing, storage, maintenance, satisfaction, possession, collection and mental consumption); and disposal or divestment (discarding, re-using, recycling, reselling, donating, storing away, replacement, hoarding and consumption withdrawal) (Pham, 2013).

Demographics: Demographics “describes a population in terms of its size (number of people), societal structure (including age, income, education and occupation) and distribution (physical location)” (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013, p. 62).

Durable goods: Durable goods designate a class of goods that are expected to have a relatively long useful life after purchase, as distinguished from goods produced for immediate consumption (OED Online, 2018).

Electronics: Electronics refers to instruments or equipment with circuits using microchips, transistors, valves, or other electronic components (OED Online, 2018). This includes cell phones, tablets, computers and laptops, as well as audio-visual equipment such as televisions, hi-fi systems and speakers.

Lifestyle: Lifestyle describes “the manner in which people conduct their lives, including activities, interests, and opinions” (Banerjee & Mishra, 2015, p. 19). Lifestyle is “determined by past experiences, innate characteristics and the current situation” (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013, p. 427).

Motivation: “Motivation is the driving force within individuals that compels them to action, which is produced by a state of tension due to an unfulfilled need” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014, p. 74).

Patronage: Patronage refers to consumers’ tendency to frequent a particular store for products that can be accessed or purchased elsewhere (adopted from Wathigo, 2016).

Psychographics: In the seminal article by Wells (1975, p. 207), psychographic research was defined as "quantitative research intended to place consumers on psychological dimensions". The term is “often used interchangeably with the term lifestyle” (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013, p. 428).

Retailing: Retailing is the action or business of selling goods in relatively small quantities for use or consumption rather than for resale (OED Online, 2018). Retailers thus deal directly with consumers. Retailing is an important sub-dimension of marketing, as it links the producer with the consumer (Finnegan, Runyan, Gonzalez-Padron & Hyun, 2016).

Shopper: Shoppers are “individuals participating in a particular part of the consumption process which requires active engagement in the pursuit of a targeted purchase solution for an identified occasion, which may or may not be for personal consumption” (Jones & Runyan, 2016, p. 785).

White goods: White goods refer to large domestic appliances that are conventionally white, such as fridges, freezers and washing machines (OED Online, 2018).

1.9 Summary: Chapter 1

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the background to the research, and to justify its importance. The chapter highlighted the importance of FAE retail in Botswana, in sharp contrast to the scarcity of published research in this industry. Despite Botswana’s small population, the viable consumer market is deserving of more research. A description of the context of the FAE industry in SSA followed, where the recent failure of the largest FAE retail chain served as a stark reminder of the challenges faced in this industry.

Notwithstanding these challenges, the FAE industry still provides growth opportunities. A retailer with insights into consumer behaviour will be able to capitalise on these opportunities by aligning marketing strategy to consumer needs.

The chapter presented four models from different perspectives relevant to retailers to illustrate the complexity of consumer behaviour. This was followed by a discussion of the benefits of market segmentation and profiling. To assist in the determination of the variables to include in this segmentation study, the four different consumer behaviour models were analysed. This resulted in the drafting of a conceptual theoretical framework for the profiling of FAE consumer segments in Botswana to guide this research. The significance and delimitations of the study were briefly explored. The chapter concluded with definitions of the terms and constructs used in this study. The literature review, which will focus on market segmentation and the variables identified in the conceptual framework, will be presented in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Having established a framework for the research in the previous chapter, the focus in this chapter turns to market segmentation and a brief discussion of empirical and industry examples of profiling and segmentation studies. The emphasis will then move to an analysis of the influence of the different variables identified in the conceptual framework – demographic characteristics, lifestyles, values, shopping motivation, product attitude and information sources – on purchase behaviour. Since retail trends continue to change in line with changing consumer preferences, the primary focus will be on the past two decades of publications (since 1997).

2.2 Market segmentation

Market segmentation, product positioning and new product development are the three principal spheres of activity of any marketing manager who adopts an outlook of profitable consumer orientation (Foxall et al., 2009). Smith (as cited in Ekinci et al., 2014, p. 764) defined market segmentation as “viewing a heterogeneous market as a number of smaller homogeneous markets, in response to differing preferences, attributable to the desires of consumers for more precise satisfaction of their wants”. Market segmentation is therefore the opposite of mass marketing, where the same product and marketing mix are offered to all consumers. Most businesses recognise that a mass marketing approach is not suitable to satisfy the diverse customer needs that they face (Dibb & Simkin, 2001; Pomarici, Lerro, Chrysochou, Vecchio & Krystallis, 2017). Segmentation is thus a valuable tool that can be used to understand how consumers differ (Campbell et al., 2014). According to Yankelovich and Meer (2006), the true purpose of market segmentation is to discover consumers whose needs are not being met, or whose behaviour could be changed.

In general, marketing researchers segment a market either *a priori* or *post hoc* (Li, Meng, Uysal & Mihalik, 2013; Muhamed et al., 2012; Wind, 1978). The first approach is often based on uni-dimensional or demographic segmentation variables and takes place where the segmenting bases are first defined using prior knowledge, after which appropriate profiling descriptors are

employed to partition segments. The post-hoc approach is data driven and uses statistical techniques such as multivariate data grouping. Muhamed et al. (2012) advocate a combined approach. This study applied a combined approach – the selection of variables included in the framework established in Chapter 1 was done *a priori*, based on variables commonly included in different models to describe consumer behaviour, whereas the empirical research applied *post-hoc* data-driven segmentation techniques to segment and profile FAE Botswana consumers.

The process of market segmentation is well established and often described as STP – segmenting, targeting and positioning (Dibb & Simkin, 2001; Venter et al., 2015). Muhamed et al. (2012) describe the market segmentation process as involving four steps, namely: the identification of suitable segmentation variables; followed by segmentation of the market; leading to market targeting (the choice of the most attractive segment(s); and finally the development, selection and communication of positioning concepts, by designing the company's image and offering to occupy a distinctive position in the minds of the target market. This is done by matching the marketing programs with the identified requirements of consumers in the targeted segments (Dibb & Simkin, 2001; Dibb & Simkin, 2010; Pomarici et al., 2017). In similar vein, Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) describe the process as the identification of product-related need sets; followed by the grouping of customers with similar need sets; the description of each group, and finally the selection of an attractive segment to serve.

It follows that, to derive the maximum benefit of segmentation, it should be underpinned by a genuine heterogeneity in consumer wants and needs (Dibb & Simkin, 2010; Ekinici et al., 2014). If differences between consumers are small, segmentation may hold limited benefit for marketers and retailers. It is therefore important to find cost-effective variables that clearly distinguish between groups of consumers (Dibb & Simkin, 2009; Pomarici, et al., 2017). Yankelovich and Meer (2006) prescribe six requirements for useful market segmentation, namely that it should reflect company strategy; indicate where sources of profit or revenue could lie; identify consumers' attitudes, beliefs and values as they specifically relate to product offerings; focus on actual consumer behaviour; make sense to the top echelon of executives; and be flexible enough to anticipate or accommodate changes in markets or consumer behaviour, since consumer needs, attitudes and behaviour can change relatively quickly.

Meaningful segmentation in the FAE category thus requires knowledge of consumers' motives and needs, and depends upon finding patterns and differences in their profile and actual buying behaviour to inform segmentation and marketing strategy. In the next section, different approaches to identifying these patterns and differences will be discussed.

2.2.1 The development of different approaches to segmentation

Traditionally, demographic traits including age, gender, income and education levels, as well as geographic variables such as urban or rural residence were used to segment markets (Mohsen & Dacko, 2013). Often, markets were also segmented from a production orientation by product, rather than being consumer oriented (Dibb & Simkin, 2001; Pomarici, et al., 2017; Weinstein, 2006). In the 1960s and 1970s, marketers realised that geo-demographics were no longer sufficient to be used as basis for marketing strategy, since these were not likely to assist marketers in grasping how consumers behaved in reality (Barry & Weinstein, 2009; Mohsen & Dacko, 2013). Marketers realised that non-demographic variables such as lifestyles, values and similar preferences were more likely to influence consumer behaviour (Barry & Weinstein, 2009; Yankelovich & Meer, 2006). This led to the development of psychographics, lifestyle and value measurements (Wells, 1975). Honkanen, Olsen and Myrland (2004) acknowledge that the conceptual and measurement distinctions between psychographics, lifestyle, values and attitudes are unclear, but contend that these are generally accepted as important bases for segmentation in marketing.

In the 1990s, the use of behavioural and attitudinal measures as bases for segmentation was viewed as the most popular development in segmentation practice, where consumers with similar beliefs, attitudes or preferences were grouped together; with the core concept used in attitude-based segmentation being "benefit" or "need" (Honkanen et al., 2004, p. 237). Behavioural and psychographic criteria have been found to be more efficient and better indicators than demographics for defining the wants and needs, and therefore the purchasing behaviour, of customers in many industries (Ekinci et al., 2014; Hattingh et al., 2012). More recently, customer profitability has also been accepted as an important basis for behavioural segmentation driven by the central importance of profits to most businesses, and the ability to predict customer lifetime value (CLV) (Ekinci et al., 2014).

Today, the most popular bases for market segmentation are rooted either in the consumer or in consumption, with virtually all segmentation strategies using a combination of such bases (Akturan, Tezcan & Vignolles, 2011; Alvarez, Dickson & Hunter, 2014; Anić, Rajh & Bevanda, 2012; Campbell et al., 2014; Díaz et al., 2018). Schiffman and Kanuk (2014) list six commonly used consumer segmentation bases, and four common consumption or behaviour-specific segmentation bases. The consumer-based criteria are demographic; geographic; living standard measures (LSM); personality traits; psychographics/lifestyles; and socio-cultural values and beliefs. The consumption-specific segmentation bases include usage rate (such as heavy or light users); usage situation; product and service benefits; and brand loyalty, measuring consumer behaviour and attitudes.

Living standards measure segmentation is the most widely used marketing research tool in Southern Africa (McEwan, Hughes & Bek, 2015). The LSM was developed by the South African Audience Research Foundation (SAARF) (known as the South African Advertising Research Foundation prior to July 2012) (TVSA Team, 2012). The LSM index was based on geographic indicators and household ownership of products and services. In essence, the classification relied on wealth as indicator of a standard of living, and not household income. Ten LSM levels were identified – LSM 1 being the lowest, and LSM 10 the highest (SAARF, 2012; SAARF 2013a; SAARF 2013b; SAARF 2016a). The LSM variables have been revised several times, where the most recent 2011 version made use of 29 variables to determine LSM consumer segments. From these 29 variables, more than half referred to the ownership of appliances and electronics: eight referred to appliances (fridge, vacuum cleaner, microwave, washing machine, electric stove, freezer, dishwasher and tumble drier), whilst seven referred to electronics (TV, cell-phones (2), personal computer (PC), radios, digital video disc (DVD) player and home theatre). This clearly demonstrates the importance and use of FAE ownership as an indicator of living standards.

The main criticism against this form of segmentation is that the LSMs reflect historical income, are thus not necessarily an indication of current purchasing power, and cannot be used to predict purchase intent for the future (McEwan et al., 2015; Wortley & Tshwaedi, 2002). Despite the criticism, large companies such as Lewis Ltd and Shoprite Ltd continue to use the LSMs, presumably in conjunction with other segmentation variables. Lewis Group announced in 2015 that they had acquired the *Beares* retail chain to provide them with exposure to higher

LSM consumers. Previously, the group had limited exposure to higher LSM groups, since the group's existing retail brands, *Lewis* and *Best Home & Electric*, focused on LSM 4–7, the middle to lower market (Lewis Group Ltd, 2015). Shoprite Holdings Ltd's *Checkers*, *Shoprite* and *Usave* serve different supermarket consumers, with *Checkers* aimed at LSM 8–10, *Shoprite* targeting LSM 4–7 and *Usave* LSM 1–5 (Shoprite Holdings Ltd, 2015).

The National Association of Broadcasters (NAB) withdrew funding from SAARF effective December 2015, with the result that the last publication of the All Media Product Survey (AMPS) was in May 2016 (SAARF, 2016b). AMPS is set to be replaced by the Establishment Survey (ES) that will provide a new population profile by media genre; demographics; sources of income; monthly expenditure; socio-economic segmentation; LSM (limited to 28 questions); frequency of media use by type of media; mobility; and time spent on media. The ES is expected to replace the LSM in time, and further details are currently not yet available (SAARF, 2016a). However, since the LSM variables will continue to form a part of the ES, LSM segmentation in South Africa is likely to remain relevant into the future.

A review of recently reported segmentation studies internationally confirms that many studies combine a number of segmentation bases and/or variables. In the following paragraphs examples of such research studies will be briefly mentioned to illustrate the diverse nature of segmentation bases and variables used.

Socio-demographic and psychographic: Angell, Megicks, Memery, Heffernan and Howell (2012) used age and store choice behaviour for a typology of British shoppers. Consumers of luxury goods were segmented by wealth and the need for status (Han, Nunes & Drèze, 2010). Morton et al. (2017) used socio-economic, psychographic and vehicle preferences to segment the electric vehicle market; whilst socio-demographic and psychographic variables were used to profile British consumers of private label brands (Shukla, Banerjee & Adidam, 2013). Pomarici et al. (2017) used wine attribute preferences as a starting point and then incorporated socio-demographic, psychographic and behavioural criteria to segment wine consumers.

Socio-cultural values and beliefs: A number of studies used socio-cultural values and beliefs to segment consumers. For instance, Alvarez et al. (2014) segmented the US Hispanic market by language preference and acculturation; Kravets and Sandikci (2014) segmented Turkish

middle-class consumers by their socio-ideological sensibilities as actualised in consumption; while Muhamed et al. (2012) segmented the Islamic Financial Services Industry by values relating to religion, ethics and economics.

Decision-making style: The decision-making style of consumers was used as segmentation variable by several researchers (Akturan et al., 2011; Anić et al., 2012; Makgosa & Sangodoyin, 2018; Sangodoyin & Makgosa, 2014; Rezaei, 2015). These studies applied an adapted version of the Consumer Style Inventory (CSI), which was developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986). The CSI is based on eight fundamental consumer decision-making styles, namely perfectionistic and high-quality conscious; fashion and novelty conscious; brand conscious; habitual and brand loyal; price and value conscious; confused by over-choice, recreational; and careless decision making.

Lifestyle: Lifestyle segmentation is used across various industries and product categories, for example: cinema (Díaz et al., 2018); food (Cullen & Kingston, 2009; Thøgersen, 2017a); housing (Thøgersen, 2017b); mobile phones and high technology (Chang, Tsai, Hung & Lin, 2015a; Dibb & Simkin, 2010; Slater, Hult & Olson, 2007); and sportswear (Ko et al., 2012).

Lifetime value of consumers: Some financial institutions used demographics (age, occupation, assets, income); behaviour (how many transactions customers did in a month; how many institutions they did business with and how many services they used); and attitudinal variables (financial sophistication, risk tolerance, time spent on investments) to determine the lifetime value of their customers and segment them accordingly (Ekinci et al., 2014; Yankelovich & Meer, 2006).

Only four segmentation studies could be identified for the Botswana consumer (Makgosa & Mfosi, 2006; Makgosa & Sangodoyin, 2018; Sangodoyin & Makgosa, 2014; Radder, Li, & Pietersen, 2006). These all segmented consumers by decision-making style, using the CSI proposed by Sproles and Kendall in 1986. Two of these studies surveyed students on campus (Makgosa & Mfosi, 2006; Radder et al., 2006), and the other two surveyed adult consumers of shopping centres (Makgosa & Sangodoyin, 2018; Sangodoyin & Makgosa, 2014). The results indicated that the CSI had to be adapted for use in Southern Africa, as most of the eight subscales originally proposed by Sproles and Kendal had low reliabilities in all studies. After being

subjected to factor analysis, in the 2018 study five decision-making styles emerged for younger shoppers (recreational/hedonism; price-driven impulsiveness; variety-seeking; price equals quality and confused by over-choice). However, only the reliability reported for recreational/hedonism ($\alpha = .75$) was acceptable, with the others less than .5. For older shoppers (those above 35 years), five different decision-making styles emerged (fashion-novelty consciousness; impulsive/carelessness; brand consciousness; economy seeking and rational buying). Reliability remained a concern, with only two scales (impulsive/carelessness ($\alpha = .71$) and fashion-novelty consciousness ($\alpha = .66$) showing acceptable reliabilities, with the others ranging from .54 to .42. The results appear to confirm that the original CSI index is more applicable to Western, developed cultures and that it could not be applied to the Botswana data set (Radder et al., 2006).

According to P. Mays (Personal communication, 1 September 2016), syndicated research conducted in August 2016 by a large apparel retail chain operating in Botswana applied the 29 South African LSM variables, partly because of its familiarity to marketers and managers in the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) sub-region. Unfortunately, these findings are not available in the public domain.

2.2.2 Market segmentation: concluding remarks

The different empirical examples discussed in section 2.2.1 demonstrate that there is no single form of market segmentation that can be applied to all studies or industries. Decisions on variables or bases for segmentation hinge mostly on the type of industry, the research question, the sample and the availability of funding. However, it can be deduced that a combination of demographic, psychographic and behavioural variables is commonly used for segmentation purposes.

Whether due to the work of the SAARF or not, South African marketers, producers and retailers are prone to using market segmentation tools, especially the LSM, in combination with other insights. Unfortunately, although a Botswana wealth status index was discussed in the 2011 Census Analytical Report (Statistics Botswana, 2014), segmentation tools are not publicly available in Botswana. The lack of available information underlies the exploratory nature of this study.

Having discussed the definition and process of market segmentation and several empirical examples, the focus will now move to the different variables used for segmentation in this study, commencing with the demographical variables.

2.3 Demographics

Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013, p. 62) define demographics as describing “a population in terms of its size (number of people), societal structure (including age, income, education and occupation) and distribution (physical location)”. As such, demographics are the most basic variables used to segment consumers. Hattingh et al. (2012) reported that for segmentation of African consumers, segmentation by attitude outperformed demographics and income in predicting consumer needs and preferences. However, even though demographics is often not as strong a differentiator between consumers as lifestyles or attitudes, it remains a basic variable to segment and describe consumers. A brief discussion on the most prominent / salient demographic variables used for segmentation follows.

2.3.1 Age

According to Kohlbacher, Riley and Hofmeister (2011), chronological age (referring to the number of years a person has lived) is a constant in daily life, as well as in marketing and age-related research. Chronological age is regularly used as an objective measure to shape the lives of individuals. This can be illustrated by the age restrictions imposed by the government: For example, chronological age prescribes when an individual can legally marry, vote, drive, drink alcohol, and claim a state pension. In marketing, of all the demographic variables, chronological age is the most frequently used to segment consumer markets and to describe consumer behaviour (Amatulli, Guido & Nataarajan, 2015; Kohlbacher et al., 2011). Age affects our self-concept and lifestyle, and carries culturally defined behavioural and attitudinal norms (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). Product needs often change as we age, and age also influences our buying priorities, influencing the consumption of a range of products and services including beer, cosmetics, fashion apparel, mobile entertainment, housing, luxury goods, restaurants, toilet paper and vacations (Amatulli et al., 2015, Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013; Persaud & Azhar, 2012; Rousseau & Venter, 2014, Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014). Women of different age groups use different shopping channels, with those over 60 preferring the physical store, while M-commerce is the preferred shopping channel for women in their 20s, but its popularity and

motivations to use decreases with age (Boardman & McCormick, 2018). Age also influences an individual's media usage, with older consumers watching more television than younger consumers, whilst younger consumers are more susceptible to digital media (Lim & Kim, 2011; Persaud & Azhar, 2012). This difference in media usage may mean that age impacts on the type of information sources used pre-purchase.

Younger consumers tend to be less brand loyal than older consumers (Amatulli et al., 2015). Compared with young consumers, older consumers do not remember recent brands that well, but their memory for the brands that they encountered before age 30 is as good as or better than the memory of the youth – hence older consumers' perception of the market is biased, according to Laurent, Pieters and Yoon (2014). Mature shoppers are more experienced and wiser, and they have more time for gathering information and scrutinising products before they make decisions compared to younger, working-class shoppers, who have limited time for shopping since they are busy raising their families, and want to leave stores as soon as possible (Rousseau & Venter, 2014). This may mean that age impacts on the time spent researching a product purchase.

Laurent et al. (2014) investigated the relationship between age and materialism in general, as well as its three sub-types (acquisition as the pursuit of happiness, possession-defined success, and acquisition centrality). Their study revealed a U-shaped relationship between age and overall materialism. The lowest levels of materialism occur around the age of 62, with higher levels before and after 62 years. The U-shaped relationship between age and materialism is found for all three subtypes of materialism. However, after controlling for cohort effects, age differences in acquisition as the pursuit of happiness and acquisition centrality become insignificant. The age differences observed are due to the youngest birth cohorts (born after 1970, 1975 and 1980) being more inclined to possession-defined success. Since possession-defined success appears to be more important to younger people, it may mean that they are also more status conscious.

The college age (18–22 years) market is one of the most sought-after and targeted consumer segments because of college students' role as trendsetters, their position as early adopters, the lifelong brand loyalties that are often established during these formative years, their influence over parental purchases, the size of the market and the probability of a higher

standard of living that is associated with a college degree (Noble, Haytko, & Phillips, 2009; Valentine & Powers, 2013). Noble et al. (2009) argue that seven themes appear to drive college age consumers' purchases and retail patronage, namely:

- freedom – the selection and consumption of products that provide a sense of freedom and independence from the significant influence their parents had on consumption decisions;
- to find yourself – the selection and consumption of products that help to define what they value in life, what is important to them and who they are;
- to stand out/blend in – the selection and consumption of products that help achieve their goals of either asserting their individuality to their peers or blending in with the crowd;
- my personality/brand personality – the selection and consumption of products with features that assist to express some aspect of their own image and personality;
- fashion knowledge – the use of their considerable familiarity with and knowledge about the latest reputations, images and trends of products, brand names and retailers to be considered leaders or expert among peers;
- to seek value – the desire to make the best decision regarding not only quality and price but to deliberate making sound investments for the future; and
- the comfort of brands – to find great trust and confidence in their preferred brand names.

Several studies have been published on Generation Y (Gen-Y) or the Millennials age group. There is disagreement on the exact dates that identify the span of this generation, with some authors defining the generation as those born between 1980 and 1999 (Khera & Malik, 2017), between 1980 and 2000 (Viswanathan & Jain, 2013); and others stating commencement in 1981 (Bolton et al., 2013; Chaney, Touzani & Slimane, 2017), or 1977 (Charters et al., 2011; Mueller, Remaud & Chabin, 2011; Noble et al., 2009; Parment, 2013). For this study, it will be assumed that Gen-Y refers to people born between 1981 and 2000.

This generation is media and technologically savvy (Chaney et al., 2017; Noble et al., 2009; Valentine & Powers, 2013) and, since they are the first generation to have grown up exclusively in the digital environment, they are also called digital natives, as opposed to digital immigrants

(Bolton et al., 2013). Generation Y actively searches for, shares, consumes and contributes to content on social media platforms (Bolton et al., 2013; Valentine & Powers, 2013). It can thus be expected that they are far more comfortable with electronic products – especially cell phones and laptops – than older age groups. Their familiarity with digital products is also likely to impact on their pre-purchase search behaviour.

Khera and Malik (2017) researched the life priorities of Gen-Y individuals in India, and established that their two main life priorities are materialism and altruism, with the first outweighing the last. The findings of a study of Gen-Y wine consumers in five western countries by Mueller et al. (2011) indicated that Gen-Y is less oriented towards social values and more towards hedonic success than older generations, which concurs with findings that indicate higher materialism in this cohort (Khera & Malik, 2017). Valentine and Powers (2013) segmented Gen-Y consumers by values and reported that two of the three biggest segments were status seekers. This may indicate that Gen-Y's need for status is higher than that of older generations. Furthermore, a study of the way in which Gen-Y people make decisions indicated that they tend to rely heavily on friends, family and digital media rather than evaluating options on their own (Viswanathan & Jain, 2013). This may mean that they make more joint decisions and consult more with friends and family during the information search than older people.

Looking at FAE specifically, age is important, as older consumers control household assets to a greater degree than younger consumers and take on numerous decision-making roles within families (Lim & Kim, 2011). Burnsed and Hodges (2014) confirmed that, of the many factors that may affect consumer demand for household furniture, the consumer's age is a particularly important indicator since it may mark critical life stages that trigger furniture purchases, such as career advancement leading to increased income; marriage; home purchase; and parenthood.

According to W. Smuts (personal communication, 7 September 2016), the practice of purchasing FAE on credit is the norm in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Research in the United States of America (USA) has shown that per decade of age, credit scores increase by an average of 13 points, which is comparable to the effect of a doubling of income or an additional year of education (Laurent et al., 2014). It is expected that this trend, where older consumers tend to

have a better credit rating than younger consumers and thus qualify for higher credit purchases, also occurs in Botswana.

Age can indicate a preference for nostalgia and nostalgic products (Holbrook & Schindler, 1996), and global producers of appliances, including SMEG and GE, have launched a retro-style range of appliances in recent years to capitalise on this trend (Lynch, 2013). Nostalgic items, such as retro lamps from the 50s, have been found to represent a link to consumers' family history (Hakala, Autio & Toppinen, 2015). Age also impacts on the furniture acquisition style of consumers: Hakala et al. (2015) studied the acquisition of furniture by 23–35 year-old German and Finnish consumers, and found that, mainly because of budgetary constraints, their acquisition style could be described as a combination of old furniture (whether second hand or inherited) and new (low-priced). In addition, those young consumers in working life often possessed one expensive, prized article of furniture.

Literature thus shows that age can be a key differentiating variable for FAE consumers. However, researchers will do well to remember that there are major differences between the median age in the developed world versus that of SSA. Consumers in the developed world are ageing. The number of people aged 65 years and older is expected to represent 26 per cent of the total population in Western countries by 2050, 28 per cent of the EU population by 2050 and nearly 20 per cent in the United States by 2030 (Amatulli et al., 2015). According to Kohlbacher et al. (2011), at a global level the number of older persons will exceed the number of children by 2047. This is driving intensive research on the mature consumer, including recent research that studied cognitive age (how old you feel), rather than chronological age (Amatulli et al., 2015; Kohlbacher & Chéron, 2012; Laurent et al., 2014; Sudbury-Riley, Kohlbacher & Hofmeister, 2015). In stark contrast, the median age in Botswana in 2011 was only 26 years, with 32.7 per cent of the population below the age of 15 years, 52.9 per cent younger than 25 years, and 83.2 per cent below the age of 45 years (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 7). Due to the high value of FAE purchases, it is however likely that FAE consumers in Botswana are substantially older than the national mean, since it would take time either to accrue sufficient funds to make a purchase, or to establish a good credit record enabling a credit purchase.

Consumer behaviour can thus be influenced by age. In a similar fashion, sex and/or gender can also amount to a key differentiating variable. This will be discussed next.

2.3.2 Sex and gender

Shiffman and Kanuk (2014) comment that, like age, sex and/or gender is a factual distinguishing variable, with many products, for instance clothing, inherently aimed at either males or females. Whereas sex refers to either of the two main classes (male and female) into which humans and other living beings are separated based on their reproductive functions, gender and gender identity is a cultural concept (Gupta & Gentry, 2016; Wood & Eagly, 2015). The difference is explained as follows by Gentry et al. (2003, p. 1):

“Gender is the symbolic role definition attributed to members of a sex on the basis of historically constructed interpretations of the nature, disposition, and role of members of that sex. It differs from a classification based on sex in that there is little evidence to suggest that gendered differences are biologically inevitable (while sexual differences are largely biologically determined); gendered differences are only sociologically inevitable, and that ‘inevitability’ may diminish with time”.

Eagly and Wood’s social role theory (2012) posits that societal stereotypes about gender lead to differences in behaviour between the sexes. The authors argue that the origins of men's and women's social roles lie primarily in humans' evolved physical sex differences, which interact with a society's circumstances and culture to make certain activities more efficiently performed by one sex or the other. This leads to gender stereotypes, with men, more than women, thought to be agentic – that is, masterful, assertive, competitive, and dominant; and women, more than men, thought to be communal – that is, emotionally expressive, unselfish, friendly and concerned about others. Research demonstrated that men and women regulated their behaviour to correspond to these identities (Eagly & Wood, 2012; Gupta & Gentry, 2016).

According to self-construal theory, some authors postulate that males conceptualise their self-identities as independent of others, whereas females conceptualise themselves as part of an interdependent group (Noble et al., 2009). Along the same lines, Meyers-Levy and Loken (2015) concluded that females are more other-oriented, while males are more self-oriented. However, Melnyk, Van Osselaer and Bijmolt (2009) theorised that both genders are interdependent, but that female self-identity centres on close individual relationships (relational interdependence), while male self-identity centres on less intimate group relationships (collective interdependence). Research supported this theory, with females

found to be more loyal to individual service providers, while males were more loyal to multi-person entities or companies (Melnyk et al., 2009).

In a review of gender research published from 2000 to 2013, Meyers-Levy and Loken (2015) reported numerous domains – including shopping behaviour – that revealed evidence of gender differences, many of which provide support for the social role theory. A number of empirical examples of how the shopping behaviour of men and women differs will be discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

Internet usage and search behaviour: Strandberg and Carlson (2017) report that, although initial gender gaps have closed over time, with women no longer being less likely than men to have access to and use the Internet, second-level gender gaps remain, in that men and women engage in different activities on the web. Women tend to use the internet more for social purposes, such as education and e-mailing others, while men use it more for personal interests, such as entertainment or seeking investment data (Hupfer & Detlor, 2006; Weiser, 2000). Female consumers are more likely to use Facebook for convenience (to obtain things with little effort) and to seek information (to learn new things, research and to discuss products and brands) (Noguti, Singh & Waller, 2016). The selectivity hypothesis of Meyers-Levy and Loken (2015) posits that different strategies are employed by the genders for processing information. Specifically, men tend to be more selective data processors and rely more on easily accessible and highly noticeable heuristics, while women tend to process incoming data more carefully and comprehensively. In line with this hypothesis, women prefer data displays that are more complete, dense and reliable, while men prefer well organised websites but are less disposed to explore informational (e.g., resourceful, informative) websites (Richard, Chebat, Yang & Putrevu, 2010). Males spend less time viewing individual pages, employ more one-word searches, and jump pages at a higher rate per minute, while females spend more time scrutinising website content (Danaher, Mullarkey, & Essegaier, 2006; Maghferat & Stock, 2010; Urquhart & Yeoman, 2010). This suggests that the genders differ in electronic information search behaviour.

Online shopping: Whereas females outnumber men in and get more enjoyment from traditional brick and mortar shopping (Kotzé, North, Stols & Venter, 2012), males engage more than twice as much as females in on-line shopping (Kwak, Fox & Zinkhan, 2002). Women regard

online purchasing as less practical and emotionally satisfying than men and according to Dittmar, Long and Meek (2004), females perceive online shopping as impersonal, lacking in social sensory experience (i.e., just clicking buttons and viewing a screen), and less involving (i.e., less bargain hunting thrills and less sensory buzz). Web-designers are advised to take note that gender differences exist in how on-line purchase decisions and attitudes are influenced, with females being more influenced by vividness and diagnosticity, while males are more influenced by perceived risk and interactivity (Lin, Featherman, Brooks, & Hajli, 2018). Whilst Rodgers and Harris (2003) reported that men trust online shopping more than women, this appears to have changed over time: Yoon and Occeña (2015) found recently that trust in e-commerce does not differ between the genders; and in the same way Lian and Yen (2014) did not find any gender differences in barriers to online shopping amongst consumers over 50 years of age. Men who buy consumer goods online focus mainly on functional concerns (i.e., acquiring information, efficiency, economics), whereas women emphasise the social-experiential and emotional elements of shopping (Dittmar et al., 2004). Collectively, female shoppers focus on product quality, while male shoppers are more concerned with e-service quality. However, these gender differences only exist for functional or task-focused shoppers – for hedonic or experiential shoppers the differences are insignificant (Fang, Wen, George & Prybutok, 2016). Furthermore, Hou and Elliott (2016) reported that the genders differ in the products they purchase at on-line auctions, with men more likely to purchase electronics and computers, while women tend to buy books, clothing, jewellery and toys.

The impact of shopping with friends: Research findings of Kurt, Inman and Argo (2011) showed that in a social (as opposed to private) shopping context, males tend to engage in self-bolstering heavy spending activities intended to gain the respect and admiration of friends. This results in men spending more money when shopping with friends. In contrast, females' communal wish just to be part of the group discourages spending which could place them in the spotlight, and their spending is constant across contexts (private or social).

The use of heuristics in decision-making: In line with the selectivity hypothesis, men are more likely than women to simplify decisions by using salient cue-implied heuristics (shortcuts) or intuition (Meyers-Levy & Loken, 2015). Puccinelli, Chandrashekar, Grewal and Suri (2013) hypothesised that men rely more than women on the belief that marketers use more eye-catching colours to draw attention to good buys, and that they are more susceptible than

women to the heuristic effects of red. Three studies confirmed that only male consumers assumed greater savings when prices were presented in red than when presented in black. The effect abated when task involvement was high (Puccinelli et al., 2013).

Shao, Baker and Wagner (2004) studied the impact of the appropriateness of the dress of sales personnel in a financial services context. Results showed that attire has a stronger influence on females than males, with females' intentions to use a banker and expectations of service quality being higher when the banker dressed more professionally. Two conflicting explanations are plausible: the first that attire is simply more important to women than men; the other that women more thoughtfully interpret subtle yet indicative signals. In the absence of any valid sign of service quality, women may have drawn the reasonable conclusion that the banker's professional appearance suggests that s/he takes pride in his/her work and thus will be more conscientious in tending to customers' needs (Meyers-Levy & Loken, 2015).

Customer loyalty: Noble, Griffith and Adjei (2006) studied the loyalty of consumers towards local merchants. The results showed that females are more loyal to local merchants than males. These findings were confirmed by Kurtulus and Ertekin (2015). Females' loyalty to local merchants is motivated by a desire for uniqueness, assortment, browsing and social interaction opportunity, whilst that of males is driven by information attainment and convenience. Furthermore, females are more loyal to individual service providers, whilst males are more loyal to groups, a store or a company (Melnyk et al., 2009). Haj-Salem, Chebat, Michon and Oliveira (2016) revealed that the drivers of mall loyalty also differ between genders. In the case of female shoppers, mall loyalty is driven by the perceived quality of products and services, physical mall design and mall atmosphere. With male shoppers, mall loyalty is driven by prices, mall atmosphere and identification with the mall (the degree to which they perceive the mall to be designed for them).

Gender can also impact on the success of loyalty programmes. Melnyk and Van Osselaer (2012) established that men favoured loyalty programs that magnified status (for instance Gold membership) when such status was visible to others, while females preferred programs that highlighted personalisation (for instance use of first names, birthday cards) that was not publicly noticeable.

Product symbolism: Consumers often buy products for their symbolic benefits, for instance to bolster status or self-esteem. Research indicates that the genders assign different values to such benefits (Segal & Podoshen, 2013; Stokburger-Sauer & Teichmann, 2013; Workman & Lee, 2013). The genders differ significantly in terms of materialism and conspicuous consumption, with males demonstrating more materialism and conspicuous product consumption than females (Segal & Podoshen, 2013). This implies that men may be more likely to feel that owning material goods increases their happiness and promotes self-expression (Segal & Podoshen, 2013). Females tend to display higher levels of brand consciousness and brand sensitivity than males, and higher levels of brand consciousness may result in the brand playing a key role in the decision-making process that results in a purchase (Kurtulus & Ertekin, 2015; Workman & Lee, 2013). Stokburger-Sauer and Teichmann (2013) studied consumers of luxury brands in the categories of clothing, perfume and watches. They found that, in general, women have a more positive attitude toward and a higher purchase intention of luxury brands as opposed to non-luxury brands than men. In addition, for female consumers, luxury brands offer more status, uniqueness and hedonic value than non-luxury brands.

Impulse shopping: Segal and Podoshen (2013) reported that men are less prone to impulse shopping than females. The genders also differ in the type of products they buy on impulse: women tend to make unplanned purchases of clothes, while men buy technology and entertainment (Segal & Podoshen, 2013).

Sound symbolism: Klink (2009) drew on sound symbolism theory (linking sound with meaning) to investigate whether gender affects response to new brand names. He reported that, in contrast to back vowel sounds (“o” and “u”), front vowel sounds (“i” or “e”) imply feminine characteristics like lighter, smaller, weaker, milder, friendlier, prettier and softer. Compared to men, females are more sensitive to the vowel sounds of brand names. When females were given pairs of product brand names that differed only in their front versus back vowel sounds (i.e., Giva vs. Gova), males preferred those with back vowels, while females more frequently picked the names with front vowels. Gender asymmetries appear to be more pronounced in product categories where masculinity-femininity is a more salient product attribute, such as deodorants compared to paper-clips (Klink, 2009).

Promotions: Men tend to prefer exclusive promotional deals that mainly benefit themselves, while females favour inclusive promotions that benefit many others as well as themselves (Barone & Roy, 2010).

Shopping motivation: Kim et al. (2014) reported that females tend to be more hedonically motivated while shopping, whilst men tended towards a utilitarian orientation.

Moving closer to the domain of FAE, many differences in consumption behaviour between the sexes are reported: Investments, insurance, computer equipment, and TVs are predominantly bought by males; home decorations, children's toys and clothing, groceries and small appliances are predominantly bought by females, whilst furniture, major appliances and vehicles are generally subject to joint decision making (Cross & Gilly, 2014; Gentry et al., 2003; Yavas et al., 1994).

When discussing treasured items, both sexes most frequently mentioned items of furniture, although women did this more frequently (38.5 per cent) than men (32.6 per cent), which appears to suggest that women form a deeper attachment to their furniture (Burnsed & Hodges, 2014, p. 27). Chen, Kalra and Sun (2009) investigated the purchase of extended service contracts for electronic products in a retail setting. These are essentially insurance products. They reported that females were more likely than males to expect that a product would fail, and more likely to rely on price to infer product reliability. Despite the foregoing, men were still more likely to purchase extended service contracts than women. This may suggest that there could be some truth to the stereotype that men are primarily responsible for appliance and electronic product repairs and upkeep.

Gender can also impact on joint decision-making, which is common for FAE, since these products are expensive and normally purchased for the household rather than an individual. Fischer and Gregoire (2006) conducted research on a sample of 76 mixed-gender couples leaving retail stores. They hypothesised and confirmed that the satisfaction of males significantly increased when they acted competitively and had the power to impose their preferences on their female counterpart. In contrast, power had no effect on females' satisfaction, which was only affected by the degree to which dyad members behaved cooperatively. In another study on couples shopping together for electronics and furniture, Lim

and Beatty (2011) investigated the factors that influenced couples to shop together. Their findings indicated that the most influential variables on the decision to shop together were expected shopping pleasure and the relevance of the purchase to both parties. The perceived financial risk was more important to men than for women. Contrary to expectations, however, there was no gender difference in product purchase relevance or expected shopping pleasure. It can be surmised that the more expensive the product to be purchased is, the higher the likelihood of joint shopping.

Burnsed and Hodges (2014) report that the household head accounts for the bulk of furniture purchases for the household, which contrasts with other household expenditures. In Botswana, 52.5 per cent of households are headed by men, and 47.5 per cent by women (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 84), whereas in South Africa, 59.7 per cent of households are headed by men, and 41.3 per cent by women (Stats SA, 2015a, p. 130).

From the above discussion, it is clear that genders do differ with regard to their consumption behaviours. The next variable that may distinguish between consumers' shopping behaviour is level of education.

2.3.3 Level of education

It is generally accepted and confirmed by research that there is a positive relationship between standard of living, income and level of education (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013; Kolenikov & Angeles, 2004; Noble et al., 2009; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014; Zhao, Gao, Wu, Wang, & Zhu, 2014). In South Africa, a near perfect linear correlation exists between education and income (Burgess & Schwartz, 1994). The same appears to be true for China, where income was reported to be significantly correlated with age, gender, education level and employment status, with the highest correlation occurring between education level and income (Zhao et al., 2014). Branson, Garlick, Lam and Leibbrandt (2012) analysed national household survey data for South Africa and reported that the completion of matric significantly improved the probability of employment, with post-secondary schooling leading to further improvement. The relative reward to post-secondary education increased over time – for example, in 2007, an African man with 14 years of education earned almost twice as much as one with 12 years of education. A study conducted in 2000 and reported by Statistics Botswana (2014) similarly reported significant increases in earnings in Botswana as the level of education rises, with men

with post-secondary schooling earning six times more than those with no formal education, and women with post-secondary schooling earning 13 times more than those with no formal education. According to Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) education is increasingly important to be able to earn enough to maintain a family in the USA and the position in SSA is no different. High-level occupations that generate high-level incomes usually require advanced education (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014).

People with higher education levels tend to conduct a more thorough information search before decision making; and research supports a belief that higher levels of education are associated with lower levels of customer loyalty (Cooil, Keiningham, Aksoy & Hsu, 2007).

Several studies have reported a link between level of education and higher environmental concern, leading to a willingness to purchase environment-friendly products (Grinstein & Nisan, 2009; Melo, Ge, Craig, Brewer, & Thronicker, 2018; Zhao et al., 2014). Consumers with academic education saved more water after a water-wise campaign than those without academic education (Grinstein & Nisan, 2009). Büyükkaragöz, Bas, Sağlam and Cengiz (2014) researched consumer attitudes towards functional foods, defined as foods perceived to improve well-being and health overall, minimise the threat of specific diseases or reduce the impact of other health concerns. Functional foods include calcium in milk; whole grains and fibre in certain cereals and breads; the naturally healthy components in fruits and vegetables; and fortified foods and beverages, such as vitamin D-fortified milk. They established that being female with a higher education level and higher income level increased both the awareness and purchase of functional foods. Contrary to expectations, however, level of education did not play a significant role in the profiling of organic consumers in Britain (Mohsen & Dacko, 2013), so the link between education and an increased concern with health is not always supported.

In a study of consumers' credit consumption in Swaziland, Erasmus and Mathunjwa (2011) reported that consumers with lower education levels were more easily stuck in serious financial bondage, debt and a spiral of overspending. Education level, age, source of income and gender were positively associated with both creditworthiness and credit consumption.

Education can thus impact on consumer behaviour in a number of ways: how consumers search for information, how loyal they are, how they react to educational campaigns, the type of product they buy, as well as the likelihood and level of debt.

In Botswana, household wealth [measured by an index calculated from ownership of durable assets (cell phone, radio, television, etc.); living conditions (energy sources for cooking, heating and lighting, toilet facility and water source), and housing conditions (type of houses, roof, floor and wall materials)] are positively correlated to the household head's level of education (Statistics Botswana, 2014). For example: of all households headed by those who have never been to school, only 7.1 per cent are in the richest category of wealth, whilst 40.3 per cent of all households headed by people with tertiary education fall within the richest category; in contrast, data indicates almost the exact opposite in the poorest category, with only 6.8 per cent of households with tertiary educated household heads falling within the poorest category, whilst 39.6 per cent of the households with uneducated household heads find themselves among the poorest (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 20). These statistics provide support for the notion that education is a significant determinant of household wealth, and that higher education levels improve the ability of the family to acquire assets.

It is thus argued that the level of education can distinguish between consumers and be fruitfully used as a market segmentation variable. Marital status will be considered next.

2.3.4 Marital status

In Botswana, there are two types of marriages; marriage under the Act (or under the "civil law") and customary marriage. Civil law marriages are performed by civil authorities and need to be registered with the National Registration (Omang) office. Customary marriages are concluded at a customary court ("kgotla") with the approval of the local chief. Current practice is to get married under civil law to ensure that spouses receive the full legal benefits of marriage, although some citizens still choose to have a customary marriage ceremony (Statistics Botswana, 2014). Over the last four decades, a massive decline in the prevalence of marriage in Botswana is evident: In 1971, 47.1 per cent of males and 42.9 per cent of females were married – in 2011, this had dropped to only 18.8 per cent of males and 17.0 per cent of females, which is a matter of grave concern for government. A strong family unit is considered necessary to provide a foundation for the prevention of problems such as the spread of HIV,

high incidence of teenage pregnancy, street children, adultery and prostitution (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 227). In contrast, the incidence of people co-habiting had increased from 12.2 per cent of males and 12.0 per cent of females in 1991 to 20.6 per cent of males and 20.8 per cent of females in 2011, which means that Botswana's cohabiting levels are high compared to other SSA countries, more closely resembling those in the Caribbean and Latin America (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 227). Mokomane (cited in Statistics Botswana, 2014) comments that cohabitation appears to be a prelude, rather than an alternative to marriage, which statement appears to be supported by statistics showing that the average age at marriage (an estimate of the average number of years lived by single persons who ultimately marry) has been rising over the years: from 29.4 years for males and 24.8 years for females in 1971 to 36.1 years for males and 32.0 years for females in 2011 (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 228). An interesting finding of the most recent Botswana census is that, in contrast with the past, women with higher than secondary education levels marry at higher levels, which suggests that "marriage is increasingly becoming a privilege of the educated" (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 225).

Marital status can impact on consumers and/or their behaviour in numerous ways. Two of the most prominent areas of impact include household wealth and joint decision-making. Botswana census data suggests that being married is linked with improved household wealth, while being separated, co-habiting or widowed appears to be related to poorer household wealth (Statistics Botswana, 2014). This intuitively makes sense, especially where both spouses are employed, due to the pooling of resources and assets, as well as the relatively high mean age at marriage.

Joint decision-making is common for FAE products for two reasons: firstly, FAE is normally acquired for the household, rather than individual use, and secondly, it normally requires a significant capital outlay. This means that many couples, whether formally married or not, often shop together for FAE, leading to joint decision-making (Lim & Beatty, 2011). The relative influence of spouses in family purchasing behaviour across decision stage and product type has been the focus of numerous studies (Cross & Gilly, 2014; Gilly, 2008; Lim & Beatty, 2011; Ndubisi & Koo, 2006; Yavas et al., 1994). Working women tend to make their own, individual decisions compared to housewives who are more reliant on their spouses (Fernandes & Panda, 2018). Family purchasing decisions are classified into five categories, namely autonomous

(husband); autonomous (wife); husband-dominated, wife-dominated and joint/syncratic (Cross & Gilly, 2014; Ndubisi & Koo, 2006; Van der Merwe, 2005). For instance, a South African study by the University of Free State and presented by Van der Merwe (2005) showed that purchases of cosmetics, non-prescription drugs and appliances were autonomously made by the wife; decisions on the husband's clothing, alcoholic beverages, home maintenance, savings and cars were autonomously made by the husband; decisions on cleaning products, kitchenware, food, the wife's clothing, children's clothing, and home furnishings were wife dominated; life insurance was husband dominated; and decisions relating to vacations, schools, housing, outside entertainment, living room furniture, television and children's toys were mostly subject to joint decision making. A similar study conducted by Cross and Gilly (2014) in the US on bi-national couples showed similarities and differences: joint decision-making was common for vacations, schools, furniture, capital expenditure and remodelling, but also included vehicles, major appliances, music, small appliances, insurance and food; children's toys and clothing and home furnishings were wife dominated; other groceries were autonomously purchased by the wife, whilst decisions relating to investments and computer equipment were autonomously made by the husband. These studies seem to lend further support for the social role theory discussed previously (refer to 2.3.2).

Research has shown that the base of marital power in a particular household often drives gender differences in marital roles, and that these gender differences have evolved over time as marital roles have become more egalitarian, often because of the increased economic and cultural capital contributed by modern wives (Cross & Gilly, 2014). Marital roles differ across cultures – for example, in a study done in Saudi Arabia, joint decision-making was common for major appliances and furniture, but the decisions on televisions and video tended to be husband dominated (Yavas et al., 1994). In a study conducted in China, Carlsson, Martinsson, Qin and Sutter (2009) reported that the higher a wife's level of education and monetary contribution to the household, the higher her influence on household decision making, whilst Communist Party membership also increased her influence. A Malay study reported that joint decision-making for furniture was more common in modern compared to traditional families; and in strongly cohesive, as opposed to extended families (Ndubisi & Koo, 2006). The foregoing seems to suggest that joint decision-making will be more common in more modern households, whilst husband-dominated decision-making will be likely in more traditional

households. It could be argued that Botswana has a more traditional culture, where, for example, under customary law women did not have equal status to men, and had limited security of tenure and access to land, since they could be evicted from their homes by the husband's family on his death. Even though customary law now operates alongside statutory law that prohibits gender discrimination, some disparity remains (MMEGI Online, 2010). However, as married women in Botswana tend to be more highly educated than single women, this may off-set any traditional power imbalance in favour of the husband.

Just like marital status can impact on household wealth and joint decision-making, the presence, number and age of children may play a role in FAE consumer behaviour, as discussed in the next section.

2.3.5 Number and age of children

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO] (2014) reports that couples with higher educational levels often choose to have smaller families, which may result in higher household disposable income and wealth. Studies on the influence that children have on family decision-making indicate that their role has changed significantly in recent years. In the past, children's influence was limited to the purchase of products where they were the primary users, such as toys or breakfast cereals. This, however, has changed and children now also exercise strong influence on non-traditional areas such as home décor, automobiles, and home electronics (Flurry, 2007; Lawlor & Prothero, 2011; Kerrane, Hogg & Bettany, 2012). Lawlor and Prothero (2011) studied Irish seven to nine-year-olds and reported that, while their requests tended to be mostly for products they consumed, namely sweets, toys, computer games, magazines and compact discs (CDs), a request for a new couch was also mentioned, possibly indicating that the scope of children's influence widens to include more household goods as they grow older. A British study reported that the purchase of a personal computer (PC) for the home led to reverse socialisation, with the oldest boy offering to teach his mother how to use it, that parents were more likely to accede to requests made by all children jointly, and that children conducted an information search on the Internet when they experienced or anticipated stiff parental resistance to their influence strategies (Kerrane et al., 2012).

In South Africa, Beneke, Silverstone, Woods and Schneider (2011) conducted research on how children influenced their parents' purchase decisions of high technology products, such as a television, digital video disc (DVD) player, computer, laptop and cell phone. The study largely confirmed international findings, in that, especially during the decision and purchase stage, children exercised significant influence, mainly due to their greater technological knowledge. A number of variables played a role, namely:

- Age and gender, with male and older children generally exerting greater influence than females or younger children.
- Family structure (such as single parents) and family type (modern or traditional), with children in single-parent homes uniquely positioned to be equal participants in family decisions.
- Income and educational levels, with children's influence increasing as family income and educational levels of the parents increased.
- Family size, with more children exercising increased influence; and
- Race, with Coloured, Indian and Chinese children seen to exert a greater influence than White or Black children, possibly because of being more educated than their parents (Beneke et al. 2011).

The presence, number and age of children can impact on consumer behaviour and could therefore be posited as a viable consumer segmentation variable. The next variable to be considered is occupation.

2.3.6 Occupation

Occupation, like education (refer to section 2.3.3), is one of the major dimensions considered to determine socio-economic status (Kolenikov & Angeles, 2004). Occupation is also closely correlated with both education and income (Zhao et al., 2014). It makes intuitive sense that high-level occupations that generate high incomes – for instance medical specialists - usually require advanced education and are more prestigious than occupations requiring lower levels of education. Occupation can be used to make inferences about a consumer's probable lifestyle, status, income, the type of work, type of individuals you associate with over time, values and all facets of the consumption process (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013).

Parmentier, Fischer and Reuber (2013) reported that success within an established organisational field depends on having field-specific social and cultural capital that allows a person to “stand out”, while acquiring the habitus that allows a person to comply with field and occupation-specific expectations in order to “fit in”. Whilst they studied fashion models, they posited that the same would hold true for academics, accountants and lawyers.

The need to “fit-in” with occupation-specific expectations may explain why certain occupations tend to possess different durable goods than others. In India, for example, owning air-conditioners and water filters was far more common for professionals than people in service industries or business, whilst ownership of a food-processor was more common for those in the service industries (Vyas, 2011). In the United States (US), ownership of briefcases and expensive watches was more important to business executives than teachers (Wittmayer, Schultz & Mittelstaedt, 1994). Although the basic products used to create a living room were the same, there were significant differences in how people from different occupational groups accessorised a living room, with some including pianos, paintings, desks and stereos, while others did not (Rassuli & Harrell, 1996). The Simmons Market Research Bureau (as cited in Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013) reported that different occupational classes consumed different beers, detergents, dog food, shampoo and paper towels and that occupational class also influenced media preferences, hobbies and shopping patterns.

Gu, Yin, Zhou, Sautter and Qiu (2016) report that homeownership among older adults in urban China was strongly associated with institutional factors, including job seniority and type of work unit, whilst the choice of car brands in India is significantly associated with income, occupation and family size (Thiripurasundari, 2016). Occupation even impacts on our health, where workers in the lower ranks of the occupational hierarchy have a higher probability of disability, report worse health and die earlier than those higher up the occupational ladder (Ravesteijn, Van Kippersluis, & Van Doorslaer, 2013).

In this study, levels of occupation studied ranged from low to high, divided into the following seven categories: unskilled; semi-skilled (such as driver); supervisory; administrative; technical/artisan; manager and professional.

Occupation clearly impacts on consumer behaviour and could fruitfully be used to profile different consumer groups. The next demographic variable to be discussed is residence.

2.3.7 Residence – urban or rural

Whether the consumer is urban or rural has long been used as a basic differentiator between consumers, as urban consumers tend to be more affluent, trendy and educated, and rural consumers poorer, less educated and more traditional, with more limited product choices (Anilkumar & Joseph, 2013; Bajaj & Bajaj, 2009; Cullen & Kingston, 2009; Lumpkin, Hawes & Darden, 1986). However, rural households often grow crops and use a variety of products from the environment to meet subsistence needs and generate cash income, so the poverty of rural households should not be overestimated (Angelsen et al., 2014). Two of the 29 LSM variables used in South Africa until 2016, namely “metropolitan dweller” and “non-urban outside GP/WC” have, since 2003, consistently been used to segment consumers, confirming the continued relevance of the urban/rural distinction to market segmentation in South Africa (SAARF, 2012).

Rural consumers often have a smaller selection of stores to choose from, these stores tend to have smaller ranges, and product prices in rural areas also tend to be higher. Chan and McNeal (2006) reported that rural Chinese had limited access to various types of retail shops, which findings were echoed in India, where far fewer FAE shops were reported for rural areas (Anilkumar & Joseph, 2013). The fact that prices are often higher in rural areas and the selection more limited results in out-shopping behaviour, where consumers travel to bigger centres to acquire goods. Research conducted in India reported that rural consumers out-shopped more than urban consumers, and that their out-shopping behaviour was value orientated and functional, aimed at procuring better prices and a bigger variety, whilst urban consumers out-shopped not because the local assortment was inadequate, but for fun and entertainment and a break from routine (Bajaj & Bajaj, 2009).

Research suggests that rural consumers are less wealthy and more conservative than their urban counterparts. For instance, Cullen and Kingston (2009) studied the food-related lifestyles of urban and rural consumers in Ireland, and reported that, although the two groups considered the same five aspects important when choosing new food products, namely nutritional composition, price, taste, quality and health issues, rural consumers regarded price

as most important, while urban consumers rated quality as the priority, and the latter group were also slightly more open to trial new food products.

Moreover, urban consumers appear to own different durable goods than rural consumers: In India, ownership of washing-machines, air-conditioners, home gyms and tablets was significantly more common in urban than rural households, while land ownership was more common in rural households (Anilkumar & Joseph, 2013). Choudhary and Vasudevan (2017) reported that rural households in India were also more inclined to own private vehicles than urban households with the same economic standard. Amongst households with regular salaried members, rural households' preference to own two-wheelers was greater than that of urban households, possibly due to better availability of public transport in urban centres (Choudhary & Vasudevan, 2017). Anecdotal evidence suggests that place of residence could even impact on FAE product preferences: In Namibia, for instance, consumers living in arid desert areas prefer green lounge suites, whilst those in higher rainfall areas in the north prefer blue lounge suites (P. Tromp, personal communication, 22 November 2016).

Place of residence can also impact on the type of information sources used by consumers during the pre-purchase search for durable goods. Anilkumar and Joseph (2013) reported that urban dwellers are far more likely to consult the internet, whilst rural dwellers are more reliant on word of mouth and FM radio. Both groups used television and print.

Some 64 per cent of the Botswana population is urban (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 11). The South Eastern and Eastern regions are more developed, with the Western and Northern regions disadvantaged (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 15). For this research, the following cities and towns were regarded as urban, with the remainder seen as rural: Gaborone, Francistown, Selebi-Phikwe, Lobatse, Orapa, Jwaneng and Sowa Town (Statistics Botswana, 2015a, p. 3).

The literature thus suggests differences in consumer behaviour depending on place of residence. The next variable to be considered is level of income.

2.3.8 Level of income

Waheeduzzaman (2006, p. 39) studied the historical sales volumes of six consumer durables (dishwasher, microwave, refrigerator, television, videocassette recorder (VCR), and washing machine) in twenty emerging markets, namely Argentina, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Egypt,

Hungary, India, Indonesia, Israel, Malaysia, Mexico, Peru, the Philippines, Poland, Singapore, South Africa, Thailand, Turkey, and Venezuela, during a 24-year period (1977–2000). Different studies showed that the most prominent variable affecting consumer demand for and consumption of these high-priced goods was consumer income, both permanent and temporary. The acquisition of these goods was closely related to the “stream of income” a consumer is likely to earn during his lifetime. Furthermore, the relationship between consumption of durables and per capita income is regarded as positive (Waheeduzzaman, 2006). The consumer’s level of income is thus particularly important for the FAE industry.

Guarin and Knorringa (2014) clarify that, rather than an income difference, what seems to distinguish the new middle class in emerging markets from the poor is the prevalence, among the new middle class, of stable, salaried employment. Furthermore, a household’s purchasing power is determined by its level of income, combined with its accumulated wealth; and a consumer’s ability to buy on credit is ultimately determined by their current and past income (wealth) (Erasmus & Mathunjwa, 2011; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013).

According to Guarin and Knorringa (2014), it is irrefutable that consumption patterns change as wealth increases. Expenditures tend to move from basic to discretionary goods. Food-consumption patterns are normally the first to change, with the proportion of income dedicated to food diminishing as income rises (the so-called Engel’s Law); and food expenditures tending to shift from a prevalence of starchy tubers and cereals towards meat, vegetables, fruits and processed food (Grunert et al., 2011). According to National Bureau of Statistics data, Chinese consumer expenditure for all income groups is reported to have shifted significantly away from food and towards transport, housing, and other discretionary items such as education, clothing and recreation (Guarin & Knorringa, 2014). A similar shift towards increased discretionary spending as a result of growing income levels is also recorded in India (Guarin & Knorringa, 2014). Consumer spending has increased markedly in Botswana from BWP 6,000 million in 2008 to BWP 10,925 million in 2018 (www.tradingeconomics.com). It can be assumed that this was accompanied by a similar shift in spending, which would benefit the FAE industry.

Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) caution that income facilitates purchases, but does not cause or explain them – for example, a college professor and a truck driver may have similar

incomes, but it is likely that their consumption patterns will be different for a variety of products. It is suggested that this difference in behaviour can be attributed to different lifestyles and values. Thus, level of income on its own will seldom be useful as a segmentation variable.

As discussed in previous sections (see 2.3.3 and 2.3.6), education, occupation and income tend to be closely correlated. Education and occupation directly influence preferences for activities, products and media, while income provides the means to acquire them. This has the result that income is generally used in conjunction with other demographic variables in segmentation studies. For example, Cullen and Kingston (2009) used age, residence, disposable income, occupation, and education together with food-related lifestyles to segment Irish food consumers. Ko et al. (2012) investigated how age, gender, monthly income, occupation and level of sports activity participation influenced sportswear purchasing behaviour in four different countries. Shukla et al. (2013) used gender, age, education, income and family size, as well as a number of psychographic variables to profile private label brand consumers in Britain. These examples illustrate that level of income, when combined with other variables, could be viable for segmentation purposes.

In addition to being useful for segmentation of consumers, level of income can also impact directly on general consumer behaviour. Some empirical examples follow.

Consumption of credit: Creditworthiness is based on a consumer's income, previous instances of defaulting and existing debt. This is assessed at the time when an application for credit is made. As a general rule, high incomes are associated with higher consumption of credit (Erasmus & Mathunjwa, 2011).

Purchase of extended service contracts: When studying the purchase of extended service contracts (ESCs) for electronic products, Chen et al. (2009) reported a higher probability for low-income consumers to purchase ESCs, since they are less likely to be able to afford to replace the product in the event of product failure. In addition, lower-income consumers are also more prone to utilise the savings obtained from promotions to purchase ESCs for electronic products. This differed from motor vehicles, where high-income consumers buy ESCs to avoid maintenance because they have higher time costs (Chen et al., 2009).

External information search: Due to the high time costs of high-income consumers, they may be less likely to participate in an extensive external information search, trading off time in favour of a selection based on limited evaluation (Cooil et al., 2007).

Perception of price fairness: What we earn could impact on the likelihood that we will spread negative word of mouth if we feel that we had to pay more for a product than someone else. Malc, Mumel and Pisnik (2016) studied the perception of price fairness and its influence on consumer behaviour. They hypothesised that, when presented with a scenario that they had to pay more for a shirt than in the past or that was paid by someone else, customers' income levels would affect both perceived price fairness; and the likelihood of engaging in negative shopping behaviour. As expected, respondents with lower levels of income reported lower levels of perceived price fairness and were far more prone to engaging in negative shopping behaviour – such as negative word of mouth, complaints and leaving the seller – than those with higher income levels.

Objective knowledge of consumer rights and complaint behaviour: Donoghue, Van Oordt and Strydom (2015) studied the relationship between South African consumers' knowledge of consumerism (consumer protection) and their consumer complaint behaviour (CCB) relating to their displeasure with a high-tech electronic product. They reported that level of income, race and gender related positively to objective knowledge. Consumers with fair levels of objective knowledge were more inclined to take private action – such as boycotting the retailer/manufacturer/product, complaining to family and friends, or switching brands. In addition, these consumers were also more likely to pursue public action, such as complaining to consumer protection agencies, voluntary organisations, or the media; seeking redress directly from the manufacturer or retailer; or taking legal action against the manufacturer or retailer.

Buying counterfeit goods: A Moroccan study reported that low-income consumers are more willing to buy counterfeit goods (Hamelin, Nwankwo & El Houdouchi, 2013). This may be because they crave the status afforded to the owners of luxury brands (Han et al., 2010).

The examples cited provide evidence that level of income can be a key distinguishing variable in consumer behaviour.

A question that must be considered is how level of income will be assessed. Total household income is normally used in surveys, yet this approach holds a number of challenges in predicting consumer spending power. These challenges include inaccurate income reporting, especially at higher income levels (Battistin & Padula, 2016; Bricker, Henriques, Krimmel & Sabelhaus, 2016; Hurst, Li & Pugsley, 2014); failure to add the value of the time of household members not spent in income-earning employment; failure to report payments received in kind, like the value of company cars; failure to consider the value of the existing ownership of household durables and housing; and the focus on current income that does not include long-term debt incurred (Rossiter, 1995). Despite these challenges, household income remains a core measure in consumer behaviour studies.

In Botswana, the potential impact of the environmental income of rural consumers must also be considered. "Environmental income" includes wild plants and animals harvested from croplands, as well as extraction from non-cultivated sources, such as fallows, natural forests and other non-forest wildlands such as grass-, bush- and wetlands (Angelsen et al., 2014; Walelign, Charlery, Smith-Hall, Chhetri & Larsen, 2016). Throughout the developing world rural households use food, construction materials, fodder, fuel, medicine, and other products from forests and other natural, non-cultivated environments to meet subsistence needs and generate cash income. Due to this practice, the income levels of rural households could be underestimated using traditional measures, since such environmental income can account for up to 28 per cent of rural households' total subsistence and cash income (Angelsen et al., 2016, p. S12). Since Botswana has a substantial rural population, it can thus be assumed that the level of income indicated by rural dwellers on any questionnaire is an understatement of their true income. However, since the level of environmental income is not easy to establish, this was not measured in this study.

Customers who participated in this study and purchased on credit were expected to provide proof of income as part of the credit application process. Under these circumstances, it is unlikely that they would misrepresent their income. However, they might tend to underreport their expenditures to be able to obtain credit (MyFin24, 2015).

Finally, it must be kept in mind that statutory minimum wage levels in Botswana are low compared to those in South Africa, where a minimum wage of R3,500 per month took effect 1 May 2018 (Von Fintel & Piek, 2017).

Table 2 presents a summary of the current Botswana statutory minimum wage levels. The exchange rate between Pula and ZAR is approximately 1 Pula = 1.3094 ZAR (90-day average on 12 August 2018).

Table 2.

Botswana Statutory Minimum Wage Levels per Industry for 2016/17 Fiscal Year

Industry	P per hour	P per month
Building, Construction, Exploration and Quarries	5.46	1057
Garage, Motor Trade and Road Transport	5.46	1057
Hotel, Catering and Entertainment	5.46	1197
Manufacturing, Service and Repair	5.46	1103
Security Guards Employed by Security Companies	5.46	1420
Wholesale Distribution	5.46	1103
Retail Distributive Trade	4.85	980
Watchmen	4.61	1199
Domestic Sector	3.03	625
Agriculture	-	620

Gross income level, meaning income before tax, was measured for the purpose of this study (amount in Pula). In addition, the source of income, such as permanent salary/wages; part time salary/wages; farming income; own business income; property income, donations or other was surveyed (Case & Deaton, 1998).

It follows that the level and amount of income can impact on consumer behaviour and could therefore be posited as a viable consumer segmentation variable. The next variable under consideration is social class.

2.3.9 Social class

Carey and Markus (2016a, p. 570) define social class as “a complex and multifaceted construct – a function of both a person's social rank and status and his or her access to material wealth and resources”. Thus, social class can be defined through objective measures of wealth, education, and occupation, as well as through subjective measures of feelings of relative status and wealth, for instance where you think you stand with respect to others in your community

(Carey & Markus, 2016a; Carey & Markus, 2016b; Pham, 2016). Kharas (as cited in McEwan et al., 2015) states that South Africa's middle classes are often perceived as the consumer classes, confirming that this is as much a social description as an economic category. Shavitt, Jiang and Cho (2016, p. 583) argue that it would be extremely difficult to understand consumer behaviour without considering social class, as your rank in the social hierarchy has a "powerful influence on almost everything in your daily life – where you live, what you wear, where you travel, dine and shop, what you drive, and what media you consume".

The working class occupies the lower end of the social class strata, with lower status, rank, power and fewer resources. Lower social classes are characterised by lower levels of schooling (a high school education or less), lower income levels and individuals who normally work in blue-collar or labour-centric occupations. This contrasts with the middle classes, who have relatively greater status, rank, power, and resources. The middle classes are characterised by higher levels of education (normally a tertiary qualification), higher income levels, and professional or managerial occupations (Carey & Markus, 2016a; Carey & Markus, 2016b). Recently, there has been a tendency to distinguish between the 'traditional' (petit bourgeois and/or professional classes in post-colonial contexts) and the 'new' middle classes (defined by either income or expenditure) (McEwan et al., 2015). In South Africa, the traditional middle class was drawn largely on racial difference, whilst the coming of democracy has facilitated the growth of new black middle classes, including wealthy business owners and public sector white-collar workers (McEwan et al., 2015). Whilst some regard the so-called 'new' middle classes as focused solely on the accumulation of financial and cultural capital, with looking after the self and being seen more important as an interest in others, this has not been confirmed in South African research (McEwan et al., 2015). They reported that care for friends and family, as well as aspiration, was found to be core values amongst diverse South African middle-class consumer groups.

A report published by the African Development Bank [ADB] (2011) reflects that the middle-class population in Botswana accounted for 48 per cent of the population. Middle-class households have fewer children, tertiary education and increasing disposable income. Middle-class consumers tend to reside in bigger and permanent dwellings equipped with amenities, with a high level of ownership of major household durable products (ADB, 2011). Van Blerk (2018) reported that the African middle class cannot be defined in monetary terms alone, but

that there are multiple factors that determine middle-class status, mainly being employed, running a business or in further education; having a disposable income (not spending more than 75% on utilities) and having at least secondary school education.

Carey and Markus (2016a) argue that social class impacts on an individual's understanding and experience of the world, and shapes general behaviour. Where middle-class individuals are brought up to value individuality and independence, working-class individuals put a premium on relationships and interdependence. As a result, social class may impact on an individual's self-construal, with working-class individuals being more interdependent and middle-class individuals more independent. Social class also impacts on the way of thinking, where working and middle-class individuals tend to think more holistically and analytically respectively (Shavitt, et al., 2016). For middle-class consumers, choices express personal preferences, whilst working-class consumers attempt to fulfil relational goals (Carey & Markus, 2016a; Carey & Markus, 2016b; Shavitt et al., 2016).

Furthermore, social class can impact on consumption behaviour. Middle-class consumers may resort to conspicuous consumption to display their status or build their reputation (McEwan et al., 2015; Shavitt et al., 2016). Kaus (2013) reports that in South Africa, Black and Coloured households tend to spend on average about 35 per cent to 50 per cent more on visible consumption (cars, clothing, jewellery, footwear) than comparable White households. In contrast, research done by McEwan et al. (2015) on diverse middle-class consumers in the Western Cape found that thrift is an important ethical choice and practice that determines consumption patterns. However, they confirm that image and status are becoming more important as the middle classes grow and become younger in profile (McEwan et al., 2015).

Working-class consumers often use compensatory consumption to offset the feelings of being threatened in their interactions with the upper classes (Shavitt et al., 2016). As example, Conley (2016) reports that working-class parents buy expensive electronic goods for their children as a way to help them fit in and not suffer from the social stigma of economic hardship.

Knowing whether your targeted consumers are working or middle class can be beneficial to a retailer or marketer, as marketers use distinctions in social class to create different advertising messages. The messages aimed at the middle class emphasise differentiation from others, such

as uniqueness or breaking rules; while advertising aimed at the working class focuses on family, friends and connections to others (Carey & Markus, 2016a; Carey & Markus, 2016b). However, Carey and Markus (2016a) caution against marketing strategies that infringe, threaten or undermine either category, since most working-class Americans, being exposed to mainstream independent American culture cycles, are likely to develop and exert two selves – one rooted in the independence of the individual and one rooted in the interdependence of the individual with others. They suggest that the most effective marketing strategies for shaping working-class consumer behaviour will likely involve leveraging both selves.

Ndletyana (2014) mentions that most black middle-class consumers in South Africa are first generation and maintain close contact with working-class relatives. Under these circumstances, it is suggested that they may also have to balance similar hybrid selves, both independent and interdependent, which marketers will do well to keep in mind. Botswana does not share South Africa's history, but it is likely that most middle-class consumers also maintain connections to their rural, working-class origins.

Social class as base for market segmentation is commonly computed as a weighted index of education, occupation and amount and/or source of income – although occupation is regarded as the most useful proxy of social class (Foxall et al., 2009; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014). However, Shavitt et al. (2016) report that subjective socioeconomic status, typically assessed by asking respondents to indicate their perceived social class, can be at least as valuable an indicator as objective socioeconomic factors in examining the impact of class on psychological functioning and behaviour. In this study, participants were asked to indicate their perceived social class (self-report) as it was argued that the perceived social class could influence consumption behaviour. This was studied in conjunction with the three underlying demographic variables (income, education and occupation) to determine whether social class could be linked to certain consumption patterns.

The final demographic variable to be considered is family life cycle.

2.3.10 Family life cycle

Family life cycle (FLC) is a concept that has long been popular in consumer expenditure research. Neulinger and Simon (2011) state that the basic assumption underlying the FLC

approach is that most families progress through an orderly number of stages, each with its own consumption habits, needs and financial possibilities, whilst Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) postulate that FLC is a set of composite variables, including the age and marital status of the household head, and the age of the oldest and youngest child. The traditional FLC consists of five stages, namely 1) bachelorhood (single living apart from parents); 2) honeymooners (young married couple); 3) parenthood (married couple with at least one child living at home); 4) post-parenthood (older married couple with no children living at home); and 5) dissolution (one surviving spouse) (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014).

Today, many households follow a much more complex and varied family life cycle. Some family compositions and stages that are not included in the traditional FLC are: single individuals living with their parents for a longer period of time; single parents (whether unwed or divorced); couples that delay child bearing; remarriages resulting in step- or so-called blended families; and the absence of one or more parents (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013; Neulinger & Simon, 2011; Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2011; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014). The Green Paper on Families (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2011, p. 29) illustrates the current complexity, by listing thirteen different types of families that are common in South Africa, namely three-generation; nuclear; skip-generation; single unmarried parent; single married parent (absent spouse); elderly; single adult; child-headed; married couple; siblings; married couple with adopted children; single with adopted children; and others co-habiting. The report singles out that the nuclear family was the most common (23.25%), followed by single adult families (20.40%) and three-generation families. To acknowledge the fact that not all modern households share family or blood ties, some authors prefer to use the term household life cycle (HLC) rather than FLC (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013; Neulinger & Simon, 2011; Trinh, Wright & Stern, 2014).

To reflect the current diversity of family and living arrangements, expanded family life cycles have been proposed. While there is agreement on the central idea that each family progresses through a number of distinct stages from point of formation to death of both spouses, there is no agreement on the exact number or description of stages: For instance, Da Silva, Slongo and Rohde (2016) and Neulinger and Simon (2011) both include nine FLC stages, where only the first three coincide. Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) include eleven FLC stages in three age

groups, considering marital status and the presence of children at home, whilst SAARF (2011) propose eight FLC stage groups. This is indicative that the traditional FLC is no longer an accurate reflection of reality.

Barnhart and Penaloza (2013) argue that the final stages of the FLC, namely Empty Nest and Solitary Survivor, do not take into account the modern reality that many consumers live long enough to require regular assistance with consumption activities, and that consumption in the final life stage is mostly done by an ensemble consisting of the elderly individual, family members and paid carer.

In this study, the eleven-stage FLC proposed by Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) was applied, as it is the most comprehensive.

Some studies report a link between the consumption of durables, the use of credit and the FLC. Scott and Walker (2012) analysed household expenses in Britain. They established that reliance on consumption smoothing mechanisms such as hire-purchases are strongly related to the household life cycle, particularly the costs associated with new household formation, which represented the most important expenditure “crisis” over the lifetime of the typical working-class household. In the same way, Wasberg, Hira and Fanslow (1992) identified factors influencing the amount of and changes in consumer debt held by households, and found that individuals between the ages of 34 and 49 years as well as newly-wed couples were high users of credit because they were in a stage of the family life cycle when they needed durable goods such as furniture and household appliances to establish their own homes. Even though new household formation may no longer necessarily be linked to marriage, it can be assumed that, whatever the cause, household formation will always lead to an increase in consumption of durables.

Along the same lines, an interest in the purchase of furniture was found to be highest among newly married couples and among families with grown-up children. As is to be expected, young families place relatively greater emphasis on sensibility and practicality, while the families in the later stages of the FLC attach more importance to the attractiveness of the furniture and the ability of items to reflect good taste (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014). Schaninger and Putrevu (2006) found that the presence and number of children in families co-vary positively with major

appliance ownership and expenditures, which also makes sense intuitively. Results of studies by Lee and Schaninger (2003) indicated that delayed marriage (DM) or childless marriage (CC) couples possessed significantly more valuable stereos, video machines and televisions than empty nest (EN) couples. DM and CC couples also had significantly higher valued homes, vehicles, televisions, personal computers, dining-room and bedroom furniture than newly-wed (NW) couples. Traditional EN couples indicated the most valuable primary homes, cars and furniture (Lee & Schaninger, 2003). The foregoing suggests that FLC could be used to delineate target markets for different types of FAE.

FLC impacts not only on consumption of durables, but also on consumption of other products and services in a number of ways. For example, Lee and Schaninger (2003) observed that young couples without children spend significantly more on alcoholic beverages, gourmet foods, home furnishings, apparel and entertainment than couples with children, but spend considerably less on housing as they are more likely to rent a property. Neuliger and Simon (2011) report that FLC impacted on health consciousness and dietary habits, such as breakfast consumption, fruit and vegetable intake and healthy eating in general, with young singles and couples, households with young children and single-parent families demonstrating a high preference for and consumption of convenience food, suggesting that the time set aside for food preparation and consumption is very important. Trinh et al. (2014) found that brand loyalty toward grocery products was linked to the FLC, with brand loyalty decreasing from the young single stage to the young couple stage and the young family stage; remaining relatively low at the older family stage; and increasing at the post family stage and the single elderly stage. Choi, Lehto and Brey (2010) reported that FLC impacted on the choice of vacation resorts. These examples demonstrate that insight into the FLC stage of a consumer may assist a retailer to develop targeted promotion and marketing strategies.

FLC also impacts on the intensity of saving and attitudes towards financial activities. According to Rószkiewicz (2014), young families have the lowest inclination towards restraint, since this life stage is dominated by short-term goals, such as buying and furnishing an apartment and providing education for children, which displaced the behaviour of restraint. The propensity to restraint intensified with consecutive phases of the family life cycle, to where it was a dominant attitude in the final FLC, since the household had already achieved its life goals (Rószkiewicz, 2014).

Although the FLC has been criticised (Schaninger & Putrevu, 2006; Wagner & Hanna, 1983) for failing to control for socioeconomic and demographic variables, especially income, the inclusion of this construct in this study could still be useful, since the acquisition of FAE is intricately linked to a household rather than individuals, and information on the type of family or household involved may serve to inform differences in behaviour. As such, a question on the age of the eldest and youngest child was included (together with age and marital status) which provided data to determine the FLC of the respondent.

This concludes the discussion of the most commonly used demographic variables for profiling purposes. Despite reports that demographic indicators are not as valid as psychographic or behavioural criteria to segment consumers, the literature provides many empirical examples where demographics contribute toward the understanding of differences in consumer behaviour and thus confirms that these variables may prove useful for segmentation purposes. However, as most studies also show that segmentation that combines demographics with other variables are more useful to marketers, the next section focuses on lifestyle (including psychographics), AIO and values.

2.4 Lifestyle

The lifestyle concept used in marketing was first introduced in 1963 by Lazer (as cited by Grunert et al., 2011; Hassan, 2015; Thøgersen, 2017a, p. 74) who defined lifestyle as “a systems concept that refers to a distinctive mode of living in its broadest sense, embodying the patterns that develop and emerge from the dynamics of living in a society”. Lifestyle is a mental construct, which is different from, but which explains behaviour (Thøgersen, 2017a). Lifestyle is “how consumers live, and includes the products they purchase, how they consume, what they think, and how they feel toward them” (Ahmad, Omar & Ramayah, 2010, p. 234). Lifestyles do not operate in a vacuum but bring together multiple and sometimes conflicting priorities like family and work (Thøgersen, 2017a). Lifestyle thus refers to a way of life in its broadest sense, and is therefore an inclusive or umbrella concept (Grunert et al., 2011).

In everyday language, the lifestyle concept is mostly associated with media and consumption that can be used to define or express one's identity, for example one's home and furniture, but also what you wear, drive and the music you listen to (Hakala et al., 2015; Thøgersen, 2017a). People often adopt a lifestyle that aligns with the prevailing features of the social groups to

which they belong or wish to belong (Baudrillard, cited in Gonzales & Bello, 2002). Lorenzen (2012) argues that “lifestyles assist in organizing self-identity and self-expression”, since lifestyles are practices that include how you present yourself, consumption and interaction, while Cătălin and Andreea (2014) confirm that lifestyle can be considered as an irrefutable means of self-expression. Because consumers adopt specific behavioural routines reflective of their lifestyles, this will result in the purchase and consumption of different types of products and services (Gonzales & Bello, 2002). An increased knowledge of the lifestyles of consumers will thus enhance the ability of the producer, marketer and retailer to satisfy the needs and wants of their consumers.

While lifestyle research is not limited to a specific discipline, it has evolved within marketing and sociology, in particular (Thøgersen, 2017b). The main purpose of lifestyle research in marketing is for market segmentation, where lifestyle segmentation was proposed as a more effective way to divide consumers into relatively homogeneous groups when demographic segmentation became less useful with the growth in consumer affluence in the 1970s (Thøgersen, 2017b). According to Bogue and Yu (2016), what consumers do (activities), what they buy (behaviours), their interests, and how they feel about life—for example, their opinions, attitudes and values – are recognised to have a significant impact on their purchase behaviour, and by analysing these, marketers can compile a more complete profile of the target market. Lifestyle segmentation, also called psychographic segmentation, thus covers the broadest spectrum of all consumer-based segmentation variables (Bogue & Yu, 2016).

Some disagreement does, however, exist in the literature about the terminology and scope of the lifestyle construct. Lifestyle can either be considered as a general concept, or specifically related to the perceptions, preferences or attitudes concerning a specific product or category. Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) assert that lifestyle measures can thus either be macro to reflect how individuals live in general (the traditional view of lifestyle) or micro and describe their behaviours and attitudes with respect to a specific product category or activity. General lifestyle measures have often been used in ethnocentric research to determine how likely consumers in a new market will be to adopt foreign brands across a variety of product categories (Goldberg & Janse van Rensburg, 2013; Kucukemiroglu, Harcar & Spillan, 2007; Mensah, Bahouth, Ziemnowics, 2011; Spillan, Chaubey, Ziemnowicz, Singh & Vyas, 2007).

In contrast, an example of lifestyle research pertaining to a specific product category is reported by Chang et al. (2015a), who studied Taiwanese consumers of smartphones. Their findings included that there are three distinct lifestyles for consumers of smartphones (early adopters, pragmatists and the majority) and that these different lifestyles moderated the impact of the product characteristics, demand motives and sources of information on intention to purchase. In another product category specific study focusing on kitchen appliances, Hur, Kim and Park (2010) investigated the food related AIO of female consumers in the USA. They report 12 lifestyle factors, namely social and dining-oriented; health food-oriented; party-oriented; refrigerated food-oriented; size of kitchen appliances; indifference toward kitchen appliances; cleanness of kitchen appliances; improvement requirements of kitchen appliances; environment-oriented; family-oriented; trend and innovation-oriented; and price-consciousness. These lifestyle factors were ultimately used to cluster the respondents into six consumer segments, namely social- and dining-oriented; wellbeing-oriented; family-oriented; price-conscious; innovation- and action-oriented; and convenience-oriented. These segments show significant differences in socio-demographic characteristics, motivation for buying kitchen appliances, consumption situations, and evaluation of the quality aspect of foods.

From the examples, it can be deduced that people are likely to have several interconnected lifestyles, rather than only one. Since a person's lifestyle is not necessarily consistent across domains, Thøgersen (2017b) has argued that descriptions of lifestyles should be restricted to specific life domains. Further examples of different domains that have been the subject of empirical lifestyle research are food, where the food-related lifestyle has been extensively researched (see Thøgersen, 2017b for a review); housing, where housing related lifestyles was studied across 10 European countries (Thøgersen, 2017a); green lifestyles (Dansirichaisawat & Suwunnamek, 2014; Lorenzen, 2012); online lifestyles (Ahmad et al., 2010; Narvanen, Kartastenpaa & Kuusela, 2013; Yu, 2011); lifestyle relating to health (Hassan, 2015) wine (Bruwer, Roediger & Herbst, 2017; Pomarici et al., 2017); high technology (Lee, Lim, Jolly & Lee, 2009; Chang et al., 2015a) and tourism (James, Ravichandran, Chuang & Bolden, 2017). In this study, the FAE related lifestyle of Botswana consumers was studied, rather than their lifestyle in general.

Various combinations of variables are used for lifestyle research, such as psychographics in general; activity, interest, opinion (AIO); value and lifestyle (VALS); and personality, values, and

trends (Bogue & Yu, 2016; Hur et al. 2010; Valentine & Powers, 2013). Models to assess domain-specific lifestyles have also been proposed and empirically researched by Grunert et al. (2011) and Thøgersen (2017b). These different combinations of variables and models will be reviewed next.

2.4.1 Psychographics

The term psychographics was made popular by Demby in 1994, when he put together ‘psychology’, and ‘demographics’, as a way of adding the richness of the social and behavioural sciences to demographics to improve understanding of consumer behaviour, and to develop better advertising strategies (Vyncke, 2002). Today, psychographics is often equated with lifestyle research, and is based on widespread surveys using appropriate quantitative methods (Bogue & Yu, 2016; Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Vyncke, 2002). Ahmad et al. (2010) acknowledge that lifestyle and psychographics are often used interchangeably, but argue that psychographics is the way that lifestyle is measured and made operationally useful to marketing managers. Thus, while lifestyle is the overarching umbrella concept, psychographics can be regarded as the way lifestyle can be operationalised for measurement.

There is little agreement on what is included in the definition of psychographics. Demby (1994, p. 26), one of the fathers of modern psychographics, defined psychographics very widely as “the use of psychological, sociological, and anthropological factors, such as benefits desired (from the behavior being studied), self-concept, and lifestyle (or serving style) to determine how the market is segmented”. Other researchers hold the view that psychographics only includes AIO (Foxall et al., 2009; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014; Yankelovich & Meer, 2006), while some also include values (Ahmad et al., 2010; Valentine & Powers, 2013; Vyncke, 2002); attitudes and beliefs (Handa & Sharma, 2015); buying behaviours (Valentine & Powers, 2013); media exposure (Valentine & Powers, 2013; Vyncke, 2002); life visions and aesthetic style (Vyncke, 2002); brand loyalty (Shukla et al., 2013; Trinh et al., 2014), and even specific variables such as smart-shopper self-perceptions, general deal proneness, impulsiveness, price-related deal proneness and end-of-aisle display proneness (Shukla et al., 2013).

While there are numerous variations in the definition of psychographics, the commonalities are that psychographics is quantitative and not qualitative, and entails much more than demographics, adding psychological dimensions across a wide field. Psychographic information

“puts flesh on demographic bones” (Wells, 1975) and thus allows for a more complete picture of an individual, making it easier to understand how to market products to them (Ahmad et al., 2010).

Having discussed the construct of lifestyle and different definitions of psychographics, the focus will now move to commonly used methods to measure aspects of lifestyle, namely AIO and values. This will be followed by a discussion of a domain-specific lifestyle model.

2.4.2 Activities, interests and opinions (AIO)

AIO lifestyle research developed from earlier activity and attitude research (Wells, 1975). Some researchers report that the “A” refers to “Attitudes” (for instance Hur et al., 2010), while most others state that it refers to “Activities” (Banerjee & Mishra, 2015; Goldberg & Janse van Rensburg, 2013; Handa & Sharma, 2015; Harcar & Kaynak, 2008; Vyncke, 2002).

Activities refer to the way consumers spend their time and money and are visible actions such as work, social events, hobbies, vacation, community, entertainment, shopping, clubs and sports (Ahmad et al., 2010; Vyncke, 2002). Interests are defined as the degree of arousal and excitement that accompanies anticipated or continuing participation in some events; or objects and topics considered more or less important, such as family, job, home, community, food, fashion, recreation, media, achievements, etc. (Ahmad et al., 2010; Vyncke, 2002). Opinions are descriptive beliefs (of oneself, politics, social issues, education, business, economics, products, culture, the future, etc. that reflect the view consumers have of themselves and the world around them, formed when they assess the importance of things they believe to be factually correct (Ahmad et al., 2010; Vyncke, 2002). Three typical AIO statements could be:

- I often listen to popular music (activity);
- I am very interested in the latest fashion trends (interest); and
- A woman’s place is in the home (opinion) (Vyncke, 2002).

Psychographic profiling by general AIO has been criticised by Yankelovich and Meer (2006, p. 2) as “very weak” at predicting people's purchases, making it a “very poor” tool to know how to keep existing customers or recruit new ones, although it was found to be effective at brand reinforcement and positioning. As commercial activity is driven by product loyalty, purchasing

history and a propensity to trade up, which are in turn informed by attitudes, beliefs and values relating to a specific product class or service offering, rather than mere general AIO, Yankelovich and Meer (2006) proposed that in order to drive market share or develop new products, general AIO research should be replaced by category or product-specific AIO research. These efforts should be supplemented by research on self-image and aspirations (Yankelovich & Meer, 2006).

The call for more category or product-specific AIO research appears to have been heeded: Recent AIO research on specific product categories includes luxury goods (Banerjee & Mishra, 2015), cereal (Bogue & Yu, 2016), technology products (Chang et al., 2015a), health (Hassan, 2015), kitchen appliances (Hur et al., 2010), sportswear (Ko et al., 2012), high technology (Lee et al., 2009), food (Thøgersen, 2017a), housing (Thøgersen, 2017b) and information and communications technology (ICT) (Yu, 2011).

In this study FAE category related activities, interests and opinions (AIO) were researched.

The approach to measure lifestyle via large batteries of AIO statements has been viewed as overly extensive and burdensome in more recent years, with the outcome that the use of the values construct as a means to describe lifestyle is gaining support (Jansen, 2014; Vyncke, 2002). This is the topic of the next section.

2.4.3 Values

Lifestyles are routines according to which people live and spend their time and money, and reflect consumers' values (Gunter & Furnham, 1992; Jansen, 2014). The relationship between lifestyles and values is also implied by Chang et al. (2015a, p. 1201) who state: "Consumers' lifestyles are a way of reflecting their inner needs through explicit behaviour", while Vyncke (2002, p. 448) defines values as "desirable, trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in people's lives". According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2014, p. 304), values are "part of beliefs, but relatively few compared to beliefs; they serve as a guide for culturally appropriate behaviour; are enduring or difficult to change; are not tied to specific objects or situations; and are widely accepted by members of a specific society".

As can be expected, there is no agreement on the content and number of individual values, and many ways of measuring values are found in the literature (De Raad et al., 2016; Fraj &

Martinez, 2006). Some of the most commonly used instruments include the Rokeach value survey (RVS) proposed by Rokeach in 1973, which includes 18 terminal values (referring to desirable end states of existence) and 18 instrumental values (referring to preferable modes of behaviour) (Rokeach, 1973). The list of values (LOV) developed by Kahle from the Survey Research Centre at the University of Michigan in 1983 is based on Rokeach's work and includes nine values (Fraj & Martinez, 2006; Sudbury-Riley et al., 2015; Vyncke, 2002; Yu, 2011). The Schwartz value survey developed in 1992 includes 57 values (SVS57) that are classified into ten motivationally distinct value types that form a continuum of related motivations, for instance achievement and power both emphasise social esteem and superiority (Jansen, 2014). The Schwartz value inventory (SVI) is a shortened 10-item tool derived from the VS57 that measures an individual's assessment of the importance of ten life values grouped into four dimensions, namely self-enhancement, self-transcendence, conservation and openness to change (Khera & Malik, 2017). A summary of the contents of these different value measurements is provided in Table 3. Similarities and differences are discernible.

As discussed in section 2.3.8, Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) believe that the way consumers spend their income reflects different values. This is supported by Hakala et al. (2015), who argue that acquiring furniture represents culturally defined norms, expectations and aesthetic values. Values that take hierarchical primacy over attitudes, may influence a wide spectrum of consumer behaviours across many situations and are of crucial importance in international research (Jansen, 2014; Sudbury-Riley et al., 2015; Vyncke, 2002). A better understanding of the values consumers hold will thus enhance the ability of a producer, marketer and retailer to meet consumer needs.

Table 3.
Comparison of Different Value Measurement Instruments

RVS (terminal 18)	LOV (9)	SVS57 (10 types)
a comfortable life	being self-fulfilled in life	self-direction
an exciting life	being well respected in life	stimulation
a sense of accomplishment	having an exciting life	hedonism
a world of beauty	having a sense of belonging in life	achievement
a world at peace	having fun and enjoyment in life	power
equality	having security in life	security
family security	having self-respect in life	conformity
freedom	having warm relationships with others	tradition
happiness	obtaining a sense of accomplishment in life	benevolence
inner harmony		universalism
mature love		
national security		
pleasure		
salvation		
self-respect		
social recognition		
true friendship		
wisdom		

(Compiled from Lee et al., 2007; Sudbury-Riley et al., 2015; Vyncke, 2002; Yu, 2011)

Empirical research comparing the values of Americans and Canadians has demonstrated that the groups, despite their close physical proximity, differ on several values, for instance Canadians are more health conscious and active, whilst Americans are more independent; family oriented and economically conscious (Harcar & Kaynak, 2008). A segmentation study on beer consumers in Kosovo reported that one cluster of consumers ranked recreation and enjoyment as their most important value, which contrasted with the safety and security values of the other two clusters. This insight could be useful in designing different promotions for the different segments (Begunca, 2017). In a Dutch study, Jansen (2014) predicted that values would impact on residential preference and choice, and established that consumers who value self-direction tend to live in the city centre and prefer innovative designs, while those that hold security more important tend to live in the suburbs and prefer newly built dwellings with traditional designs. A South African study reported that thrift, which is essentially the art of doing more with less, including seeking out special offers, bargain-hunting and bulk-buying, was a value widely shared amongst diverse middle-class consumers (McEwan et al., 2015).

These preceding examples illustrate that different values may lead to differences in consumer behaviour.

As mentioned previously, lifestyle can be related to a specific product domain. The last section on lifestyle will focus on such a domain-specific lifestyle model, namely the Housing-related lifestyle model.

2.4.4 Housing-related lifestyle model (HRL)

The housing-related lifestyle (HRL) model is based on the food-related lifestyle model (FRL) developed by Grunert and associates in the mid-nineties, which instrument has been thoroughly validated in empirical research (Cullen & Kingston, 2009; Grunert et al., 2011; Thøgersen, 2017a; Thøgersen, 2017b). The FRL is based on a means-end approach to lifestyle, meaning that lifestyle is assumed to mediate between values and general socio-political attitudes on the one side, and concrete product-specific perceptions and behaviours on the other (Grunert et al. 2011). Cognitive lifestyle theory underpins both the FRL and HRL (Grunert et al., 2011; Thøgersen, 2017a). A domain related lifestyle is assumed to be based on two types of cognitive schemas relevant to that specific domain, the first involving acquisition motives and quality aspects, and the other encompassing three broad cognitive scripts that are linked to the first, namely ways of shopping, in the case of housing, home improvement and living situations. The key characteristics of an individual's housing-related lifestyle are assumed to be captured by these five cognitive elements together (Thøgersen, 2017b). The HRL model is depicted in Figure 3.



Figure 3. Housing-Related Lifestyle

(Thøgersen, 2017a).

According to Thøgersen (2017a), home acquisition motives involve the outcomes the consumer anticipates from “making” and living in the home, like shelter, safety and privacy, as well as the social value of sharing the home with family and friends. Quality aspects in a dwelling comprise the general features that the consumer considers important in a residence, such as material and artisan quality, roominess, amenities, and energy efficiency. Ways of shopping include how consumers actually shop for houses and (more often) home products, namely whether they enjoy doing so, whether they shop online or visit stores, whether they take a long time to make a decision or not, and how much influence price and other product information has. For home improvement, the role of DIY work and time allocated to DIY, as well as whether home improvement is a social occasion or the sole responsibility of one individual is considered. Finally, living situations refer to issues such as activities done at home, the amount of time spent there, and also the social aspect of sharing the home with other family members and guests (Thøgersen, 2017a). The model works on the proposition that specific lifestyles reflect a specific constellation of these five elements. Thøgersen (2017a) recently developed and tested the 71-item HRL questionnaire in 10 countries across Europe, combining it with items on energy saving behaviour and innovativeness. He uncovered 16 lifestyle dimensions with good construct reliability and ultimately seven consumer segments, namely Basic dwellers (25%); Cautious, home-oriented dwellers (21%); Average dwellers (14%); Unengaged dwellers (11%); Enthusiastic homemakers (10%); Careless dwellers (10%) and Engaged homemakers (9%). The HRL had metric but not scalar equivalence across the different countries.

After due consideration, it was decided not to use the HRL in this study, mainly because of the emphasis placed on the acquisition and quality aspects of the dwelling itself, rather than only the FAE within. However, dimensions and items relevant to FAE were used to inform and where necessary adapt the AIO questionnaire.

Having completed the discussion on lifestyle, including psychographics, AIO, values and a domain specific lifestyle model, the next section will focus on differences in consumer motivation.

2.5 Shopping motivation

Motivation is defined as “The driving force within individuals that compels them to action, which is produced by a state of tension due to an unfulfilled need” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014, p. 74). When consumers see a gap between their desired and actual state and they have the ability to purchase, they will take action to satisfy their needs, both mentally and physically. Thus, in a consumer behaviour context, motivation is the driving force consisting of a consumer’s desire to purchase, acquire and consume products and services to satisfy his or her needs (Chang et al., 2015a).

Whilst Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis (1986, p. 136) classified the needs of consumers into functional (solving externally generated consumption needs), symbolic (fulfilling internally generated needs for role position, self-enhancement, group membership or ego-identification) and experiential (providing sensory pleasure, variety and/or cognitive stimulation) needs, the most frequently adopted classification of consumer motivation is based in the distinction between utilitarian and hedonic consumption needs (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000; Hartman et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2014; O’Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001; Teed et al., 2010; Voss et al., 2003; Yim et al., 2014).

Hedonic consumption is sensory, motivated by the desire for sensual pleasure, fantasy and fun offered by the possession and use of services and products (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Kim et al., 2014). It is posited that consumption of goods and services provides affective gratification through multi-sensory, fantasy and emotive aspects. It often involves products that are considered frivolous or decadent (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; O’Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001; Voss et al, 2003). Arnold and Reynolds (2012) argued that hedonic consumption may be viewed as an experience characterised either by the presence of positive stimuli or the relative absence of negative stimuli, or some combination thereof. In contrast, utilitarian consumption is cognitive, task-oriented and driven by consumers' efforts to address needs and wants and to solve problems through cognitively processing product information. It is derived from the functions performed by products that are typically considered as necessary or practical rather than fun or pleasurable (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982; O’Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001; Voss et al, 2003; Yim et al., 2014).

In most cases, it appears that consumers make a purchase based on both utilitarian and hedonic motivations, but for some consumers either utilitarian motivations or hedonic needs would dominate (Kim et al., 2014; Westbrook & Black, 1985; Yim et al., 2014).

Scales to measure hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations have been empirically tested by a number of researchers, including Kim (2006), who built on the work of Babin, Darden and Griffen (1994) and Arnold and Reynolds (2003). Kim (2006) made use of a 24-item scale to measure six hedonic and two utilitarian shopping motivations. The hedonic categories are *social shopping*, which emphasises the social benefits of shopping with friends and family; *adventure*, which refers to shopping for excitement, adventure, and stimulation, and to experience a different environment that stimulates the senses; *gratification*, which refers to shopping as a means of creating a positive feeling, that is, to give a special treat to oneself to feel better; *role shopping*, which reflects the delight felt when shopping for others and finding the perfect gift; *idea shopping*, which refers to shopping to gather information about new trends, products and fashions; and *value shopping*, which refers to the joy of seeking sales, hunting for bargains and finding discounts. The utilitarian categories are *efficiency*, that refers to the consumer's needs to save time and resources; and *achievement*, that reflects a goal-related shopping orientation where success in finding specific products that were planned for at the outset of the trip is important (Kim, 2006, p. 58). How the hedonic and utilitarian motivation was measured in this study will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

The different benefits and costs that consumers derive from shopping have been used by Kim et al. (2014) to segment consumers into four clusters, namely Involved Shoppers, who exhibit high levels of hedonic and utilitarian constructs; Pragmatic Shoppers, who display high levels of utilitarian benefits and costs and low levels of hedonic benefits; Experiential Shoppers who exhibit moderate levels of hedonic benefits and low levels of utilitarian benefits and costs; and Nonchalant Shoppers, who display low levels of all constructs. Kim (2006) compared inner-city consumers and non-inner-city consumers by shopping motivation, and results demonstrate that non-inner-city consumers were similar to inner-city shoppers in that both groups were motivated by functional aspects of value and shopping, but inner-city shoppers placed more emphasis on hedonic motivations, namely entertaining and social experiences that offered a variety of products.

It is evident that a hedonic or utilitarian motivation influences shopping behaviours over a broad spectrum. Some areas of application will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Time spent in store: Consumers with hedonic shopping motivation tend to spend more and remain longer in stores (Hausman, 2000; Saran, Roy & Sethuraman, 2016; Yim et al., 2014). Retailers thus attempt to influence consumers to spend more by making shopping a more pleasurable experience, feeding consumers' hedonic desires by, for example, employing diverse mood-oriented factors, such as piped-in comfortable music, warm and appealing store layout and design, and stylish indoor restaurants. The entertainment aspect of retailing, also referred to as "inspirational retailing", "retailtainment," "entertailing," or "shoppertainment" is increasingly being recognised as a key competitive tool (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; White, 2010; Zeynep, Bayazit & Yildirim, 2014). Along the same lines, Kim et al. (2014) propose that retailers who learn that their target customers are highly hedonic should develop strategies that emphasise the emotional aspect of shopping. This could be attained by the introduction of multi-sensory shopping experiences through displays and ambience, the maintenance of a prestigious reputation through attentive sales personnel and high quality and well-known merchandise, or by the design of a retail setting where customers can enjoy shopping, either alone or with others.

Conversely, if target customers are mostly functional or utilitarian, the retailer could meet their functional needs by offering low prices, wide assortments, excellent service and layouts that facilitate product and price comparisons (Kim et al., 2014). Despite the trend towards "shoppertainment", research on shopping mall renovation by Chebat, Michon, Haj-Salem and Oliveira (2014) demonstrated that, whilst hedonic benefits did increase shopper satisfaction, only utilitarian benefits directly increased their spending. They accordingly advised that, in addition to aesthetic mall design, the mall must be functional to satisfy shoppers' task orientation. They proposed targeting easier access and ample parking, providing maps and signage to make it easier to find your way, increased open spaces to prevent the negative effect of crowding, enhanced store layout that favours increased foot-flow and exploration, appealing and clean common areas and food courts that induce shoppers to stay longer (Chebat et al., 2014).

Brand consciousness: Customers with a hedonic shopping motivation have been found to prefer products or services that are highly congruent with their personality and emotionally appealing to their self-image, therefore it is posited that hedonic consumers may be more brand conscious than their utilitarian counterparts (Saran et al., 2016).

Impulse buying: Hedonically motivated consumers are more prone to impulse buying than functionally motivated consumers (Hausman, 2000; Saran et al., 2016; Yim et al., 2014).

Information search: Individual differences in motivation also impact on the information search, where hedonically motivated consumers (novelty and fashion conscious, recreational, impulsive) are less active in learning about products; whereas those with a utilitarian motivation are more likely to complete a thorough information search (Kim et al., 2014; Sproles & Sproles, 1990).

In-store promotions: The propensity to participate in different in-store promotions is argued to be influenced by shopping motivations. In an Australian study by Reid, Thompson, Mavondo, and Brunsø (2015), results indicate that while price promotions are attractive to all financially constrained consumers, shoppers seeking exploration, entertainment and expression – thus hedonically motivated – are more prone to using non-monetary promotions such as sweepstakes and contests or free gifts than those who are more utilitarian oriented. A similar result was obtained by Büttner, Florack and Göritz (2015), who report that task-focused shoppers evaluate monetary promotions as more attractive than non-monetary promotions, while experiential shoppers evaluate both promotion types as equally attractive. When consumers are not financially constrained, experiential shoppers are substantially more likely to choose the non-monetary promotion (Büttner et al., 2015).

Whilst the general motivational disposition of consumers towards shopping has been described, consumers also have different attitudes towards product categories. Some products are perceived as high in utilitarian and hedonic value; whilst others may be high on one dimension but low on the other. This will be considered next.

2.6 Product attitude (hedonic or utilitarian)

Product attitude is the consumer's familiarity with the product, as well as whether they regard the product as functional or hedonic or a combination of both (Eisenbeiss, Wilken, Skiera & Cornelissen, 2015; Im, Bhat & Lee, 2015). Alba and Williams (2012) confirmed in a review of research on hedonic consumption, that many psychometric investigations have validated the hedonic–utilitarian product distinction. Discriminant validity is routinely reported, while face validity is also high. Hedonic products, such as a concert or a computer game, are seen as relatively more enjoyable, fun and pleasant. Utilitarian products, such as washing powder or a chair, are seen as relatively more necessary, functional and effective (Alba & Williams, 2012; Kivetz & Zheng, 2016).

Whether a product is perceived as utilitarian or hedonic impacts on consumer behaviour in several ways. Some empirical examples will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Response to promotions: Consumers respond differently to promotions for hedonic purchases than for functional or utilitarian purchases. Kivetz and Zheng (2016) postulated and empirically confirmed that, due to consumers' greater need to justify hedonic rather than functional purchases, various different promotions, such as rebates, price discounts, loyalty rewards and coupons, have a stronger positive effect on hedonic purchases than on utilitarian purchases. They explained that this was because the promotions provide a guilt-reducing rationalisation for the acquisition of hedonic products. Quantity-based promotions, which require purchasing additional units (e.g., "buy 10 units, get 50% off"), are however not effective in increasing sales of hedonic products, due to the guilt associated with buying multiple units of a hedonic product. Such promotions are more effective for utilitarian purchases. Since no special justification is required for buying a hedonic product as a gift, a price promotion in this instance could backfire and diminish the consumer's perceived value of giving the gift (Kivetz & Zheng, 2016).

Price framing: Khan and Dhar (2010) studied the impact of price framing on cross-category bundles consisting of a hedonic product (such as a barbeque or a sweater) and a utilitarian product (such as an office chair or a textbook). Results indicated that a bundle purchase is more probable when a discount for purchasing the bundle is framed as savings on the hedonic component of the purchase rather than on the functional product or the bundle as a whole.

This was because such discount lessens the guilt associated with the purchase of the hedonic product. Zemack-Rugar, Rabino, Cavanaugh and Fitzsimons (2016) also confirmed the need that consumers experience to reduce guilt when buying hedonic products. They established that adding a charitable donation to hedonic products is more impactful than a discount of the same value, or adding the same donation to utilitarian products, especially for guilt-sensitive consumers.

Effectiveness of advertising: Kronrod, Grinstein and Wathieu (2012) empirically established that whether a product is perceived as utilitarian or hedonic also impacts on the effectiveness of advertising. Assertive language, such as Nike's "Just do it", or Sprite's "Obey your thirst", leads to higher compliance than non-assertive language with messages promoting hedonic products, while the opposite is true for functional products. This may explain the use of Microsoft's non-assertive slogan "Where do you want to go today?" It is postulated that this result is due to the mediation of mood and communication expectations. Hedonic consumption normally elicits a positive mood. Both sources and receivers in a positive mood are predisposed to using and accepting assertive language, thus a positive mood creates an expectation of assertive language. The resulting fit between expectations and reality increases compliance (Kronrod et al., 2012).

Credit or cash purchases: Thomas, Desai and Seenivasan (2011) suggested that hedonic products are more likely to be purchased on credit than in cash, although Bagchi and Block (2011) demonstrated conditions under which a reversal applies. For example, when consumers purchase food items for immediate consumption, if payment is made in cash, the foods chosen are more indulgent (higher in calories, fat, and sugars).

The above examples illustrate that the nature of the product (hedonic or utilitarian) can influence the effectiveness of promotions, price framing, advertising and the type of sale (cash or credit). A better understanding of how the different FAE products are perceived by consumers can thus be valuable for retailers and marketers.

The next topic for discussion is some situational influences that may impact on consumer behaviour.

2.7 Situational influences

Numerous situational influences can impact on consumer purchase decisions, such as time pressure, gift shopping, urgent purchases and usage situations (Du Preez et al., 2008). In this study, only two situational influences were investigated. The first is joint decision-making, as previously referred to in the sections on gender differences (section 2.3.2), marital status (section 2.3.4) and the presence, age and number of children (section 2.3.5). The other important situational variable is the impact of time, since time pressure has been found to play a role in the information search stage of the consumer decision making process, with less time leading to more limited information searches (Maity, Dass & Malhotra, 2014).

The final section of this chapter will focus on the information search behaviour of consumers.

2.8 Information search behaviour

Consumer information search refers to the effort that a consumer makes to acquire information for a specific purchase (Maity et al., 2014). Maity et al. (2014) undertook a meta-analysis of 62 reported studies on off-line information search behaviour of consumers. They report that consumer information search has largely been measured along two dimensions, namely the total time spent on the search and the amount of search. The amount of search is described as the number of times a particular source is examined, the number of alternatives/brands, the number of attributes, or the extent of the search. The ten most commonly reported antecedents that impacted on information search behaviour were cost; number of alternatives; price dispersion; time pressure; perceived risk; financial constraint; uncertainty; knowledge; prior experience; and involvement. Findings suggest that the relationships between information search and antecedents, price dispersion, knowledge, cost of search and prior experience (each) are inverted-U shaped. Study findings also suggest that benefit, instead of cost of search, is more suitable for modelling the consumer information search (Maity et al., 2014).

The positive relationship that Maity et al. (2014) reported between information search and involvement, is consistent with Petty and Cacioppo's 1986 Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (cited in Schmidt & Spreng, 1996). The ELM is based on the premise that for someone to engage in effortful cognitive processing, both the ability and motivation to process information

are required. The ELM also incorporates attitude change theory. Depending on different levels of involvement, the *central route* or *peripheral route* to attitude change is followed. In high involvement situations, information is deliberately and consciously processed, and the central route to persuasion and processing is followed. In low involvement situations, where attitudes are formed with little or no elaborative processing, for example via mere exposure, the peripheral route is followed (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). The ELM is thus an involvement theory, addressing the degree of personal relevance that the purchase or product holds for a consumer together with the levels of perceived risk, problem solving and information processing (Shiffman & Kanuk, 2014).

Risk theory is related to involvement theory. The relationship that Maity et al. (2014) reported between perceived risk and the extent of information search is echoed by other researchers such as Chang et al. (2015b), Chaudhuri (1997), and Van Staden and Van Aardt (2011). They similarly reported that consumers who perceive a high risk involved in choosing a product proactively search for more information in an attempt to reduce the risk associated with the outcome of making that particular selection. Chaudhuri (1997) argued convincingly that the perceived risk of a product category is due to an overall evaluation of the consumer's prior knowledge of the rational (such as quality and price) and emotional consequences of using that product. Such knowledge either increases or reduces uncertainty and thus perceived risk (Chang et al., 2015b). Due to the high value and durability of FAE items and thus likelihood of high perceived risk, customer involvement levels are expected to be high, and the information search for these products will tend to be extensive, following the central route.

Since the moderating effects of age and product type on the information search are significant, these variables need to be considered (Maity et al., 2014). In certain circumstances, younger consumers conduct higher levels of information searches than older consumers, whilst the opposite is true in other conditions. For instance, since younger consumers experience lower cognitive search costs, they do more extensive searches, and process more information when faced with uncertainty, and they also tend to be more involved. However, since they are less patient than older consumers, and higher risk takers, this can also lead to lower levels of information search. In the context of limited prior experience or low knowledge younger consumers are not motivated to look for more information to mitigate risk (Maity et al., 2014).

Thus, age can impact differently on information search behaviour depending on the situation the consumer finds themselves in.

Information search is also influenced by product type. Products are classified into three types, namely “search” goods, where the characteristics are discernible by inspection prior to purchasing, such as a computer or household appliances; experience goods, where features can be evaluated only after purchase and consumption such as a movie or apparel; or credence goods, where the attributes cannot be judged confidently even after purchase and consumption, such as car repair, health care or medicine supplements (Girard, 2005; Maity et al., 2014; Mitra, Reiss & Capella, 1999). As all FAE are search goods, product type was however not expected to moderate the information search in this study. Although the content of the information search was not researched, the most important search drivers for furniture specifically are likely to be information on price, quality, style (classical or contemporary), guarantees and warranties, as well as materials used in construction (Labuschagne, Van Zyl, Van der Merwe & Kruger, 2012).

The information search sources can be both internal and external. Internal information sources rely on memory, built through previous experiences and purchases (Erasmus, Boshoff & Rousseau, 2002; Keith, 1991), whereas external sources encompass two main categories, namely personal/interpersonal; and impersonal mass-media or internet (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014). For the purposes of this study, consumers were requested to indicate whether or not they had bought the specific type of product before, and if so, how often, as an indication of their prior experience with such product.

However, since most consumers are unlikely to buy FAE very often, it can be assumed that previous purchases will not be prominent in memory, nor lead to generic script-like knowledge (Erasmus et al., 2002). Under these circumstances, where the internal search is unlikely to be satisfactory or sufficient, it was expected that prospective purchasers of FAE would normally also conduct an external search.

Van Staden and Van Aardt (2011) list several specific types of external information sources. These are personal (children, friends, neighbours, colleagues, reference groups, etc.); marketer controlled (e.g. brochures, advertising); retailer controlled (salespersons, store display, store

leaflets); reseller information (e.g. information charts, catalogues); third-party independent organisations (e.g. magazine and newspaper articles); and direct inspection (e.g. observation).

South African female apparel consumers rely far more on internal than external information sources when deciding what clothing to buy and where to buy (Van Staden & Van Aardt, 2011). In-store shopping (window and in-store display) is the most important external source of information, followed by personal communication (friends), advertising leaflets from retail stores and fashion articles in magazines. Specialised fashion sources, such as fashion magazines and pattern catalogues do not rate highly. Consumers often depend on the in-store environment to obtain all the relevant product information they need. Since FAE is generally more expensive and durable than clothing, similar results were not expected in this study.

Rural and urban Indian consumers of household durables furthermore use different sources of information. Anilkumar and Joseph (2013) reported that urban consumers mostly used television (100%); the internet (99%); print – newspapers or magazines (65%); and display boards (48%). In contrast, rural consumers made use of television (98%); print – newspapers or magazines (84%); word of mouth (82%); and FM radio (72%). In addition to traditional media, word of mouth (WOM), being interpersonal, informal communication about products, has also consistently been found to have great power to influence listeners (Chang et al., 2015b; Martin & Lueg, 2013). In this study, consumers were asked to indicate which types of information sources they used prior to making the decision to purchase, and to indicate how important they regarded each source type.

The discussion on the pre-purchase information search behaviour completes the consideration of the variables indicated in the simplified conceptual theoretical framework for profiling Botswana FAE consumer segments presented in Chapter 1.

2.9 Summary: Chapter 2

Chapter 2 commenced with a discussion of market segmentation and referred to the segmentation process and benefits of segmentation. Segmentation that cluster consumers provides numerous advantages to producers, marketers and retailers in that they are able to position products and target their promotional practices. A number of different segmentation approaches were discussed.

The focus turned to a discussion of the independent variables included in the simplified conceptual theoretical framework for profiling Botswana FAE consumer segments presented in Chapter 1. Demographical variables, lifestyle, psychographics, AIO and values were discussed. From the discussion it was evident that differences in consumers' demographics, lifestyle and values impact on their behaviour. Utilitarian and hedonic consumer motivation was addressed, as well as differences in consumer attitudes toward hedonic and functional products. Situational influences such as joint decision making and time pressure were also referred to. The chapter concluded with a discussion of pre-purchase information search behaviour. Thus, the literature-related objectives were addressed.

From the discussion of the literature, the following proposition can be posited: *FAE consumers can be profiled and clustered according to their demographic characteristics, lifestyle, values, shopping motivation, product attitude and the information sources used in pre-purchase.*

The research methodology to attain the empirical objectives is set out in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The fundamental objective of this chapter is to demonstrate that the research methodology used was appropriate to defend the eventual conclusions, and that appropriate techniques were correctly used during the research process. According to Perry 6 & Bellamy (2012), methodology is much more than using appropriate techniques in the correct way; it is about arguments that show that inferences are warranted. Good methodology ensures that the researcher can argue persuasively from the analysis of the data to draw and defend the conclusions arrived at (Perry 6 & Bellamy, 2012; Terre Blance, Durrheim & Painter, 2006).

The study was exploratory, quantitative and descriptive. Almost no published research could be identified that reports on the variables that impact on the behaviour of FAE consumers in Botswana. Accordingly, very little is known about whether distinct clusters of FAE consumers exist in Botswana, and if they do, which variables contribute to the differences in the profiles of the clusters. Under these circumstances, it was decided not to pose specific research hypotheses. The literature study concluded with an overarching proposition to guide the empirical research. According to Whetten (1989, p. 491), “the primary difference between propositions and hypotheses is that propositions involve concepts, whereas hypotheses require measures”. Even though measures were applied, these supported the exploratory nature of this study. The research was descriptive and, in line with most market research studies, essentially inductive, rather than deductive (Perry 6 & Bellamy, 2012).

The overarching research question was formulated as follows: To what extent can FAE consumers in Botswana be clustered according to their demographic characteristics, lifestyle (AIO and values), product attitude, shopping motivation and pre-purchase search behaviour? The methods to address this research question are set out in more detail in the remainder of this chapter.

3.1 Research paradigm

The research paradigm acts as a perspective that provides a foundation for the study and binds the researcher to specific methods of data gathering, observation and interpretation (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Traditionally, most research has been based on a positivist paradigm,

which presupposes that there is an objective reality to be discovered and that findings are true (Healy & Perry, 2000; Krauss, 2005; Terre Blanche et al., 2006; Tuli, 2011). Following a positivist paradigm, the object of study is not dependent on researchers; knowledge is revealed and verified through direct measurement or observation of phenomena; and facts are determined by taking apart a phenomenon to scrutinise its component parts (Krauss, 2005). Methodologies include experiments and surveys (Healy & Perry, 2000). Quantitative research thus normally fits a positivist paradigm.

According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006, p. 40) “since all paradigms rest on untestable (metaphysical) assumptions, none can be incontrovertibly right”. Healy and Perry (2000) thus discuss three alternative scientific paradigms, namely critical theory, constructivism and realism. Critical theory regards reality as “virtual”, shaped by economic, social, political, ethnic, gender and cultural values that are crystallised over time (Healy & Perry, 2000). Reality is subjectivist, with value mediated findings (Healy & Perry, 2000). Methodologies are dialogic/dialectical and the researcher is a “transformative intellectual” who changes the social world within which participants live (Healy & Perry, 2000, p. 119).

The naturalist or constructivist paradigm postulates that there is no objective reality, but multiple realities (Healy & Perry, 2000; Krauss, 2005; Tuli, 2011). Knowledge is created through the meanings that are attached to the phenomena studied; researchers interact with the subjects of study to collect data; inquiry changes both subject and researcher; and knowledge is time and context dependent (Healy & Perry, 2000; Krauss, 2005; Tuli, 2011). Findings are subjectively created (Healy & Perry, 2000). Methodologies are hermeneutical/dialectical and the researcher is a “passionate participant” within the world being investigated (Healy & Perry, 2000, p. 119). Qualitative research is often constructivist in nature.

Realism has elements of both positivism and constructivism (Krauss, 2005). Reality is “real” but only probabilistically and imperfectly apprehensible (Healy & Perry, 2000). While positive research is supposedly value-free, and interpretative research value laden, realism is value cognisant, in that it is conscious of the values of human researchers and systems (Krauss, 2005). Realism recognises there are differences between people’s perceptions of reality and reality itself. Within a critical realism framework, both quantitative and qualitative methodologies are deemed appropriate (Healy & Perry, 2000; Krauss, 2005). Krauss (2005)

advocates the use of realism as research paradigm in the social sciences, where both the level of existing knowledge concerning the research topic and the research topic itself will guide the methodologies selected.

The realism paradigm underlies this study, since it is value cognisant and realises that there may be different interpretations of reality. Findings are only probably true, rather than objectively true.

3.2 Research design

The aim of a research design is to “maximise the validity of the (research) findings” (Terre Blanche et al., 2006 p. 37).

The research design constitutes a framework that links the research question to the execution of the research. Perry 6 and Bellamy (2012, p. 14) state that research design usually means

- 1) the specification of the way in which data will be created, collected, constructed, coded, analysed and interpreted;
- 2) to enable the researcher to draw warranted descriptive, explanatory or interpretive inferences;
- 3) where the warrant is calculated to strike a reasonable trade-off between competing virtues; and
- 4) where the standards of warrant may vary slightly, but are based on a core set of virtues for each type of inference.

Thus, design choices need to be made at three levels, namely method – the selection of appropriate types of data and of appropriate strategies for collecting and analysing that data; methodology – the theories that explain why the methods used provide warrant for inferences from the data to be collected and analysed, to the kind of explanation or interpretation required by the research questions; and the philosophy of social science – the account of the status of the explanations and interpretations, and the justifications presented for granting them that status (Perry 6 & Bellamy, 2012).

In a similar vein, Terre Blanche et al. (2006) argue that the research design is developed through reflection on four dimensions, namely the theoretical paradigm informing the research; the purpose of the research; the research techniques used to collect and analyse data; and the context within which the research is carried out (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Design validity, reliability and design coherence should guide the process (Perry 6 & Bellamy,

2012; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The four dimensions that Terre Blanche et al. (2006) suggest should be considered during the research design will briefly be discussed next.

3.2.1 Paradigm

As discussed in section 3.1, the theoretical paradigm underlying this study is critical realism. Realism considers reality “real”, but accepts that it is only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible (Healy & Perry, 2000). A purely positivistic view was considered inappropriate when studying consumers, who are not independent, non-reflective objects, but act interdependently. Thus, the epistemology is modified objectivist and findings will be considered probably true (Healy & Perry, 2000).

3.2.2 Purpose

The research purpose requires the researcher to be clear on the object of the study, as well as the type of study. Defining the object of the study requires clarity on the units of analysis (individuals, groups, organisations or social artefacts) and the variables to be measured (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The units of analysis that were the object of this study were individual consumers who had purchased FAE products at a store within a specific chain. The variables to be measured were described in Chapter 2. According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006), three different types of research have been distinguished, namely exploratory, descriptive and explanatory; applied and basic research; and quantitative and qualitative research. Perry & Bellamy (2012) similarly classify research design by type of inference, namely descriptive, explanatory or interpretative. This research was both exploratory and descriptive, as the goal was to investigate new insights in a relatively unknown area of research, namely the Botswana FAE consumer, whilst the ultimate clustering aimed to describe different consumer segments accurately. The research attempted to answer a practical question facing a retailer wishing to segment their consumer market, and the results will assist decision-makers with information to facilitate decision-making in this regard (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The study was thus applied in nature. Finally, the research was quantitative, as a survey instrument was used to collect data and statistical techniques employed in analysing the data.

3.2.3 Techniques

The techniques that are employed in executing research can be divided into a number of categories: Terre Blanche et al. (2006) use three categories, namely sampling, data collection and analysis; whilst Perry 6 & Bellamy (2012) break the “data collection” category down further into four stages, namely the creation, collection, coding and organisation of data.

For this study, as the focus was the customers of a specific retail chain, the store intercept survey method was used for data collection. This method of data collection has been used in previous studies and has proved to be appropriate, working well when researching consumers of targeted retail stores or specific products (Dhurup, Mafini & Mathaba, 2013; Du Preez, 2001; Mafini & Dhurup, 2015; Wan & Toppinen, 2016; Welker, 2004; Zietsman, 2006).

The techniques will be discussed in more detail in the remainder of this chapter.

3.2.4 Context: In-store

Context impacts on human behaviour. In this study, the research setting was in-store. Participants were interviewed by a store manager who completed a questionnaire on their behalf, except for the demographic section, where the participant was given the option to complete the section themselves if answers were deemed private. This research method holds several advantages above other methods, of which the biggest advantages are the immediacy of the data collection, the realism of the environment, and the reduction of artificial influences (McIntyre & Bender, 1986).

However, the interview still takes place in an abnormal setting with the possibility that respondents may give socially desirable or biased responses. However, since the store is the setting where the final purchase decision took place, it is a perfect place to collect the data as it is a natural or real purchase situation. Questions were phrased in such a manner that social desirability was not a major concern and respondents were informed that there were no right or wrong answers to the various questions.

3.3 Population and sample

Quantitative research strives for results that are generalisable and objective. The aim of sampling is to select a sample that will be representative of the relevant population, to ensure

that results are generalisable to the broader population being studied (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

3.3.1 Population

Whilst the target population included all FAE consumers of the specific retail chain in Botswana, the frame population (Groves et al., 2009) from which the sampling elements were drawn included all consumers who had made a purchase of either furniture, appliance or electronics in one of the stores within the retail chain during the data collection period. Even though this excluded browsers, it had the benefit that the research was targeted and included those that had purchased at one of the stores within the chain.

Originally, the data collection period was envisaged to be one week that did not coincide with the Christmas peak sales period or month end. The intention was that this would reflect normal sales and number of customers, and avoid skewed results by consumers who are inclined to spend more money soon after receiving their annual bonuses or monthly salary. It would also minimise disruption to normal business.

In executing the research, it was decided to collect the data in two phases, to ensure that potential problems were identified and addressed before rolling out the research country wide. In Phase 1, data collection was done in five stores in Gaborone only. In Phase 2, data collection was rolled out nationwide to the remaining 43 stores. During Phase 1, we encountered a number of problems, such as the difficulty branch managers had to convince customers to participate in what was a fairly time-consuming exercise; the inability to complete the survey in the time customers had available; and some difficulty in interpretation of some of the questions. As a result, branch managers were re-trained and the data collection period extended. Phase 1 data collection extended over four weeks, from 23 October 2017 to 18 November 2017. Two weeks followed to assimilate the learnings from Phase 1 and re-brief the remaining branch managers. Phase 2 commenced thereafter on 4 December 2017, but was interrupted by the Christmas peak sales period commencing on 9 December 2017, during which management did not allow the completion of surveys to prevent it detracting from the sales focus of the branch staff. Data collection continued in January 2018, but was very slow since most members of management took their annual leave over this period. Ultimately, Phase 2 extended over several weeks and was only concluded at the end of March 2018.

3.3.2 Sample and sampling method

For this study, a non-random convenience sample was used. To ensure that the sample was as representative as possible of the target population, special attention was given to the time of day and day of the week for data gathering, as well as to the product purchased.

The retail chain chosen for the study operates 48 stores across Botswana. Operational management consented to participate in the study. According to W. Smuts (personal communication, 14 June 2016), sales value across the three categories is approximately 50 per cent for furniture (mainly beds and lounge suites), 30 per cent for appliances (mainly fridges) and 20 per cent for electronics. To ensure representativeness across product categories, each store was requested to complete a specific number of questionnaires or quota per category. Since stores differ according to turnover, number of customers and number of employees, stores were segmented into three types, dependent on size, to ensure that smaller stores were not unduly burdened. The 48 stores were thus divided into 3 categories, each consisting of 16 stores. Each category of store received a different quota of questionnaires. Table 4 provides the details:

Table 4.
Number of Questionnaires to be Completed per Store

Size of store	Furniture	Appliance	Electronics	Total
Small (C)	4	2	2	8
Medium (B)	5	3	2	10
Large (A)	8	4	3	15

Since customers were given the choice of completing the questionnaire in either English or Setswana, more than the minimum number of questionnaires required were distributed to all stores to ensure that they did not run short. Thus, A stores received 12 English and six Setswana; B stores eight English and five Setswana; and C stores seven English and four Setswana questionnaires.

To prevent bias towards weekend shoppers, it was decided to gather data both during the week and during weekends. To balance the number of days between week and weekend, it was decided to include Mondays and Wednesdays as representative of week shoppers, and

Friday and Saturday as representative of weekends (stores close at lunch time on Saturdays, and not all stores are open on Sundays).

The time of day that data gathering takes place may also influence the profile of the respondent. Three time slots for data gathering were used to limit the profile bias and make the sample representative of all types of consumers:

- Morning shoppers (M) 09:00 - 11:30
- Lunch-time shoppers (L) 11:45 - 14:15
- Afternoon shoppers (A) 14:30 - 17:00

A typical store grid that guides data gathering for a small store is indicated in Table 5. The three time slots (M; L; A) are indicated together with the product category, namely furniture (F), appliance (A), and electronics (E).

Table 5.

Example of Store Grid for C (Small) Store

Store name:									Category C (small)			
Monday			Wednesday			Friday			Saturday	Total	Type	
M	L	A	M	L	A	M	L	A	M	L	8	
	F				F	F				F	4	F
			A				A				2	A
		E							E		2	E

3.3.3 Size of sample

The goal of a survey is to provide a description of the characteristics of the larger population from which the sample was drawn (Groves et al., 2009). There should thus be an adequate number of observations to back up the statistical inferences that the researcher wishes to draw (Perry 6 & Bellamy, 2012). Comrey and Lee (1992) portrayed as a guide a size of 50 as very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good, and 1,000 as excellent. By allocating quotas per store as discussed in section 3.3.2, it was originally envisaged that over 500 questionnaires would be returned. Ultimately, 343 useable questionnaires were received. Although fewer than originally intended, this number still complied with the guideline, and was also in line with the number of usable surveys reported – in some instances per country - in similar segmentation studies (Akturan et al., 2011 (342); Alvarez et al., 2014 (403); Anić et al.,

2012 (600); Ko et al., 2012 (between 200 and 299 per country); Schaninger & Petrovu, 2006 (444)).

Having discussed the population and sample, the data collection method is considered next.

3.4 The data collection method – in-store intercept survey

The use of online surveys for consumer research appears to have become the norm in the Western world (see for instance, Ailawadi, Gedenk, Langer, Ma & Scott, 2014a; Ailawadi, Neslin, Luan & Taylor, 2014b). Pham (2013) laments this state of affairs, including the excessive use of MTurk participants (an internet marketplace linking businesses with individuals willing to perform tasks for a fee), and advocates field studies that involve real behaviour and real consumers. Despite the tendency to go online, the use of the mall- or store-intercept survey method is still fairly common, where consumers of a specific mall or product category are studied (Dhurup et al., 2013; Du Preez, 2001; Mafini & Dhurup, 2015; Wan & Toppinen, 2016; Welker, 2004; Zietsman, 2006).

In a comparison of different data collection techniques for consumer research, McIntyre and Bender (1986) established that the in-store intercept technique outperformed mail and telephone questionnaires regarding response accuracy, completion rate and cost. However, limitations to this method exist. The biggest obstacle to in-store interviews could be to obtain the consent of management, since in-store interviewing always runs at least some risk that it could damage the retailer's business by alienating some customers (Du Preez, 2001; McIntyre & Bender, 1986). In this study, retailer consent had been granted. Some of the advantages and shortcomings of the in-store intercept method will be discussed in more detail in the paragraphs that follow.

3.4.1 Costs

Compared to telephone interviews or online surveys, personal interviews are normally costly, since they tend to take longer to set up and conduct (Ailawadi et al, 2014a; Chwalow, Balkau, Costagliola & Deeds, 1989). Nevertheless, research by McIntyre and Bender (1986) reported that in contrast to the traditional in-home interviews, in-store interviews were actually cheaper than telephone interviews, especially if in-store traffic was high, because of the high costs of telephone refusals. Dhurup et al. (2013) agree that an advantage of the mall intercept method

is that data is easily available. In addition, given the escalating costs associated with door-to-door interviewing and the growing suspicion associated with telephone interviewing, the mall or store intercept is a relatively inexpensive method of collecting accurate and high-quality data face-to-face (Bush & Hair, 1985; Dhurup et al., 2013).

However, where interviewers need to reach consumers from a number of stores that are geographically separated, a logistical challenge is faced that can be expensive to resolve (Ingenbleek, Tessema & Van Trijp, 2013). In this study, existing store management were trained and requested to conduct the interviews, so the additional costs involved were limited to training costs. Initially, the researcher proposed a “lucky-draw” incentive to reward those managers who returned duly completed questionnaires on time as requested. However, this was not supported by senior operational management, who felt that assisting with market research that improved customer understanding formed an integral part of the normal job responsibilities of store management. Store management was thus not incentivised to complete and submit questionnaires.

To limit the costs of training, this was planned to coincide with other company sponsored meetings. Face-to-face training took place on two occasions: the regional managers were trained during a regional management meeting held on 10 August 2017; and the branch managers during the annual national sales conference held on 14 September 2017. As part of the training, all participants had to complete the questionnaire to ensure that they understood the contents and the instructions. Written instructions and briefings were also provided with all data packs: Those for Phase 1 were sent out on 18 October 2017; and the briefings for Phase 2 sent out a month later. Throughout the data collection period, the researcher, assisted by an MBA graduate seconded to the retail division, were also available by cell-phone to answer any questions and resolve possible problems.

3.4.2 Speed and quantity of data

Compared to online surveys, the in-store interview is fairly slow and time consuming. However, the presence of the interviewer, who was able to assist those with low levels of literacy to complete the survey correctly, is regarded as an advantage, as it resulted in more usable surveys.

To ensure participation and prevent fatigue, the interview should be fairly short (no longer than 30 minutes), and the questionnaire should thus be designed to take minimum time to complete (Ingenbleek et al., 2013; McIntyre & Bender, 1986). Even though one interview can take time, compared to the mail survey or the in-home interview, the store-intercept is one of the fastest methods of data gathering as substantial amounts of data can be collected in a short space of time. The immediacy of the data collection is a major advantage of this method (Dhurup et al., 2013; McIntyre & Bender, 1986).

Despite attempting to keep the survey as short as possible, in view of the number of questions posed, combined with possible low levels of literacy, it was still fairly time consuming to complete. During the data collection, branch management reported that a number of customers declined to participate because of time constraints, or only completed parts of the questionnaire. Some stores resorted to completing the questionnaire over two sessions: with the customer completing the first half on selection of the intended purchase, and the remainder on their return to the store, once their credit application had been approved. Ultimately, the extension of the data collection period ensured a big enough sample.

3.4.3 Response rate

The response rate is another of the main advantages of the store-intercept method over mail surveys and telephone interviews, as the in-store interviewer is far more likely to obtain a sufficient number of respondents. This is due to factors such as the flexibility of the personal interview, the physical interaction between the interviewer and respondent, and the fact that the interviewer's mere presence motivates the respondent to cooperate (Bush & Hair, 1985; Ingenbleek et al., 2013; McIntyre & Bender, 1986).

3.4.4 Geographic flexibility

It makes intuitive sense that personal interviews can be far more difficult to spread geographically than online, mail or telephone surveys. This may make it difficult to get a representative sample. In this study, since all stores across the country were participating, geography did not constitute an obstacle and a geographically representative sample was obtained.

3.4.5 Interviewer bias and supervision

Interviewer bias is the single biggest disadvantage of a personal interview, as the interviewer may influence the responses of the participant (Ingenbleek et al., 2013; West & Elliott, 2014). West and Elliott (2014) studied the effects of interviewers on the variance of survey estimates. They posited that specialised training is required to prevent variances in results due to a number of factors, which can include the recruitment of participants or difference in interviewing style. The need to train interviewers to ensure that interviews are conducted in an equivalent manner across groups to prevent administration method bias is similarly emphasised by Ingenbleek et al. (2013).

Survey methodology literature furthermore holds different opinions about whether standardised or conversational interviewing should be used. Proponents of standardised interviewing argue that all interviewers should administer surveys in the exact same way, allowing respondents to interpret questions as they see fit, whilst others believe that more flexible interviewing in a conversational style may increase respondents' understanding of survey questions and reduce measurement error (West & Elliott, 2014). In this study, the most suitable interviewing style was determined after testing the questionnaire, first with the group of regional managers; and then with the branch managers. It was agreed to use a standardised interviewing style as far as possible to ensure consistency, but that branch managers could expand and explain those items that consumers struggled to understand.

Branch managers (a total of 48) served as interviewers and received training to fulfil this role. Training included an emphasis on the importance of not giving any indication of their own subjective response to the questions and being consistent in the interview methodology applied.

Interviewer supervision and, therefore, quality control are not as easy to administer during in-store interviewing as during telephone interviewing from a central location, which is one of the drawbacks of this method (Ingenbleek et al., 2013; McIntyre & Bender, 1986). However, whilst it was not possible to supervise the interviewers at all times, regional management conducted random visits as part of their normal functions.

3.4.6 Sample control

The interviewer identified the respondents to intercept to participate in the study according to the store grid. Only respondents who made a purchase of an FAE product were included in the sample and controls were in place for the days and times of data collection (refer to section 3.3.2). All geographic areas were included as originally intended.

3.4.7 Quality of data

Bush and Hair (1985) assessed the mall-intercept method by comparing it empirically with the telephone interview on response rates and quality. They report that the mall-intercept appears to have more potential than the telephonic interview in terms of the ability to provide in-depth, complete and quality responses. Participants were more likely to provide socially desirable responses over the telephone than face-to-face (Bush & Hair, 1985). It is proposed that the in-store intercept would have the same advantages. Ingenbleek et al. (2013) recommended the use of interviewers with a compatible cultural background to that of the consumers to be studied to reduce the risk of communication problems that may arise from cultural, language and vocabulary differences. The use of local branch management as interviewers ensured compliance with this recommendation.

Response styles are individual tendencies to respond to questionnaire items in a certain manner, such as acquiescence and an extreme response style, regardless of item content. Ingenbleek et al. (2013) caution that acquiescence, being respondents' tendency to agree rather than disagree with statements, appears more frequently among respondents with low socioeconomic status.

Where a large number of consumers decline to be interviewed, self-selection could become a major threat to the validity of the data generated. To limit the number of declines and incentivise participation, participants were offered a place in a lucky draw as incentive. Two types of prizes were on offer, namely a hedonic product (e.g. a tablet) and a functional prize (e.g. a cash rebate on their account or towards their next purchase). While Ingenbleek et al. (2013) warn that compensating participants can lead to a social response bias, where, out of gratitude for their remuneration, respondents provide only the information they believe the interviewer wants to hear, it is believed that merely receiving an entry into a lucky draw did

not have this result. The fact that branch management struggled to complete their quotas may have resulted in some self-selection, although this is difficult to establish. However, not all stores had this problem. The slowness in completing questionnaires may have been as much due to a lack of a sense of urgency among managers as to customer declines.

From the foregoing, it is clear that the store-intercept method has both advantages and disadvantages. The method was applied with circumspection to limit the potential threats to the validity of the data. Having discussed the research design, the population and sample as well as the data gathering methodology, the focus will now turn to the measurement instrument or questionnaire.

3.5 The measurement instrument

A questionnaire was developed to gather data for the purposes of this study based on the insights gathered from the literature review (refer to Annexure 5). The questionnaire was developed in English as the official language of Botswana. It was then translated into Setswana, the language that is spoken by the majority of Botswana, by an official translator from the University of Botswana. According to Statistics Botswana (2014, p. 261), 77 per cent of Botswana indicate Setswana as home language, while another 20 per cent indicate Setswana as their second language; and three per cent of Botswana speak English at home. The translation was then back-translated to English by a Setswana first language speaker member of management, discrepancies clarified with the original translator, and the necessary adjustments made. Every store received questionnaires in English and Setswana, and consumers were allowed to complete the questionnaire in their language of preference. By using both languages, a wide reach was ensured and the comprehension of the questions posed increased. All the branch managers who acted as interviewers were able to speak both languages, also aiding in the ability of the interviewer to clarify possible misconceptions.

At the request of operational management, the questionnaire was limited to four A4 pages to ensure that it could be printed on 1 sheet of A3 paper, back to back, thus saving resources. This also helped to limit the perceived time it took participants to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaire contained three sections, namely section A, which dealt with general issues and product attitude; section B that dealt with lifestyle, values and shopping motivation, and section C that contained questions on demographics.

3.5.1 Section A: general and product attitude

Section A of the questionnaire commenced with six questions of a general nature, namely: 1) the type of product purchased (furniture, appliance or electronics); 2) its cash price, whether it was bought cash or on credit; and if the latter, the credit term; 3) the number of times this type of product had been purchased before, to serve as an indication of prior knowledge in this regard; 4) whether or not the purchase was subject to joint decision making and if so, who the other party/ies were; 5) the time since the decision to purchase was made; and 6) the relative importance of common information sources used.

The last part of this section included the 10-item Hedonic/Utilitarian (HED/UT) scale developed by Voss et al. (2003) to determine whether the product was regarded as functional or hedonic. This scale measures the hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of consumer attitudes toward product categories and includes ten semantic differential response items, five of which refer to the utilitarian and hedonic dimension of consumer attitudes respectively. Previous findings suggest that the hedonic and utilitarian constructs are two distinct dimensions of product or brand attitude (Im et al., 2015; Lehto, 2013; Voss et al., 2003). Products can furthermore reliably be classified into one of the four quadrants generated, namely high utilitarian/high hedonic (e.g. TVs), high utilitarian/low hedonic (e.g. baby diapers); low utilitarian/high hedonic (e.g. chocolate) and low utilitarian/low hedonic (e.g. glass figurines).

This scale has shown good validity and reliability in previous studies. Voss et al. (2003) reported coefficient alphas ranging between .92 and .95 for both scales over two separate studies. In a Finnish study, Lehto (2013) reported reliability values of .82 (utilitarian) and .92 (hedonic) while Im et al. (2015) stated construct reliability values of .82 (hedonic) and .85 (utilitarian).

3.5.2 Section B: lifestyle, values and shopping motivation

Section B of the questionnaire included measurements of lifestyle (activities, interests, opinions), values and shopping motivation.

3.5.2.1 Measurement of lifestyle

“Lifestyle is all things to all people, but this very fact that has made the concept appealing also impedes the development of further precision” (Anderson & Golden, as cited in Jansen, 2014, p. 257). As discussed in section 2.4, the concept of lifestyle may vary from a limited interpretation to a broad range of behaviour and various social and psychological variables. Lifestyle can thus be operationalised in several different ways. According to Jansen (2014), the most common ways of operationalising lifestyle are based on latent variables only (e.g. attitudes, opinions); behaviour only (e.g. buying behaviour); a mix of behavioural and latent variables; a combination of socio-demographic characteristics; and a combination of socio-demographic characteristics and other variables. In this study, lifestyle was measured by a mix of behaviour (activities) and latent variables (interests and opinions).

Lifestyle classification systems were originally developed in the USA in the 1980s (Clarke, 2005). The two best known and most widely used instruments are the activities, interests, opinions (AIO) rating scale, originally presented by Wells and Tigert in the beginning of 1970s and the value, attitude, and life styles (VALS) rating scale, initially developed by Mitchell and Spengler of the Stanford Research Institute in 1983 (Chang et al., 2015a; Yu, 2011). The original AIO rating scale contained 300 items; whereas the initial VALS instrument contained 800 items, and the revised VALS2 rating scale, introduced in 1989, 400 items. Currently, the extensively adopted VALS2 questionnaire contains only 35 psychographic questions and four demographic questions (Fraj & Martinez, 2006; Yu, 2011). The VALS system makes explicit the link between psychological attributes and consumer choices using two dimensions: self-orientation and resources (Stanford Research Institute, 2010). VALS classifies adult Americans into eight different types – Actualisers (sophisticated, successful, active, take-charge people with abundant resources and high self-esteem); Strugglers (women with low incomes, little education and poor health who are overwhelmed with life’s difficulties); the principle-oriented Fulfilled and Believers; the action-oriented Experiencers and Makers; and the status-oriented Achievers and Strivers. VALS is extensively used in the US, but, as research has indicated that it may not be valid in different cultures, it was not used in this study (Beatty, Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, Beatty & Homer, 1986; Fraj & Martinez, 2006).

Activities, interest and opinions (AIO): The measurement of AIO is an area of considerable differences, which is not surprising, given the nature of its diverse elements. Numerous lifestyle studies, with the focus on ethnocentric research, have made use of the 56-item general AIO questionnaire derived from Kahle's 1983 work (based on Wells and Tigert) (Harcar & Kaynak, 2008; Kaynak & Kara, 2001; Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Kucukemiroglu et al., 2007; Spillan et al., 2007). In other studies, adapted and/or modified versions of AIO questionnaires were developed (Du Preez, 2001; Goldberg & Janse van Rensburg, 2013; Narang, 2010). The same scale used in different countries (Kahle's 56-item AIO questionnaire) leads to different results, with a difference in the number and names of underlying factors reported, as well as the variance explained. Table 6 provides a summary of the principal findings in this regard and shows clearly that the underlying dimensions of lifestyle that are measured by the AIO scale are not consistent over numerous applications. This result demonstrates the complexity of operationalising the lifestyle construct.

Table 6.

Summary of General Lifestyle Research – Factors Extracted and % Variance Explained

Study	Year	Country	Items	Cronbach Alpha	Factors extracted	% Variance explained
Harcar & Kaynak	2008	US & Canada	56	.64-.89	7	70.73
Kaynak & Kara	2001	CIS (Balkan)	56	n/a	10	56.6-57.9
Kucukemiroglu et al.	2007	Vietnam	56	.92	10	52.7
Kucukemiroglu	1999	Turkey	56	.91	8	68.55
Spillan et al.	2007	India	56	.81	8	31.8

As discussed in section 2.4.2, more recent lifestyle studies focus on a specific product category, which supports product-specific AIO research. Because no single AIO measurement instrument could be identified that deals with FAE, it was decided to compile a new questionnaire, based on a review of previous research. This was done in three steps: firstly, FAE-related AIO lifestyle research was studied to determine what factors were commonly extracted from such lifestyle measures, as this would indicate the underlying lifestyle dimensions being measured (Chang et al., 2015a; Erasmus, Donoghue & Sonnenberg, 2011; Hur et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2009; Thøgersen; 2017a; Wan & Toppinen, 2016). Then it was decided what lifestyle dimensions would be targeted for this study. Finally, the existing items with the highest factor loadings on

these dimensions were selected for inclusion in the questionnaire. Three new items were also created. Table 7 provides a summary of the findings of the first step.

Table 7.

List of Factors Extracted in Various FAE-Related Lifestyle Studies

Chang et al. 2015a Technology	Erasmus et al. 2011 Household appliances	Hur et al. 2010 Kitchen appliances	Lee at al. 2009 High tech	Thøgersen 2017 Household related lifestyle	Wan & Toppinen 2016 Children's furniture
Fashion	Functionality	Social & dining	Fashion conscious	Shopping	Brand & reputation
Practical	Impressiveness	Health food	Leisure orientated	Advertising	Aesthetics
Follower	Aesthetics	Party	Internet involvement	Labels	Functionality & durability
	Quality	Refrigerated food	E-shopping preference	Quality	Environment
	Finishes	Size of appliances		Space	
	Reputation	Indifference		Costs	
	Price	Cleanness		Garden	
		Improvement requirements		Handyman	
		Environment		DIY	
		Family		Family collaboration	
		Trend		Energy saving	
		Price		Functionality	
				Family life	
				Privacy	
				Status symbol	
				Consumption situation	

From Table 7 it can be deduced that Fashion/trendiness, Pragmatism/functionality, Status, Cost Consciousness, Quality/style, Family, Leisure/Entertainment and Health are likely lifestyle dimensions relating to FAE. In addition, some items that were expected to load on the Tradition factor were included. The first FAE AIO scale that was tested with a focus group of regional managers included five items each for Fashion, Pragmatism, Status, Cost Consciousness, Quality and Family, as well as Leisure and Health (3 items), and Tradition (2 items), totalling 38 items. This was pilot tested at a management meeting with 18 senior operational managers (regional manager and above) of the relevant retail chain, to ensure that it was clear and unambiguous. All senior managers completed the questionnaire. Since many managers exceeded the planned 30 minutes to complete the survey, it was decided to shorten the

lifestyle questionnaire to 30 items. Those items with the lowest differences in response were dropped. At the request of management, a question on the consumers' interest in soccer ("I am a soccer fan") was included, as the marketing team had recently changed the marketing strategy to be linked with soccer. Management was interested in establishing the level of interest in this sport amongst their customers. The final AIO questionnaire contained five items for Entertainment/leisure; four each for Price, Status and Style; three each for Family, Fashion; Pragmatism and Tradition; and two for Health. The revised FAE-related AIO scale consisted of 31 items. Items were presented in random order (refer to [Appendix 5](#)).

The lifestyle statements were measured on a five-point Likert type scale. Likert scales are the most frequently used scales to measure attitudes, generally accepted as the scaling method to be used in consumer survey research, and easy for consumers to answer (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014; Wrenn & Silver, 2013). Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. It was considered appropriate not to exceed a five-point scale, given the time constraints, need for simplicity, questionnaire translation, length of the questionnaire as well as possible low levels of literacy. To improve the understanding of all respondents, the verbally anchored scales were combined with emoticons, as illustrated in Figure 4.

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements:

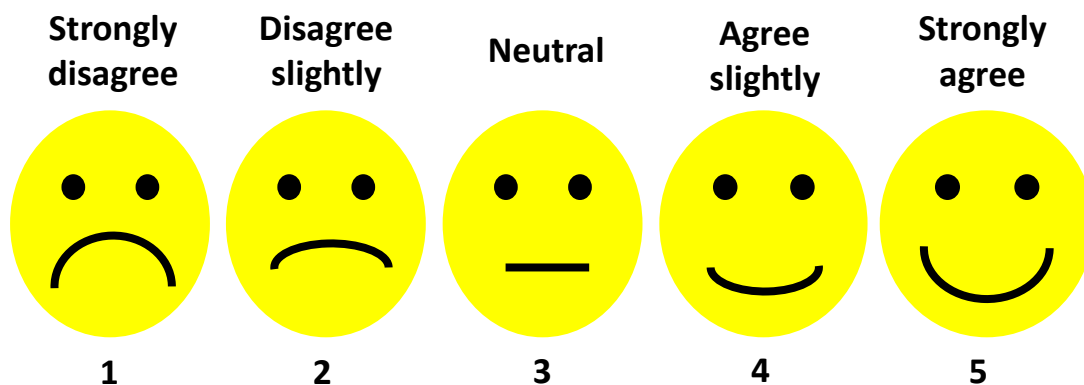


Figure 4. Example of Likert Scale Incorporating Emoticons

The next part of section B dealt with shopping motivation.

3.5.2.2 Measurement of shopping motivation

As discussed in section 2.5, the 24-item scale developed by Kim based on the 1994 work of Babin, Dardin and Griffen (Arnold & Reynolds, 2012; Kim, 2006) measures consumer motivation on six hedonic and two utilitarian shopping motivations. The hedonic categories are *Adventure* (3 items), *Gratification* (3 items), *Social shopping* (3 items), *Idea shopping* (3 items), *Value shopping* (3 items) and *Role shopping* (3 items). The utilitarian categories are *Efficiency* (2 items) and *Achievement* (4 items). The reported Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for all factors ranged from .60 (Efficiency) to .89 (Social shopping). Confirmatory factor analyses successfully validated the items used to measure the six hedonic and two utilitarian shopping motivations (Kim, 2006).

O'Brien (2010) applied the scale developed by Kim, but her results of the reliability and correlation analyses of the utilitarian and hedonic motivation scales were not consistent with those of Kim (2006). The Cronbach alphas of the Efficiency sub-scale (.38) and Role shopping (.63) were deemed unacceptable. The remaining sub-scales had the following Cronbach alphas: Achievement (.87); Adventure (.79); Gratification (.83); Idea shopping (.82); Social shopping (.89); and Value shopping (.82). Through factor analysis the Efficiency and Role sub-scales were eliminated, while the Adventure and Gratification items merged to form one factor. The five factors explained 74.7 per cent of the variance: Adventure/Gratification (35.3%), Achievement (19.59%), Social (7.62%), Value (6.64%), and Idea (5.56%) (O'Brien, 2010). In this study, O'Brien's 19-item scale was used as a measure for shopping motivation as it was deemed to have acceptable psychometric properties. The final question in section B dealt with values.

3.5.2.3 Values

As discussed in section 2.4.3, a number of value measurement systems, including Rokeach's value system (RVS), Schwartz' theory about values, and Kahle's LOV were available for consideration. The theoretical underpinnings of LOV come mainly from Maslow's and Rokeach's reasoning on human nature, motivation, and personality (Kohlbacher et al., 2011). According to Kohlbacher et al. (2011), LOV emerged as one of the most widely used approaches to measure personal values in consumer research. LOV has been found to relate more closely

to people's daily lives, and is more consumer oriented than other measures (Hansen, Risborg, & Steen, 2012).

According to Lee, Soutar and Louviere (2007, p. 1046) "The brevity, simplicity, and general application to everyday life make the LOV scale easy to use, straightforward, and comprehensible for respondents in many contexts and cultures". The main advantages of LOV compared to other measures is its small size, resulting in easy capturing; the fact that it is easy to use for group comparisons, and that it is more transferable across cultures as it contains no specifically Western-oriented concepts (Lee et al., 2007). LOV has been used in a wide spectrum of consumer research settings in a variety of cross-cultural context and countries (Begunca, 2017; Grunert & Scherhorn, 1990; Kamakura & Novak, 1992; Kohlbacher et al., 2011; Sudbury-Riley, Hofmeister-Toth & Kohlbacher, 2014). The list of values (LOV) was accordingly deemed suitable for use in this study.

The scale consists of nine items that respondents are asked to rate on a 5-point Likert scale, in which 1 means not at all important and 5 means extremely important. While a nine-point scale is often used, the researcher decided to use the 5-point scale for consistency and to prevent confusion. In addition, respondents were asked to rank the two most important values, as well as the two least important values, a common practice in applications of this scale (Kamakura & Novak, 1992). Lee et al. (2007) requested respondents to rank all nine values, and to indicate the least important values as well, but it was decided that this would create unnecessary complexity, given the sample profile.

Values research has reflected that respondents tend to rate most items as important, leading to skewed response data (Lee et al., 2007). It was thus expected that most if not all items would be significantly negatively skewed. In line with previous research, significant correlations between the different items were also expected. The question on values completed Section B.

3.5.3 Section C: Measurement of demographics

Section C included the demographic items. Respondents' age, gender, marital status, level of education, number and ages of children, occupational level, residence (urban or rural), level of income and perceived social class were determined. Many respondents failed to complete their address on the questionnaire. It was thus decided to use the location of the store as proxy

of their address, as the consumers who buy on credit are likely to buy close to home, since they have to visit the store on a monthly basis to make payment of their instalment.

3.6 Data analysis and interpretation

Statistical analysis was performed with the Statistica Statistical Package (version 13). Firstly, various descriptive statistics (means and frequency tables) were generated for the sample data and mean scores calculated for the HED/UT, lifestyle, shopping motivation, values and information sources scales.

Following on a reliability analysis, principal component analysis was conducted to validate the measurement properties of the HED/UT, lifestyle and shopping motivation scales. The data analysis proceeded with a clustering analysis aiming to identify FAE segments or clusters, and concluded with an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the differences between the identified clusters. More details are provided in the following paragraphs.

3.6.1 Reliability analysis

Cronbach's alpha is extensively reported in the psychological literature as an index or estimate of reliability (Cortina, 1993; Gliem & Gliem, 2003; Shevlin, Miles, Davies & Walker, 2000), and, according to Peterson (1994), it remains the most commonly used measure of scale reliability. However, different authors provide different guidelines or "rules of thumb" as to what constitutes "sufficient" or "acceptable" reliability for research purposes (Peterson, 1994). These differences in recommendations regarding minimally acceptable reliability are illustrated in Table 8.

From Table 8 it can be deduced that the required degree of reliability can differ depending on the type of research. A scale used in preliminary research can be less reliable than one used to make decisions about individuals or to discriminate between groups. The Cronbach alphas were calculated for the HED/UT, lifestyle and shopping motivation scales.

Table 8.
A Selection of Recommended Reliability Levels

Author	Situation	Recommended level
Davis (1964, p. 24)	Prediction for individual	Above .75
	Prediction for group of 25 - 50	.5
	Prediction for group over 50	Below .5
Nunnally, (1967, p. 226)	Preliminary research	.5 - .6
	Basic research	.8
	Applied research	.9
Nunnally (1978, p. 245-246)	Preliminary research	.7
	Basic research	.8
	Applied research	.9-.95
Murphy & Davidshofer (1988, p. 89)	Unacceptable	Below .6
	Low	.7
	Moderate to high	.8 - .9
	High level	.9
De Vere (2003, p. 95)	Unacceptable	.6
	Undesirable	.6 - .65
	Minimally acceptable	.65 - .7
	Respectable	.7 - .8
	Very good	.8 - .9
	Attempt to reduce no of items	Above .9
George & Mallory (2003, p. 231)	Unacceptable	Below .5
	Poor	.5 - .6
	Questionable	.6 - .7
	Acceptable	.7 - .8
	Good	.8 - .9
	Excellent	Above .9

(Compiled from De Vellis, 2003, p. 95; George & Mallory, 2003, p. 231; Peterson, 1994, p. 382)

3.6.2 Principal component analysis

To identify the underlying dimensions captured by the 31 items of the lifestyle scale and the 18-item shopping motivation scale, principal component analysis (PCA) with Oblimin rotation was applied. The decision about how many components or factors to retain was based on a scree plot and parallel analysis, rather than Kaiser's criterion. Field (2013) advised that parallel analysis delivered the best results.

3.6.3 Cluster analysis

Cluster analysis is a statistical technique that sorts observations into similar sets or groups. The aim is to do this in such a manner that the statistical variance among elements grouped

together is minimised while between-group variance is maximised (Alvarez et al., 2014; Díaz et al., 2018; Ketchen & Shook, 1996).

A selection of an appropriate clustering algorithm (the rules or procedures followed to sort observations) needs to be made. There are two basic types of algorithms: hierarchical and non-hierarchical. Hierarchical algorithms follow a series of steps that build a tree-like structure by either adding individual elements to (i.e., agglomerative) or deleting them from (i.e., divisive) clusters. Non-hierarchical algorithms (also referred to as K-means or iterative methods) partition a data set into a pre-specified number of clusters (Ketchen & Shook, 1996). Latent class analysis (LCA) is an increasingly popular clustering method for identifying related cases in a data set (Thøgersen, 2017b). Latent classes are groups of participants that score in a similar way on the various variables measured.

In this study, the lifestyle and shopping motivation of consumers was used to identify clusters or segments. Hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward's method and Euclidean distances was employed to determine the optimum number of clusters. To confirm the output, the same data was subjected to latent class analysis. Both methods produced similar results and the same number of clusters.

Once clusters had been determined, the significance of the differences between clusters on the various variables were determined with chi-square and ANOVA analyses. Only variables that differed significantly between the clusters were employed to profile the various consumer segments.

3.6.4 Univariate analysis of variance

The ANOVA F test is the conventional approach for conducting tests of mean equality in between-subjects designs (Díaz et al., 2018; Keselman et al., 1998). It is used when there is one outcome variable, but there can be more than one grouping variable. It is the effect of the grouping variable(s) on the outcome variable that is of interest to the researcher who employs ANOVA techniques (Keselman et al., 1998).

Keselman et al. (1998) caution that it is only a valid approach if the assumptions of normality and variance homogeneity that the test relies on, are met. The effect of using ANOVA when the data is non-normal and/or heterogeneous is a distortion in the rates of Type I and/or Type

II errors (or the power of the test), particularly when group sizes are unequal (Keselman et al., 1998). Alternative test procedures could include the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test or the Mann-Whitney U test (in the case of two groups) (Keselman et al., 1998).

The decision as to what test to use, and whether single variables or multiple variables need to be analysed at any one time, was duly considered. The appropriateness of the various statistical analyses was confirmed from the literature and with an academic and statistical expert from the Centre for Statistical Consultation from Stellenbosch University.

3.7 Ethical considerations

After the research proposal was approved by the department, and before data could be collected from respondents, the researcher was required to apply for institutional permission from the Research Ethics Committee (REC), as well as for ethical clearance from the Departmental Ethics Screening Committee (DESC) at Stellenbosch University. The DESC committee considered the research proposal and awarded ethical clearance, based on the classification that the data gathering posed low risk to potential respondents. The ethical clearance letter is included as [Annexure 6](#). Once ethical permission was obtained, the researcher could continue with the data collection.

As a requirement for obtaining ethical clearance for the study, a cover letter was included in the briefing pack that accompanied the questionnaires sent to all stores. Branch management were requested to hand the letter, explaining the purpose of the survey, to all respondents, give them sufficient time to read it, and then to obtain their expressed consent before proceeding to complete the questions. The cover letter highlighted that participation in the survey was voluntary and anonymous and attempted to put respondents at ease by explaining the purpose of the survey. Respondents had to agree to participate in the study by answering “yes” to the first question “I consent”. All questionnaires were completed anonymously, thus protecting the confidentiality and anonymity of participants. No individual data analysis was done – all analyses were done on group data.

3.8 Summary: Chapter 3

The purpose of Chapter 3 was to demonstrate that the research methodology followed was appropriate to defend the eventual conclusions reached. At the start of the chapter, the

research paradigm and design were discussed briefly. This was followed by a description of the population and sample, as well as the data collection method and measurement instruments. Next the statistical techniques used to analyse and interpret the data were discussed. The chapter concluded with a brief summary of the process followed to ensure that the study complied with current ethical requirements for social research. In the next chapter, the results are presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The main objective of this study was to establish to what extent FAE consumers in Botswana can be clustered according to their demographic characteristics, lifestyle, values, product attitude, shopping motivation and pre-purchase search behaviour. Chapter 3 presented the methodology that was utilised to gather the data and gave an overview of the statistical procedures applied. This chapter reports the results, interpretation and discussion of the data analysis.

4.2 Description of sample profile

The results of the demographic information give a descriptive profile of the respondents that took part in this study. As some of the respondents did not answer all the questions (missing cases), the total sample size varies for the different variables. Forty-two stores returned 343 usable questionnaires. Six stores failed to return questionnaires – three of these were urban. Of the questionnaires, 72 (21%) were completed in Setswana, the rest (79%) in English.

4.2.1 The representativeness of the sample

Although the quota sampling procedures were not strictly adhered to, a fairly representative sample of FAE consumers of this specific chain was obtained. As described in section 3.3.2, furniture makes up 50 per cent of sales, with appliances at 30 per cent and electronics at 20 per cent. The sample included 49 per cent furniture purchasers, 20 per cent appliance purchasers, and 31 per cent electronics buyers ($n = 315$). Furniture was thus correctly represented, with appliances underrepresented and electronics overrepresented. Morning shoppers constituted 39 per cent of respondents, lunch-time shoppers 25 per cent and afternoon shoppers 36 per cent ($n = 291$). The majority (69%) of respondents shopped during the week, whilst 31 per cent shopped over the weekend ($n = 299$). Weekend shoppers were thus underrepresented. Despite these differences, operational management deemed the distribution to be a fair representation of the times and days that consumers purchased. In this chain, the number of rural stores exceeds the number of urban stores. There are 30 rural stores

(63% of all stores) and 18 urban stores (37% of all stores). Where the location of the store was used as proxy for the residence of the consumer as discussed in section 3.5.3, this meant that 62 per cent of respondents were rural and 38 per cent urban (n = 343). This contrasts with official statistics, which denote that 64 per cent of Botswana citizens are urban (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 11). However, the substantial rural penetration of the chain is seen as a major competitive advantage. The sample was thus regarded as broadly representative of the chain's customer profile.

The demographical characteristics of the sample will be described next.

4.2.2 Gender and age

Regarding gender, 53 per cent of respondents were female and 47 per cent male (n = 302). This is broadly in line with national statistics that show that 51.1 per cent of the population is female and 48.8 per cent male (Statistics Botswana, 2015b, p. 3). The age distribution is indicated in Table 9.

Table 9.
Age Distribution

Age	Number (n = 333)	Percentage
25 years or younger	46	14%
Between 26 and 35 years	107	32%
Between 36 and 45 years	110	33%
Between 46 and 55 years	54	16%
56 years or older	16	5%

Table 9 shows that 65 per cent of the respondents were between the ages of 26 and 45. As expected (see section 2.3.1), this is higher than the national median age of 26 years.

4.2.3 Level of education

Of the respondents, 46 per cent had completed secondary education, followed by 36 per cent with tertiary education. Only nine per cent had completed primary school only, with eight per cent holding a postgraduate qualification, and a mere three per cent having no education at all (n = 324).

4.2.4 Marital status

Regarding marital status, 54 per cent of respondents were never married, with 25 per cent married and 17 per cent living together. Two per cent were separated or divorced, and another two per cent widowed ($n = 331$). Apart from married respondents and those widowed, this is broadly in line with national statistics, where 56 per cent of people over the age of 12 years have never married, 18 per cent are married, 21 per cent are living together, one per cent divorced or separated and four per cent widowed (Statistics Botswana, 2015b, p. 44). The age of 12 years seems very young; however, this is used in Statistics Botswana data.

4.2.5 Number of children

On average, families were small (median of the number of children 1.0; with a mean of 1.46). While families ranged from zero to seven children, those with six or seven children were outliers. The largest group (37%) of respondents had no children, followed by 24 per cent with two children, 17 per cent with one child, and 12 per cent with three children. Only nine per cent had four children or more ($n = 343$).

4.2.6 Occupation

The different occupational categories of respondents are illustrated in Figure 5. The biggest group (21%) of respondents indicated their occupation as professional, while more than 50 per cent fell into one of three groups of approximately equal size, namely unskilled, semi-skilled and administrative.

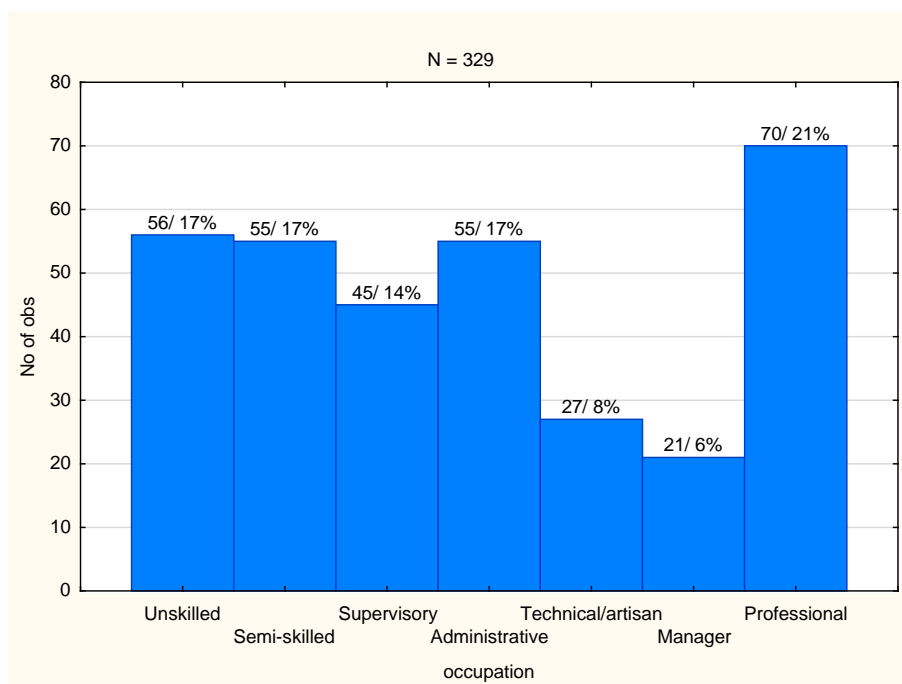


Figure 5. Occupation

Regarding place of work, 20 per cent of respondents worked for government, followed by 16 per cent in retail and seven per cent each in agriculture and security, six per cent in mining and five per cent in finance. The largest group (40%) of respondents worked in other industries.

4.2.7 Level of income

Although the biggest group (23%) earned between P3,200 and P6,199 per month, more than half (54%) of the respondents earned less than P3,200 per month. Only four per cent earned more than P20,000. The income distribution is indicated in Table 10.

Table 10.

Income Distribution

Monthly gross income	Number (n = 340)	Percentage
Less than P1,500	54	16%
Between P1,500 and P2,299	65	19%
Between P2,300 and P3,199	65	19%
Between P3,200 and P6,199	77	23%
Between P6,200 and P9,999	36	11%
Between P9,999 and P19,999	30	9%
More than P20,000	13	4%

The majority (64%) of respondents indicated full-time salary or wages as their source of income, while 18 per cent indicated that it came from their own business. The remainder was rental income (5%), part-time wages (4%), investments (1%), grants (1%) and other (4%).

4.2.8 Social class

Respondents were asked to self-classify their social class (refer to Figure 6). The largest group (41%) described themselves as middle class, while 31 per cent perceived themselves as working class, 17 per cent lower middle class, and 11 per cent upper middle class (upper class was unfortunately not included as an option). A report of the ADB (2011) listed Botswana's middle classes as constituting 47,6 per cent of the total population, the sixth highest in Africa, after Tunisia, Morocco, Egypt, Algeria and Gabon, and the highest in SSA. In contrast, a 2018 study (Van Blerk, 2018) found that over 60 per cent of urban Africans can be defined as middle class. However, with self-classification of 69 per cent as middle class, the self-classification far exceeds the reported norms. This could be due to a variety of reasons: a reluctance to select the extremes when asked to self-classify social class; the giving of a socially desirable answer to the interviewer; a misunderstanding of the social class terms used; or simply due to the nature of the FAE goods purchased, as the middle class is typically associated with the widespread ownership of major household durable goods such as lounge suites, refrigerators and telephones (ADB, 2011).

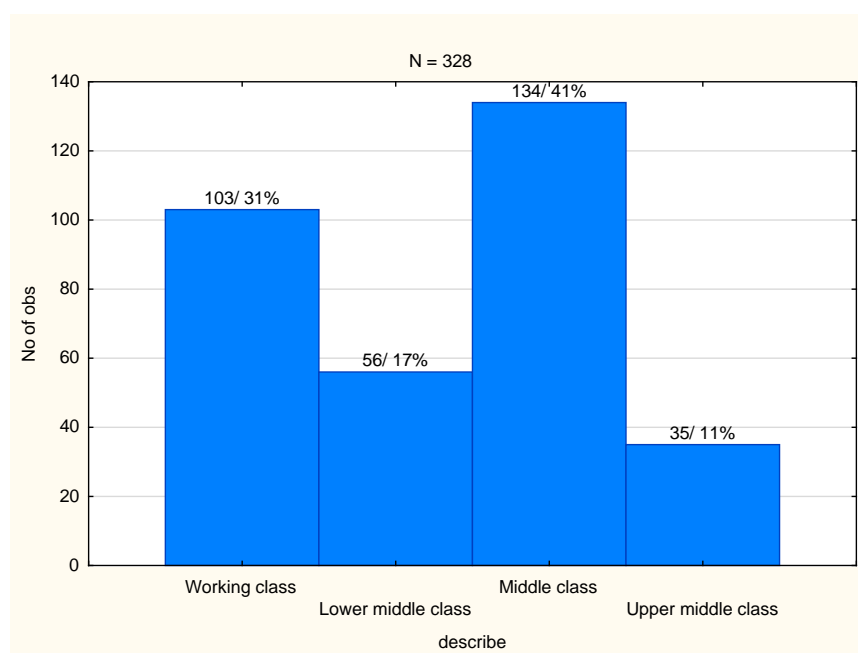


Figure 6. Social Class Self-Description

4.2.9 Family life cycle

As discussed in section 2.3.10, Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) include eleven FLC stages in three age groups, considering marital status and the presence and age of children at home.

The results of the application of the FLC stages to the data are indicated in Table 11. For the purposes of this table, married and living together are deemed to be married, and children over the age of 21 are deemed not to live at home.

Table 11.
Stages of Family Life Cycle

Stage	n 333	Marital Status			Children at home	
		Single	Married	None	< 6 years	> 6 years
Younger (< 35 years)	46%	31%	15%	23%	10%	13%
Single I		17%		17%		
Young married			6%	6%		
Full nest I			9%		4%	5%
Single parent		14%			6%	8%
Middle aged (35 - 54)	49%	26%	23%	11%	20%	18%
Single II		7%		7%		
Delayed full nest I			9%	3%	6%	
Full nest II			13%		6%	7%
Single parent II		19%			8%	11%
Empty nest I			2%	1%		
Older (> 55)	5%	2%	3%	4%	0%	1%
Empty nest II			2%	2%		
Single III		2%		2%	0%	0%
Other			1%			1%

In tabulating the results, it quickly became clear that the eleven-stage FLC proposed by Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) could not readily be applied to the Botswana context, as there are a number of differences: firstly, the presence of children is not necessarily linked to marriage or living together – 36 per cent of the sample are single (never married) parents. Then, a number of parents, whether single or married, tend to have their children at a young age – whilst the Hawkins and Mothersbaugh model (HMM) does not provide for parents in the youngest category (below 35 years) to have children over the age of six years, this is the norm, with 57 per cent of married couples and 60 per cent of single parents in this age group having

children over the age of six years. Moreover, the HMM does not readily provide for married couples over the age of 35 years who have never had children (5% of respondents fall into this category). The analysis confirms that the traditional FLC is certainly not prevalent in Botswana. Married or co-habiting couples are in the minority (except for the over 55-year age group). The largest group of respondents (38%) have no children living at home, 32 per cent have children over six years, and 30 per cent have children below six years. Under these circumstances, the depiction of the traditional core family of two parents and two children, generally used in marketing material, may have to be reconsidered.

4.2.10 Interest in soccer

Management specifically requested that, under AIO, the respondents' interest in soccer be appraised. An item stating "*I am a soccer fan*" was included in the questionnaire, and the responses to this item are reflected in Table 12. The majority (54%) regard themselves as soccer fans, either agreeing strongly (41.2%) or slightly (12.9%) with the statement. Just over a quarter (26.7%) of respondents do not like soccer. A large percentage (20%) remained neutral in their response to this statement.

Table 12.
Interest in Soccer ("I am a soccer fan")

	Number (n = 311)	Percentage
1 (Strongly disagree)	55	17,7%
2 (Disagree slightly)	28	9,0%
3 (Neutral)	60	19,3%
4 (Agree slightly)	40	12,9%
5 (Strongly agree)	128	41,2%

A promotion targeting soccer fans would thus resonate with most of the chain's customers.

4.2.11 Choice of prize

The last question asked participants to indicate their prize preference, should they win the lucky draw. A large majority (77%) of the respondents selected the P7,000 rebate on their account, while only 23 per cent selected the tablet to the same value (n = 330). This result is indicative of the utilitarian or functional orientation of the majority of the sample as a more "functional" prize was preferred. The literature suggests that shopping orientation influences

how consumers react to promotions (Büttner et al., 2015; Reid et al., 2015). However, the findings could also be due to the budgetary constraints faced by the consumers in the sample, as this often leads to 'mental accounting' (O'Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001) and the consumer needing to make a responsible choice, where needs outweigh wants (Büttner et al., 2015).

4.3 Results

Having discussed the representativeness of the sample, as well as its demographical characteristics, attention will now turn to the remaining results of the analysis.

4.3.1 Product, price and type of purchase

As discussed in section 4.2.1, 49 per cent of the sample bought furniture, 20 per cent bought appliances, and 31 per cent purchased electronics. The average price paid for the purchase was P5,306, while the median price was P4,499. The price range for FAE items was wide – the minimum price paid was P69, while the maximum was P37,197. Per product category, as expected, furniture was the most expensive with an average price of R6,118, which was statistically significantly higher than the average price for appliances at R4,548 and that for electronics at R4,557. There was no statistically significant difference between the mean prices for the latter two categories.

The purchases were predominantly made on credit (86%) over 24 months (61%); 18 months (12%), 12 months (10%), and six months (3%). Cash purchases amounted to 14% (n = 325).

4.3.2 Prior purchases, joint decision-making and time spent on decision prior to purchase

For the majority of respondents, this was a first-time purchase (51%, 1st purchase; 19%, 2nd purchase; 16%, 3rd purchase; 6%, 4th purchase and 7%, 5th purchase and more) (n = 341). It can thus be argued that prior knowledge of the product was limited for most consumers in this sample, which will suggest the need for an extensive information search process to assist with decision-making (Chang et al., 2015b; Chaudhuri, 1997; Maity et al., 2014; Van Staden & Van Aardt, 2011).

Joint decision-making was not common (75% sole decision; 16% jointly with spouse; 5% jointly with children, 4% jointly with others) (n = 337). Even though the involvement of spouses was higher for appliances (68% sole decision; 23% jointly with spouse), when considering that 42

per cent of respondents were either married or living together, the low level of joint decision-making for FAE is surprising and does not support the literature on decision-making trends in families (Cross & Gilly, 2014; Ndubisi & Koo, 2006; Van der Merwe, 2005). As the literature suggests that joint decision-making with children is more common for electronics than for other product types (Beneke et al., 2011; Kerrane et al., 2012), this was further investigated. Results were as expected, with children playing a role in seven per cent of electronics purchases, contrasted with only three per cent for furniture and six per cent for appliances.

Impulse purchases were not the norm. This was expected, since prices are fairly high and prior knowledge obtained through previous purchases was limited, which could lead to the increase in perceived risk (Chang et al., 2015b; Erasmus et al., 2002).

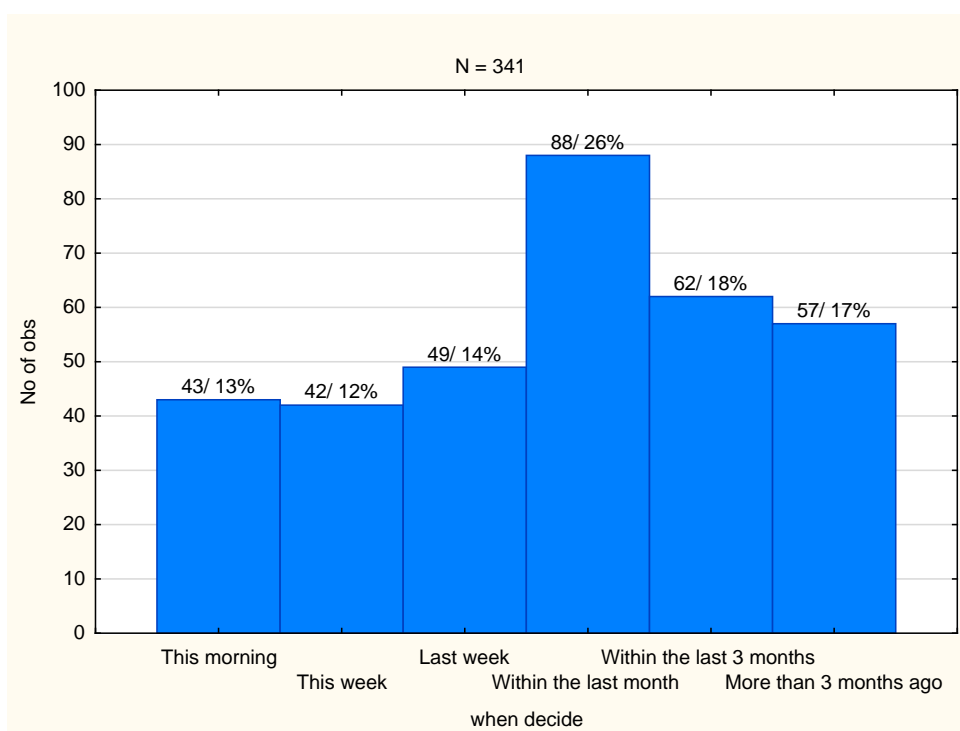


Figure 7. Time Since Decision

Most respondents indicated a significant period spent between having made the decision to purchase and the actual purchase. When the decision was made is reflected in Figure 7. Of respondents, 26 per cent decided within the last month, followed by 18 per cent within the last three months, and 17 per cent took longer than three months to act on the decision. Thus 61 per cent took a month or more to decide to purchase the particular item. Only 14 per cent

decided in the previous week, 12 per cent during the week, and 13 per cent decided on the day of purchase (n = 341).

The most common information sources used by participants are considered next.

4.3.3 Information sources used

Participants listed in-store sales people as the most important source of information used to make the purchase, with a mean sample score of 4.43. This was followed by in-store display (\bar{x} = 4.41), store advertising leaflet (\bar{x} = 4.31), and speaking to family (\bar{x} = 4.18). Figure 8 depicts a graphical representation of the findings. (Different letters represent statistically significant differences; shared letters indicate no statistically significant difference).

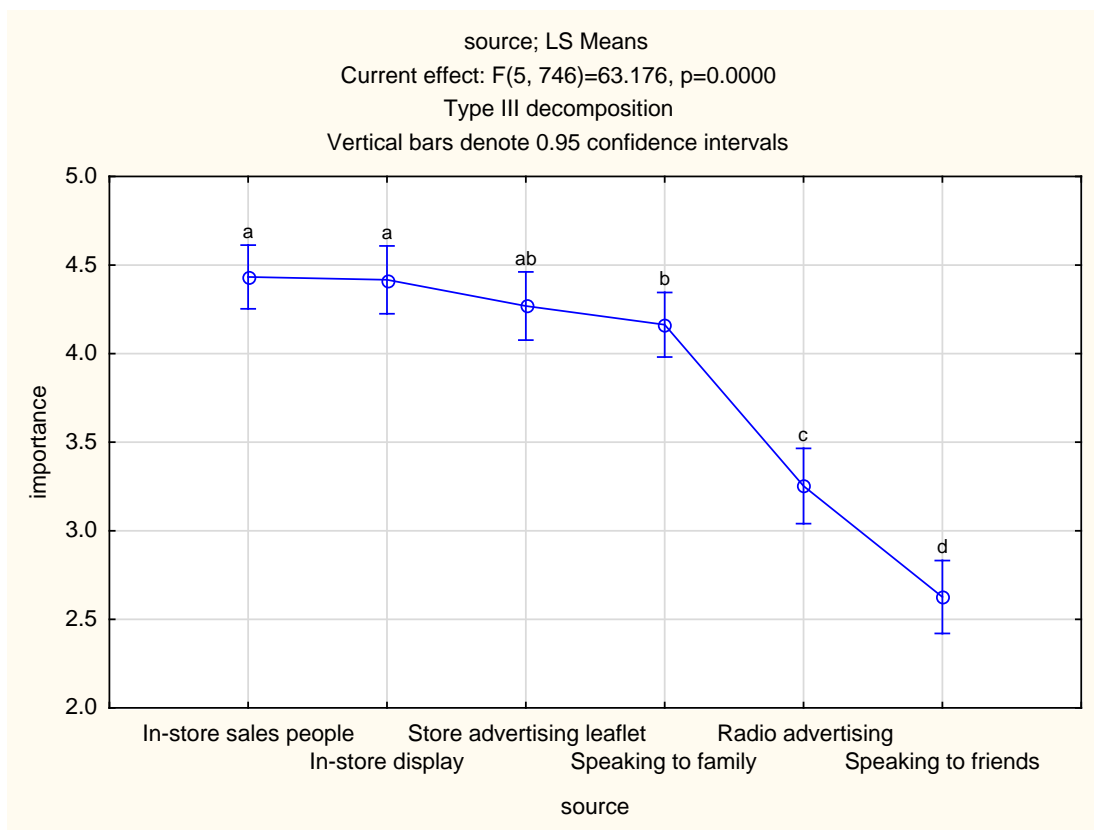


Figure 8. Importance of Information Sources

Radio advertising (\bar{x} = 3.29) and speaking to friends (\bar{x} = 2.61) were perceived as far less important. The importance of the sources of information showed no statistically significant differences between the types of product purchased. There was also no statistically significant difference between the importance of sources of information offered by in-store sales people,

in-store display and a store advertising leaflet. Nor was there a statistically significant difference between a store advertising leaflet and speaking to family. Significant differences were evident for radio advertising and speaking to friends.

The importance of the in-store sales people and in-store displays as a source of information in the purchase decision is confirmed for this sample. This result is a confirmation of literature (see for example Liu & Leach, 2001 and Van Staden & Van Aardt, 2011). The perceived credibility of sales staff is based on trust, which increases when customers see them as dependable, honest, competent, customer-oriented and likeable; and expertise, possessing accurate, current and specialised knowledge of the products they sell (Liu & Leach, 2001). For the retailer the results endorse the importance of ongoing training to ensure that sales people know how to establish a trust relationship with customers, are fully informed about the products they sell, and know how to build attractive in-store displays that assist consumers in decision-making. This should remain a core focus area for management and staff training.

4.3.4 Product attitude

The next analysis intended to establish whether respondents regarded the different products purchased as functional or hedonic, or a combination of the two. As discussed in section 3.5.1, the literature suggests that the hedonic and utilitarian constructs are two distinct dimensions of product or brand attitude (Im et al., 2015; Lehto, 2013; Voss et al., 2003), and that products can reliably be classified in one of the four quadrants generated, namely high utilitarian/high hedonic; high utilitarian/low hedonic; low utilitarian/high hedonic; and low utilitarian/low hedonic.

The two sub-scales of the HED/UT scale were subjected to reliability analysis. The results indicate very good reliability, with standardised alphas of .89 (utilitarian) and .87 (hedonic), which is in line with that reported in previous studies (Im et al., 2015; Lehto, 2013; Voss et al., 2003). All three product categories were perceived as high on both dimensions, indicating that products were regarded as both highly functional and highly hedonic or pleasurable. Initially, it was somewhat surprising to the researcher that furniture and appliances were regarded as “fun” or “pleasurable”, until the pleasure of a good night’s sleep (bed) and a cold beer on a hot day (fridge) were considered. Electronics received the highest ratings for utilitarian and hedonic value. This was as expected, given the findings of Alba and Williams (2012) that

indicate that, over the course of a day, a cell phone can swing from being a tool to being a toy; and that of Voss et al. (2003), where TV sets were classified as high utilitarian/high hedonic. The sample means scores are reflected in Table 13 (scores on the utilitarian scale were originally reversed, but this was adjusted to simplify reporting).

Table 13.

Category Sample Mean Scores on Utilitarian and Hedonic Scales

	UT	HED
Electronics	4.64	4.45
Appliances	4.39	4.28
Furniture	4.21	4.25

Both the UT and HED mean scores for electronics were statistically significantly higher than those of the other two categories, whilst there were no statistically significant differences between appliances and furniture. Since previous findings (Kivetz & Zheng, 2016) demonstrate that promotions are more effective on hedonic items, since they provide a guilt-reducing justification for the acquisition, the findings may suggest that sales of electronics will benefit more from various promotions (whether price discounts, rebates, coupons and loyalty rewards) than the other two categories, but more research will be required to confirm this. Moreover, where bundles are promoted, the discount should be framed on the electronic item, rather than on the item of furniture or appliances that it is promoted with (Khan & Dhar, 2010).

Having analysed the participants' product attitude, the focus will turn to lifestyle.

4.3.5 Lifestyle

As discussed in sections 2.4 and 3.5.2, lifestyle is a complex multidimensional construct. In compiling the lifestyle questionnaire, nine underlying dimensions were postulated, based on the literature. However, none of these sub-scales showed satisfactory reliability. Four of the sub-scales had reliability lower than .50. The results were as follows: Fashion (3 items – $\alpha = .58$); Family (3 items – $\alpha = .50$); Price (4 items – $\alpha = .41$); Style (4 items – $\alpha = .53$); Entertainment (5 items = $\alpha = .50$); Status (4 items – $\alpha = .51$); Pragmatism (3 items – $\alpha = .21$); Health (2 items – $\alpha = .29$); and Tradition (3 items – $\alpha = .23$). While some of the alphas would have increased if certain items were deleted, it still did not show sufficient improvement to be deemed reliable.

Under these circumstances, it was decided that the postulated sub-scales could not be analysed.

Whilst the results were disappointing, it was not unexpected. This is firstly because of the relatively low number of items per sub-scale, as well as for the scale as a whole. Cronbach alpha is affected by the length of the test. If the test length is too short, the value of alpha is reduced (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Moreover, on the entertainment sub-scale low reliability is understandable, as those watching TV will not necessarily like listening to music, having friends over or watching soccer. Furthermore, even a well-established and longer AIO scale (Kahle's 56 item AIO questionnaire) used on different occasions or in different countries leads to inconsistent results (Harcar & Kaynak, 2008; Kaynak & Kara, 2001; Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Kucukemiroglu et al., 2007; Spillan et al., 2007). Since all 31 items referred to AIO, the remaining analyses were done on the 31-item scale as a whole. Previous lifestyle studies followed a similar approach, namely Banerjee and Mishra (2015) with 27 items, Chang et al. (2015a) with 11 items, Hur et al. (2010) with 98 items, Ko et al. (2012) with 35 items, and Narang (2010) with 67 items.

To explore the components or factors that underlie the AIO scale, the full 31-item lifestyle scale was subsequently subjected to principal component analysis with Oblimin rotation. Parallel analysis, combined with a scree plot, was used to determine the number of factors. The results are reported in Table 14. As recommended by Stevens (cited by Field, 2013), only factor loadings with a value greater than 0.40 on one factor are reported.

Table 14.
Lifestyle Factors Extracted

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Our home provides ideal space for quality time in our family	0.57		
I often buy the latest model in electronic products	0.56		
The design of appliances, i.e. shape, is important to me	0.56		
Owning beautiful appliances could boost one's image among friends	0.55		
I exercise regularly to keep fit	0.53		
The colour of my appliances should match my kitchen's colour scheme and decor	0.52		
Price is important to me, i.e. I decide beforehand what I will pay	0.50		
I follow the latest trends and fashions	0.49		
Appliances must be as affordable as possible, i.e. as cheap as possible	0.43		
I dress to impress, rather than for comfort		0.62	
I would buy certain brands to impress others		0.61	
Usually, I want to follow other's steps rather than being a trendsetter		0.55	
I spend a lot of time listening to music		0.53	
I spend a lot of time in front of the TV		0.49	
Having friends visiting at home is an important part of my social life		0.49	
I like showing off my home		0.45	
In our family, we eat a lot of vegetables			-0.63
I like cooking for my family			-0.56
Quality is more important than price			-0.51
I try to arrange my home for my children's convenience			-0.45
Expensive products are of better quality			-0.42

The three lifestyle factors extracted explained only 29.1 per cent of the variance in the lifestyle data. This result is disappointing, but not out of line with previous studies (Du Preez, 2001 – 3 factors explaining 32,1 per cent of the total variance in lifestyle; Spillan et al., 2007 – 8 factors explaining 31,8 per cent of total variance in lifestyle). If Table 14 is analysed, it is suggested that factor 1 denotes a concern with beauty (design & appearance) and fashion, but at a fair price; factor 2 indicates a need to impress others and a tendency to follow rather than set trends, and factor 3 focuses on the family and quality. However, due to the low total variance explained by these three factors, the factors cannot confidently be used in further analyses.

An alternative approach was to investigate the total 31-item lifestyle scale with the use of cluster analysis, to determine whether the data indicated or supported distinct lifestyle

clusters. All 336 cases were subjected to hierarchical clustering, using Ward's method and Euclidean distances. The results are indicated in Figure 9. Three clusters are evident.

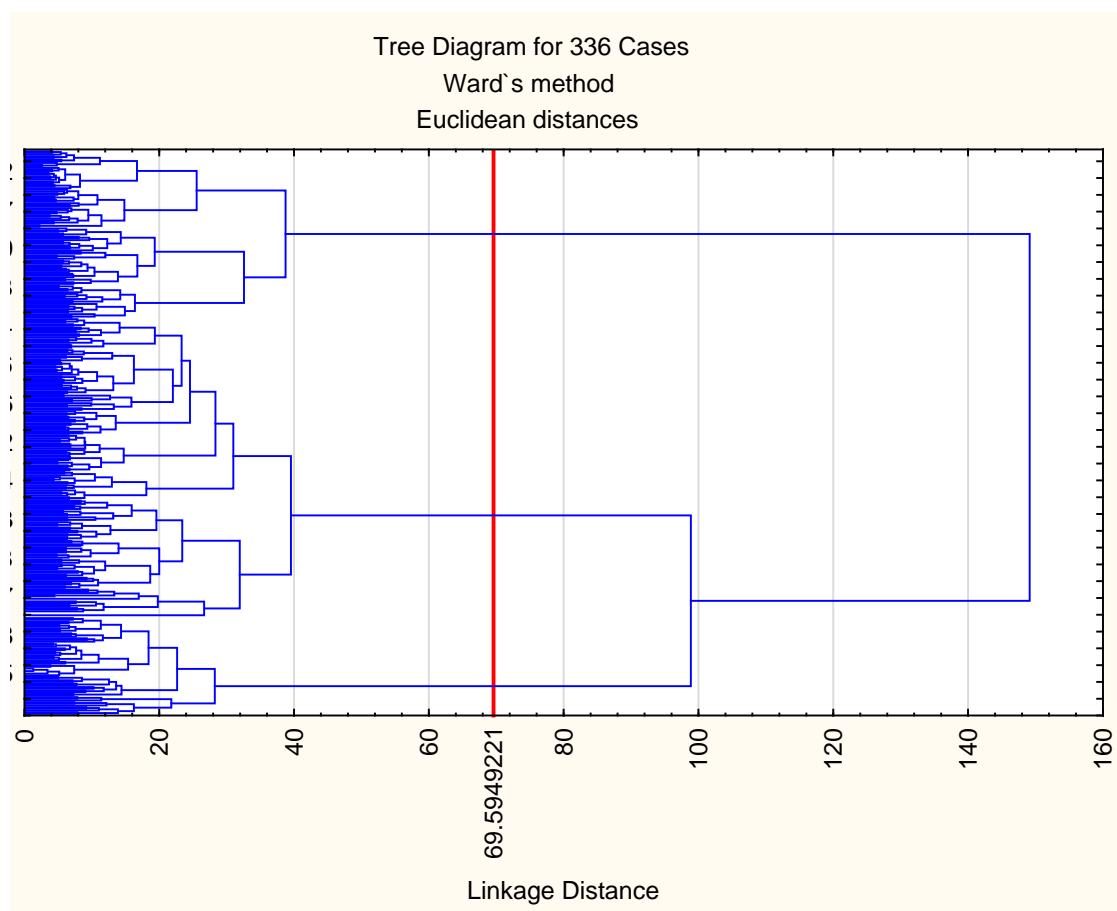


Figure 9. Results of Lifestyle Clustering Using Ward's Hierarchical Method

The same data set was subjected to latent class analysis, and the results confirmed a three-class solution. Further analyses confirmed that the clusters (Ward's method) and classes (Latent Class Analysis) were comparable to a large degree. To be able to describe the differences between three clusters produced by Ward's method, the mean scores (on a 5-point scale) of each cluster on the different items were then compared (Morton et al., 2017). A heatmap of the results is indicated in Figure 10.

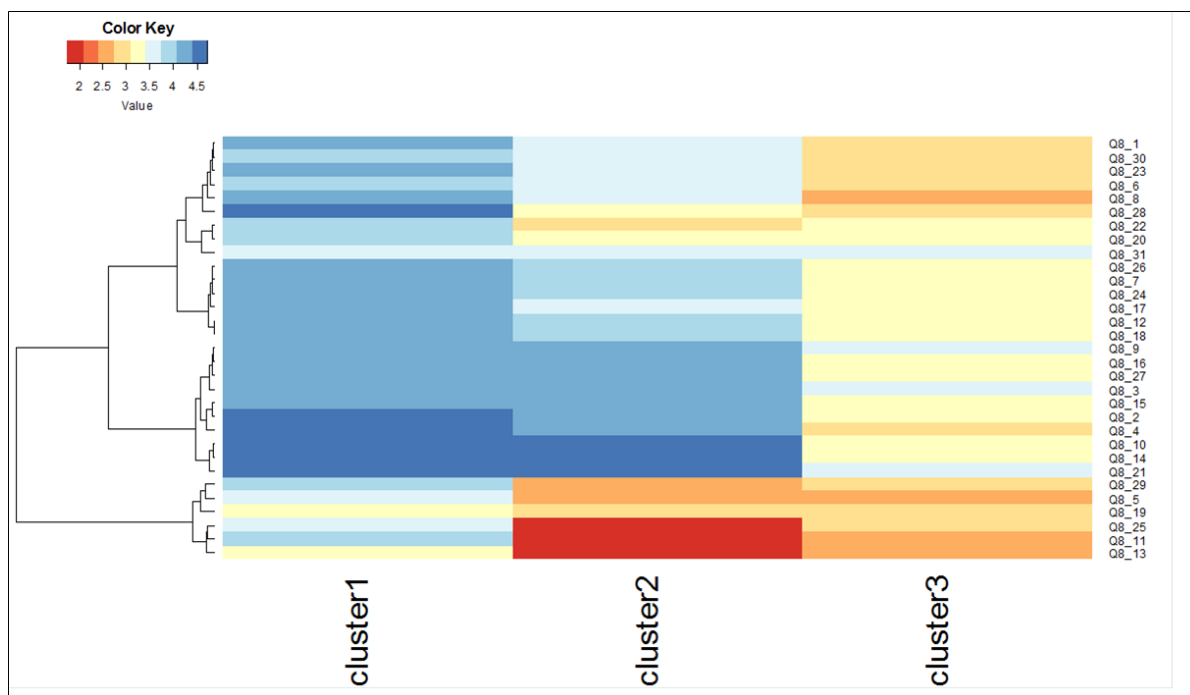


Figure 10. Heat-map of Lifestyle Clusters (Ward's Hierarchical Method)

To facilitate the description of the three clusters indicated in Figure 10, the 31 items are grouped into three groups. Group A consists of items 13, 11, 25, 19, 5 and 29; Group B of items 21, 14, 10, 4, 2, 15, 3, 27, 16 and 9; and Group C of items 18, 12, 17, 24, 7, 26, 31, 20, 22, 28, 8, 6, 23, 30 and 1. These groupings are listed in Table 15.

Both Clusters 1 and 2 scored extremely high ($\bar{x} \geq 4.5$) on the first three items in Group B, namely item 21 (*quality is more important than price*); item 14 (*when buying things for my home, I compare prices in order to get the best value for money*), and item 10 (*price is important to me, i.e. I decide beforehand what I will pay*). A similar result was obtained using latent class analysis. All three items indicate a thrift consciousness, where both value for money and quality are of prime concern – rather than merely price. This aligns with South African research results that reported that thrift was a value widely shared amongst diverse middle-class consumers (McEwan et al., 2015).

Table 15.
Lifestyle Item Groupings to Aid Cluster Description

Item no	Group A
13	Usually, I want to follow other's steps rather than being a trendsetter
11	I dress to impress, rather than for comfort
25	I would buy certain brands to impress others
19	I like spending time at the cattle post
5	I spend a lot of time in front of the TV
29	I like showing off my home
	Group B
21	Quality is more important than price
14	When buying things for my home, I compare prices in order to get the best value for money
10	Price is important to me, i.e. I decide beforehand what I will pay
4	The colour of my appliances should match my kitchen's colour scheme and decor
2	Our home provides ideal space for quality time in our family
15	The design of appliances, i.e. shape, is important to me
3	Appliances must be as affordable as possible, i.e. as cheap as possible
27	I like cooking for my family
16	I try to arrange my home for my children's convenience
9	I don't easily abandon something that can still be used
	Group C
18	In our family, we eat a lot of vegetables
12	I exercise regularly to keep fit
17	I like pursuing new and extraordinary products
24	Expensive products are of better quality
7	Owning beautiful appliances could boost one's image among friends
26	When buying furniture, comfort is more important to me than design
31	Buying things on the internet scares me
20	The amount of the instalment is more important than the cash price
22	I spend a lot of time listening to music
28	Having friends visiting at home is an important part of my social life
8	I often buy the latest model in electronic products
6	It is really important that my home has a big kitchen
23	In my home, function is more important than looks/beauty
30	I am a soccer fan
1	I follow the latest trends and fashions

A description of the different clusters follows.

4.3.5.1. Cluster 1: Family followers (n = 100; 29.8%)

Apart from item 31 (*buying things on the internet scares me*), Cluster 1 scored higher than the other two clusters on all items. The relatively high scores ($3 \leq \bar{x} \leq 3.5$) on the group A items seem to indicate that this cluster of consumers prefer to be followers rather than trendsetters,

they feel the need to impress others, and they are quite traditional. The extremely high scores ($\bar{x} \geq 4.5$) on the first five group B items (items 21, 14, 10, 4 and 2), and high scores ($4 \leq \bar{x} \leq 4.5$) on the other group B items (items 15, 3, 27, 16 and 9) indicate that they are thrifty and family oriented. The extremely high score ($\bar{x} \geq 4.5$) on item 28 (*having friends visiting at home is an important part of my social life*) indicates that they are sociable and entertain at home. Since acquiescence, being respondents' tendency to agree rather than disagree with propositions, appears more frequently among respondents with low socio-economic status (Ingenbleek et al., 2013), the generally high level of agreement amongst this cluster may also indicate lower socio-economic status. This cluster is labelled the "Family followers" and includes 29.8 per cent of the sample.

4.3.5.2. Cluster 2: Confident trendsetters (n = 178; 52.9%)

Cluster 2 scored very low ($\bar{x} \leq 2$), indicating strong disagreement, on the first three items in Group A, and low ($2 \leq \bar{x} \leq 2.5$), indicating disagreement, on items five and 29. They thus regard themselves as trendsetters, who do not need or want to impress others through the way they dress, the brands they buy or their homes. They do not spend a lot of time in front of the TV, and spend less time than the other two clusters listening to music. Like cluster 1, they have a thrift consciousness, indicated by the extremely high scores ($\bar{x} \geq 4.5$) on the first three items of Group B. This cluster is labelled the "Confident trendsetters" and includes 52.9 per cent of the sample, making it the largest of the clusters.

4.3.5.3. Cluster 3: Individualists (n = 58; 17.3%)

Except for items 13 (*trendsetter*) and 11 (*dress to impress*), Cluster 3 generally scored lower than the other clusters on all items. Like Cluster 1, they do not regard themselves as followers with a need to impress others, but do not disagree as strongly, indicating a more moderate perception of themselves. Cluster 2 members differentiate themselves from the other two clusters, in that they do not rate thrift or family as highly, scoring only moderately ($3 \leq \bar{x} \leq 3.5$) on the Group B items. They do not buy the latest model in electronic products, do not spend a lot of time in front of the TV, tend not to socialise at home, do not require a big kitchen, do not agree that function is more important than beauty, are not really soccer fans, and do not follow the latest trends and fashions. This cluster is labelled the "Individualists" and is the smallest of the three clusters (17.3% of the sample).

Lifestyle clustering is normally used to assist advertising decisions and in developing an appropriate marketing mix (Ko et al., 2012; Wind, 1978). In this study, the results show support for three lifestyle clusters. However, due to the low levels of the reliability of the scale used, it was decided that this data would not form part of further analyses.

4.3.6 Values

From the literature discussed in sections 2.4.3 and 3.5.2, it was expected that most values would be highly rated in terms of importance (Kohlbacher & Chéron, 2012; Lee et al., 2007). The data (n = 313) confirmed this expectation. The highest ranked value was “self-respect” with a sample mean score of 4.69 (a statistically significant higher mean value) followed by “well respected” ($\bar{x} = 4.52$), “security” ($\bar{x} = 4.49$), “self-fulfilled” ($\bar{x} = 4.45$) and “warm relationships” ($\bar{x} = 4.41$). No statistically significant difference between the latter four values was noted. The next highest was “fun & enjoyment” ($\bar{x} = 4.36$), followed by “sense of belonging” ($\bar{x} = 4.29$) and an “exciting life” ($\bar{x} = 4.27$), again with no statistically significant difference between these three values. The lowest ranked value was “sense of accomplishment” ($\bar{x} = 4.04$), which differed significantly from the other values. Refer to Figure 11.

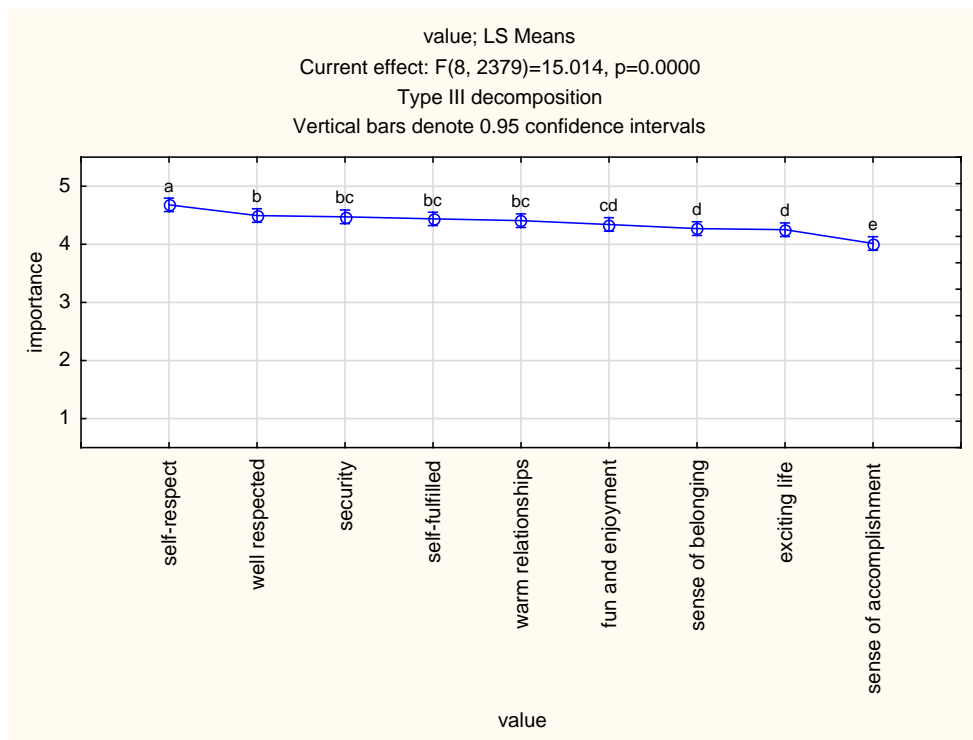


Figure 11. LOV Values

In accordance with the literature (Kohlbacher & Chéron, 2012; Lee et al., 2007), the expectation was that participants would rate all values highly. Therefore, they were asked also to indicate the two most important, and the two least important values, to encourage respondents to differentiate between values. Unfortunately, only 116 respondents completed this part of the questionnaire, and it was decided not to proceed with its analysis.

The LOV has been used in a number of studies across the world, with resultant variation in the importance attached to a particular value. For instance, in Kosovo, “security” was the most important value (Begunca, 2017); in Japan elderly respondents ranked “warm relationships with others”, first, followed by “security”, while the least important values were “sense of belonging” and “an exciting life” (Kohlbacher & Chéron, 2012). This aligns with an older study done in 1999, where Japanese managers ranked “security” first ($\bar{x} = 4.38$), closely followed by “warm relationships” ($\bar{x} = 4.36$), while “an exciting life” ($\bar{x} = 3.15$) ranked last, confirming that values remain fairly constant over time (Soutar, Grainger & Hedges, 1999). In the same study, “fun and enjoyment” ($\bar{x} = 4.18$) was ranked first in Australia, followed by “security” ($\bar{x} = 4.10$), with “an exciting life” ($\bar{x} = 3.58$) last (Soutar et al., 1999). In Turkey, “self-respect” was the most important, closely followed by “security” and “self-fulfilled”, while “warm-relationship with others” was regarded as the least important (Yilmaz, Gungordu. & Yumusaka, 2016).

The relatively low ranking of “sense of accomplishment” in this study may suggest that the Batswana are not very achievement oriented. Any marketing communications developed for this market could do well to focus on enhancing “self-respect” and “being well-respected”, rather than “accomplishment” as central marketing communications message.

4.3.7 Shopping motivation

As discussed in sections 2.5 and 3.5.2, the 19-item shopping motivation scale developed by Kim (2006) and adjusted by O’Brien (2010) was used in this study. Due to an error on the part of the researcher, one item (*Shopping makes me feel like I am in my own universe*), in the Adventure sub-scale, was omitted, leaving 18 items. The adjusted scale contains six sub-scales, five of which measure a hedonic shopping motivation, and one (Achievement), a utilitarian shopping motivation. The results are reflected in Table 16.

Table 16.
Reliability Results of Shopping Motivation Scale

Sub-scale	No of items	Score Mean	Score Std. dev	α	Inter-item correlations
Gratification	3	3.36	1.02	.59	.33
Ideas	3	3.50	1.03	.67	.43
Achievement	4	4.30	0.76	.76	.45
Adventure	2	3.82	0.93	.55	.38
Social	3	3.58	1.02	.68	.41
Value	3	3.90	0.87	.59	.33

All items show item–total correlations above .3, which is encouraging, since Field (2013) advocates that items with correlations below .3 should be dropped. The reliability of two of the sub-scales, Gratification and Value, would be increased by the deletion of an item. If item GR 3 (*I go shopping when I want to treat myself to something special*) is removed, the alpha for the Gratification sub-scale will increase to .67. If item V1 (*I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop*) is removed, the alpha for the Value sub-scale will increase to .61. Despite the low alphas, which may be due in part to the short test-length, the inter-item correlations within the sub-scales was found to be acceptable and it was decided to retain all items (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). As discussed in section 3.6.1, reliability coefficients lower than .60 are considered to be poor but acceptable for exploratory research (Narang, 2010; Peterson, 1994; Radder et al., 2006; Sproles & Kendall, 1986).

The above reliability results were disappointing and not consistent with previous findings: Kim (2006) reported alphas of between .60 (Efficiency) and .89 (Social shopping); Jones, Reynolds and Arnold (2006) reported alphas of .91 (Hedonic) and .77 (Utilitarian); and O’Brien (2010) reported alphas of between .79 (Adventure) and .89 (Social) on the six retained scales. However, the previous studies were done in the USA and Canada respectively, and it is not uncommon to have inconsistent results when a scale developed in the west is applied in the developing world (Radder et al., 2006; Tanksale, Neelam & Venkatachalam, 2014). In line with the exploratory nature of this research, it was decided to proceed with further analysis, although the results will be treated with the necessary caution.

To explore the underlying structure of the shopping motivation scale, principal component analysis with Oblimin rotation was done next. The number of factors was established with a

scree plot and parallel analysis. The results are indicated in Table 17. Only factor loadings greater than 0.40, where items loaded on one factor only, are reported. This resulted in the deletion of four items, three of which loaded on two factors, namely “I find shopping stimulating” (factors 1 and 2); “I enjoy socialising with my friends when I shop” (factors 1 and 3) and “It is important to accomplish what I had planned on a particular shopping trip (factors 2 and 3). “I go shopping when I want to treat myself to something special” did not pass the 0.4 threshold.

Table 17.
Shopping Motivation Factors Extracted

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
I go shopping to keep up with trends	-0.75		
I go shopping with my friends and family to socialise	-0.72		
When I am in a down mood, I go shopping to make myself feel better	-0.70		
To me, shopping is a way to relieve stress	-0.70		
I go shopping to keep up with the new fashions	-0.64		
Shopping with others is a bonding experience	-0.60		
It feels good to know my shopping trip was successful		-0.78	
I like to feel smart/clever about my shopping trip		-0.74	
On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for		-0.66	
To me, shopping is an adventure		-0.54	
I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop		-0.47	
I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop			-0.74
For the most part, I go shopping where the sales are			-0.73
I go shopping to see what new products are available			-0.47

An analysis of Table 17 suggests that Factor 1 indicates a hedonic shopping motivation, Factor 2 an achievement or utilitarian shopping motivation, and Factor 3 a value orientation. The three shopping motivation factors extracted explained 49.1 per cent of the variance in the original data on shopping motivation: Hedonic (29.3%), Achievement (12.1%) and Value (7.7%). This contrasts with O’Brien’s (2010) findings, where five factors explained 74.7 per cent of the variance: Adventure/Gratification (35.3%), Achievement (19.59%), Social (7.62%), Value (6.64%), and Idea (5.56%). In this study, Gratification/Adventure, Social and Idea shopping converged into one hedonic factor, while the Achievement and Value factors are like that previously reported.

It is interesting to note that “bargain hunting” loads on the Achievement factor, while “looking for discounts” loads on Value, since these could be regarded as similar, and in previous studies both items were classified under the Value scale (Kim, 2006; O’Brien, 2010). However, it is suggested that the motivation of the bargain hunter is the “thrill of the kill”, to feel clever and energised by finding items at the absolute best price, which is evident of goal or achievement orientation. Discount shoppers, on the other hand, focus on getting items at a lower price than usual, to stretch their resources. Furthermore, “adventure” forms part of the Achievement scale, rather than the Hedonic scale as reported in previous studies. This could possibly be explained by the fact that an adventure normally has an end goal, and is thus arguably more achievement oriented than pleasure seeking. “Shopping to see what new products are available” loads on the Value factor, while “shopping to keep up with trends” forms part of the Hedonic factor, as per previous studies. If one interprets the “shopping to see what new products are available” as amounting to window-shopping, it fits the Value factor, where resources seem to be limited.

To establish the reliability of the items loading on the three factors, Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated (Narang, 2010; Thøgersen, 2017b). The results are .75 (Hedonic), .74 (Achievement) and .49 (Value). The reliability of the first two scales is acceptable. The deletion of item V3 (“I go shopping to see what new products are available” will improve the Cronbach alpha of the Value scale to .61, which is still low. It appears that the sample of Batswana view and interpret “value” differently from previous studies dominated by samples from Western population groups. In one of the few other studies including Batswana consumers, the value sub-scale of the Consumer Style Index reported alpha values of only .05, which led the researchers to remark that the index did not seem to be applicable to the Batswana data set (Radder et al., 2006). In a later study (Makgosa & Sangodoyin, 2018), low reliabilities were also reported for an Economy Seeking decision style in older shoppers ($\alpha = .47$) and a Price Equals Quality style in younger shoppers ($\alpha = .41$). In future studies, new items to measure the price and value consciousness/shopping motivation reliably in this market could be developed.

Following on the PCA, a decision had to be made regarding whether to proceed with additional analyses on the 14 items and three sub-scales indicated by the PCA, or to base such analyses on the 18 original items and six sub-scales. Since the factors explained less than 50 per cent of the variance in the original data, and the sub-scales, despite suffering from poor and low

reliabilities, still passed the threshold for exploratory research (Peterson, 1994; Sproles & Kendall, 1986) it was decided to proceed with analyses on the original sub-scales, although the results would have to be treated with the necessary caution. A cluster analysis on the original data set resulted in four clusters (refer to Figure 12, Figure 13 and Figure 14). The comparative mean scores reflected are those on a 5-point scale.

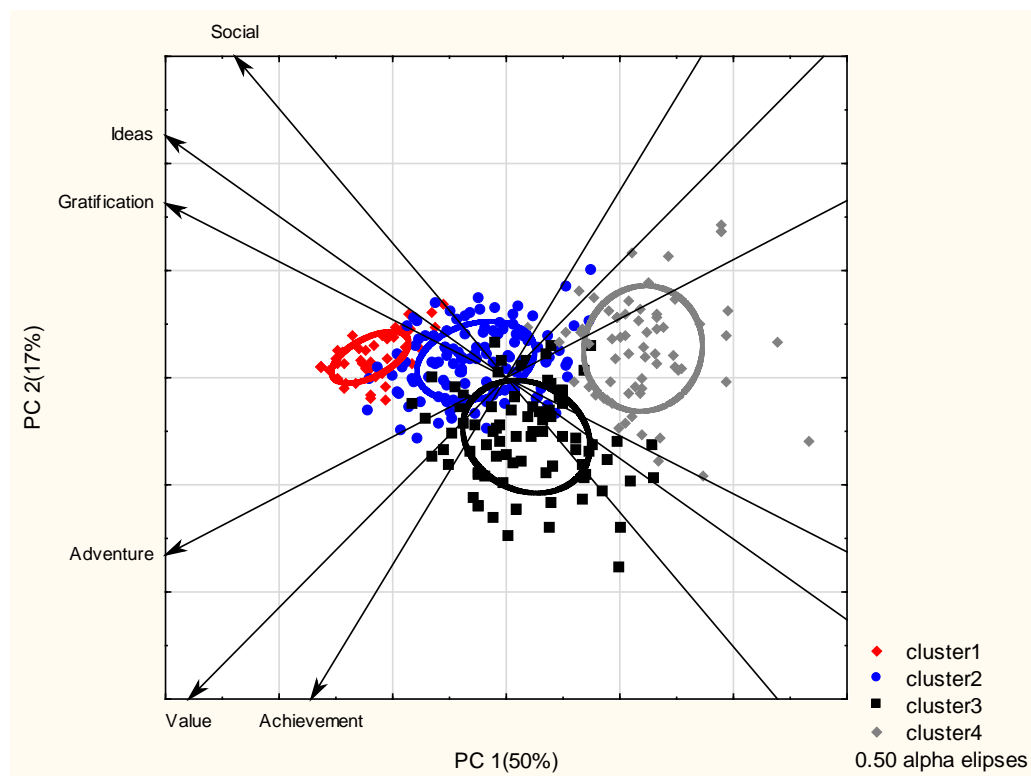


Figure 12. Shopping Motivation Clusters – PCA biplot

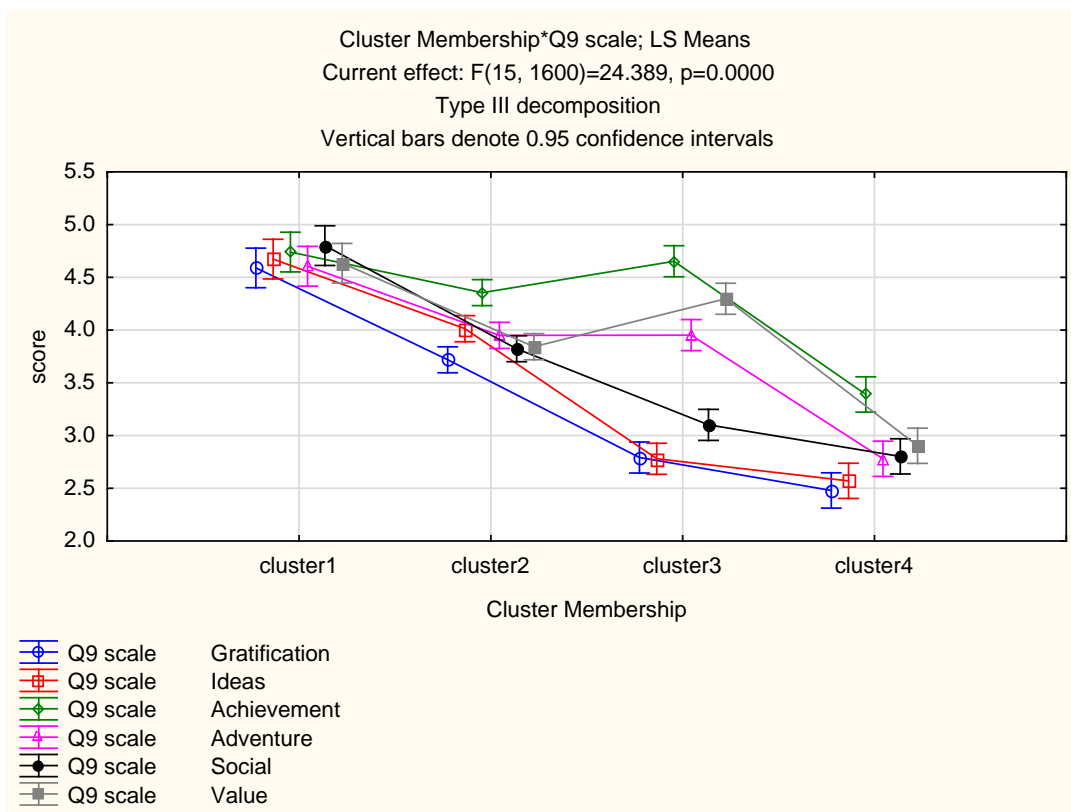


Figure 13. Shopping Motivation Clusters – Comparison of Mean Scores (Shopping Motivation Sub-Scales)

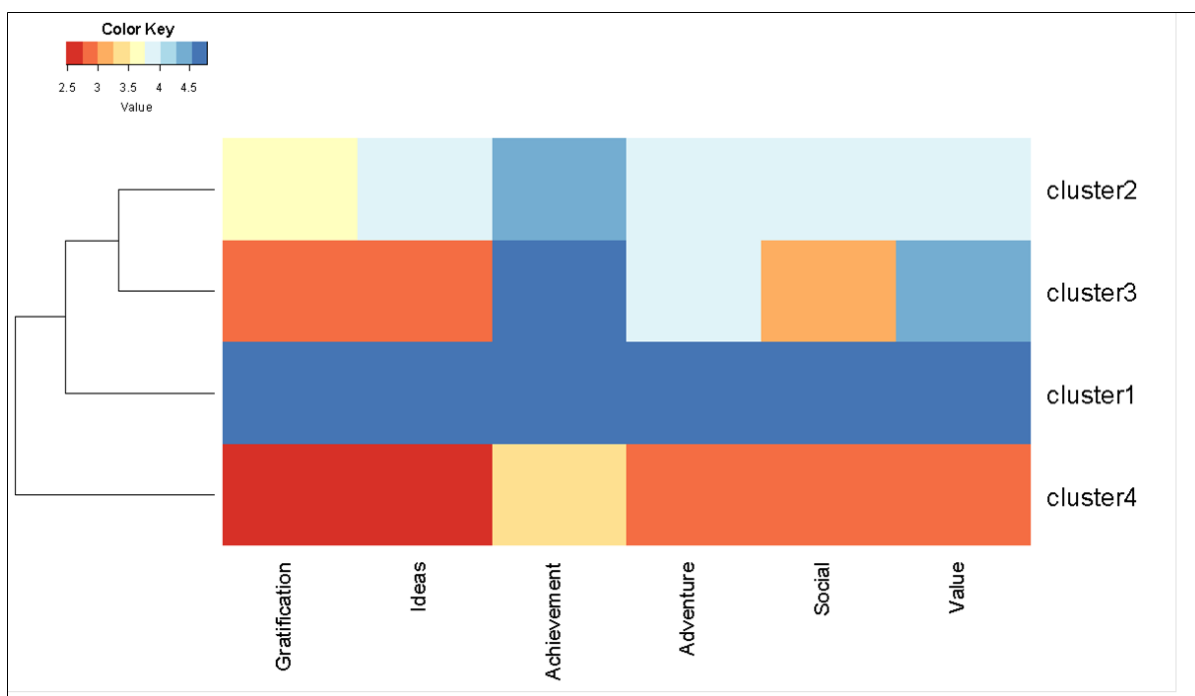


Figure 14. Heat-map of Shopping Motivation Clusters – Comparison of Mean Scores (Shopping Motivation Sub-Scales)

Figures 12, 13 and 14 indicate four clusters, which will be described next.

4.3.7.1. Cluster 1 – Involved Shoppers (n = 52; 16%)

Cluster 1 is labelled the Involved Shoppers, who display extremely high levels ($\bar{x} \geq 4.5$) of all forms of shopping motivation, whether hedonic or utilitarian. This cluster is the smallest of the four clusters.

4.3.7.2. Cluster 2 – Moderate Shoppers (n = 121, 37%)

The Moderate Shoppers in Cluster 2 display a very high level ($4 \leq \bar{x} \leq 4.5$) of Achievement motivation and high levels ($3.5 \leq \bar{x} \leq 4$) of the other forms of shopping motivation. This is the biggest of the four clusters.

4.3.7.3. Cluster 3 – Pragmatic Shoppers (n = 85, 26%)

The members of Cluster 3 are labelled Achievement or Pragmatic Shoppers, who display an extremely high ($\bar{x} \geq 4.5$) level of Achievement motivation, high level ($4 \leq \bar{x} \leq 4.5$) of Value motivation, and lower levels ($\bar{x} \leq 3$) of social, gratification and idea shopping motivation.

4.3.7.4. Cluster 4 – Shopping Avoiders (n = 66, 20%)

Cluster 4 includes consumers that display moderately low to low ($2.5 \leq \bar{x} \leq 3$) levels of all forms of shopping motivation and are therefore labelled Shopping Avoiders.

Except for cluster 2, the results are similar to those obtained by Kim et al. (2014). They segmented consumers into four clusters, three of which correspond with the results of this study, namely Involved Shoppers (19%), who exhibit high levels of hedonic and utilitarian constructs; Pragmatic Shoppers (47%), who display high levels of utilitarian and low levels of hedonic benefits; and Nonchalant Shoppers (19%), who display low levels of all constructs. The exception is cluster 2, which in this study favours a utilitarian orientation, while the Experiential Shoppers (16%) of Kim et al. (2014) exhibited moderate levels of hedonic benefits and low levels of utilitarian benefits.

These results, i.e. that the majority of respondents have a functional shopping motivation, is further confirmed by the fact that most of the respondents (77%) selected a functional, rather than a hedonic prize when asked to indicate their preferred prize in the lucky draw (see section

4.2.11). Store management should continue to ensure that purchases can be done as quickly and efficiently as possible, without neglecting the overall shopping experience (Chebat et al., 2014; Jones et al., 2006).

The finding that only 16 per cent of respondents in this study consider shopping pleasurable or fun, goes against the international trend, where, supported by research results, more and more time and money have been devoted by the developers and managers of shopping malls to the entertainment aspect of retailing (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Chebat et al., 2014; Hausman, 2000; White, 2010; Saran et al., 2016; Yim et al., 2014; Zeynep et al., 2014). However, shopping centres are still a fairly recent development in Botswana, with Kagiso Centre, the first of its kind, only opening in Gaborone in 1991, less than 30 years ago (New African Properties, 2011), which may explain the difference. Nevertheless, the majority of FAE consumers of the retail chain in which this study was undertaken are clearly functionally, rather than hedonically, motivated.

4.4 Comparing the shopping motivation clusters on other variables

The research question posed at the outset of this study was whether Botswana consumers could be profiled and clustered according to their demographic characteristics, lifestyle, values, shopping motivation, product attitude and the information sources used in pre-purchase. The original intention was that, once the consumers had been profiled, the responses on all of the listed variables would be subjected to cluster analysis, to see whether distinct clusters or segments of respondents exist. The researcher revised this intention, mainly for the following reasons: firstly, the failure of the lifestyle sub-scales to demonstrate acceptable reliability; secondly, the majority of the respondents' high regard for the importance of in-store information sources coupled with the low level of the importance of all other sources resulting in very limited variability in this score; thirdly, the limited variability in the values scores; and finally, the limited variability in product attitude, where all types of products were deemed to be both highly functional and highly hedonic.

Clustering or segmentation must ultimately be managerially useful, with each segment being distinctive in terms of its customer profile and needs, to allow the development of suitable and distinctive marketing programmes for emerging segments (Dibb & Simkin, 2010). In line with this rationale and the empirical results thus far, it was decided to use the shopping motivation

cluster solution as a basis to describe the various consumer segments. Together with the demographic descriptors and analysis of other variables, these cluster profiles will best equip management to ensure that the in-store shopping experience meet the different needs. The four clusters were thus analysed and compared to each other. The results of the analysis of the different categorical variables (gender, marital status, level of occupation, place of work, social class self-description, source of income, household, prize preference, product purchased, type of purchase (cash/credit), joint-decision making and time since decision) are reported in Table 18.

Table 18.

Comparing the Shopping Motivation Clusters by Demographic and Other Categorical Variables

Variable	Category	Involved Shoppers	Moderate Shoppers	Pragmatic Shoppers	Shopping Avoiders	%
		(1) %	(2) %	(3) %	(4) %	
		16	26	37	2	100
Gender ($\chi^2 = 3.53$; $p = 0.32$)	Male	46	46	42	57	47
	Female	54	54	58	43	53
Marital status ($\chi^2 = 17.66$; $p = 0.12$)	Single (never married)	50	59	65	40	55
	Married	25	21	23	35	25
	Living together	21	18	11	18	17
	Separated/divorced	0	2	0	3	1
	Widowed	4	1	1	3	2
Level of occupation ($\chi^2 = 16.13$; $p = 0.58$)	Unskilled	15	19	16	18	17
	Semi-skilled	19	16	15	21	17
	Supervisory	23	11	14	11	14
	Administrative	13	22	14	11	16
	Technical/artisan	8	8	10	6	8
	Manager	10	3	5	8	6
	Professional	12	21	26	25	22
Place of work ($\chi^2 = 16.28$; $p = 0.57$)	Government	16	16	24	23	20
	Retail	10	20	13	15	16
	Agriculture	6	7	4	12	7
	Security	8	5	9	7	7
	Financial	4	7	2	5	5
	Mining	10	6	2	5	6
	Other	46	39	45	34	41
Social class self-description ($\chi^2 = 13.33$; $p = 0.15$)	Working class	34	25	45	22	31
	Lower middle class	15	19	15	18	17
	Middle class	40	41	33	49	40
	Upper middle class	11	15	8	11	11
Source of income ($\chi^2 = 2.32$; $p = 0.51$)	Full time wages/salary	56	68	62	64	64
($\chi^2 = 3.03$; $p = 0.39$)	Part time wages/salary	4	5	7	2	5
	Grants					2

Variable	Category	Involved Shoppers	Moderate Shoppers	Pragmatic Shoppers	Shopping Avoiders	%
		(1) %	(2) %	(3) %	(4) %	
		16	26	37	2	100
$(\chi^2 = 6.6; p = 0.08)$	Rental	10	4	1	8	5
	Investments					2
$(\chi^2 = 2.26; p = 0.52)$	Own business	21	17	22	14	19
$(\chi^2 = 1.59; p = 0.66)$	Other	2	5	3	6	5
Household						
$(\chi^2 = 7.48; p = 0.28)$	Without children	46	44	27	35	38
	With children under 18 (youngest below 18)	46	50	62	52	53
	With children over 18 (youngest over 18)	8	6	11	13	9
Prize preference						
$(\chi^2 = 7.89; p = 0.048)$	P7000 rebate	71	75	88	75	78
	Tablet	29	25	12	25	22
Type of product purchased						
$(\chi^2 = 3.27; p = 0.77)$	Furniture	51	51	41	52	48
	Appliance	17	18	25	17	20
	Electronics	32	31	34	32	32
Type of purchase						
$(\chi^2 = 13.97; p = 0.30)$	Cash	12	14	9	19	13
	Credit (24 months)	64	62	68	50	62
	Credit (18 months)	10	10	14	11	11
	Credit (12 months)	8	10	10	13	10
	Credit (6 months)	6	4	0	7	4
Whose decision						
$(\chi^2 = 13.04; p = 0.37)$	My decision	79	70	78	77	75
	Joint decision with spouse/partner	8	13	16	17	16
	Joint decision with children	10	7	4	2	5
	Joint decision with others	2	6	2	5	4
Time since decision						
$(\chi^2 = 26.43; p = 0.03)$	This morning	27	8	10	12	13
	This week	19	10	14	9	12
	Last week	17	7	16	8	15
	Within the last month	21	24	27	32	26
	Within the last 3 months	8	22	17	23	18
	More than 3 months ago	8	19	16	15	16

Since literature (Kim et al., 2014; Michon, Chebat, Yu & Lemarié, 2015) suggests that men tend to be more functional and females more hedonically motivated, it was expected that Cluster 1 (Involved Shoppers) would be female dominated, and Cluster 3 (Pragmatic Shoppers) male dominated. The results do not support this expectation. Cluster 3 is, in fact, predominantly female (58.2%). The only cluster that is male dominated, is Cluster 4 (Shopping Avoiders) with 57.4 per cent, which seems to confirm the literature that men do not like shopping as much as

females do (Kotzé et al., 2012; Michon et al., 2015) and may thus prefer to avoid it. However, the gender differences between the clusters are not statistically significant.

Cluster 3 (Pragmatic Shoppers) has the highest incidence (64.6%) of single members, but the lowest incidence (27.1%) of households without children, and the highest incidence of children below the age of 18 years (62.6%), once again confirming that marital status and the presence of children are not necessarily linked in this sample. Cluster 4 has the lowest incidence of single members (40%) and the highest incidence of married members (35%). However, there is no statistically significant difference between the marital status of the four clusters, or the different household types (determined by presence and age of children). Similarly, there is no statistically significant difference between their level of occupation, place of work or source of income, type of product purchased, or incidence of joint-decision-making. Although 45% of Cluster 3 members described themselves as working class, as contrasted with only 22 per cent of Cluster 4, the difference is not statistically significant. Cluster 4 has the highest level of cash purchases (19%), and Cluster 3 the lowest (9%), but this is not statistically significant.

There are only two statistically significant differences between the clusters based on these variables (indicated in red in Table 18), namely the prize preference and the time between making the decision and making the purchase. In line with their pragmatic or functional orientation, 88 per cent of Cluster 3 (Pragmatic Shoppers) preferred the functional (P7,000 rebate) prize, while 29 per cent of Cluster 1 (Involved Shoppers) indicated a preference for the hedonic tablet. This seems to suggest that, as a general rule, the retailer should focus on functional prizes, such as discounts and rebates, rather than hedonic prizes (such as experiences) for promotional competitions. Promotions targeted at Cluster 1 customers could include hedonic prizes. Cluster 1 also differs significantly from the other clusters in that a substantial number (29%) of members decided on the day to make the purchase, while Cluster 4 spent between one and three months on the decision, and Cluster 2 took even longer, as reflected in Figure 15. This is in line with literature that suggests that hedonic shoppers are prone to impulse buying behaviour (Hausman, 2000; Saran et al., 2016; Yim et al., 2014).

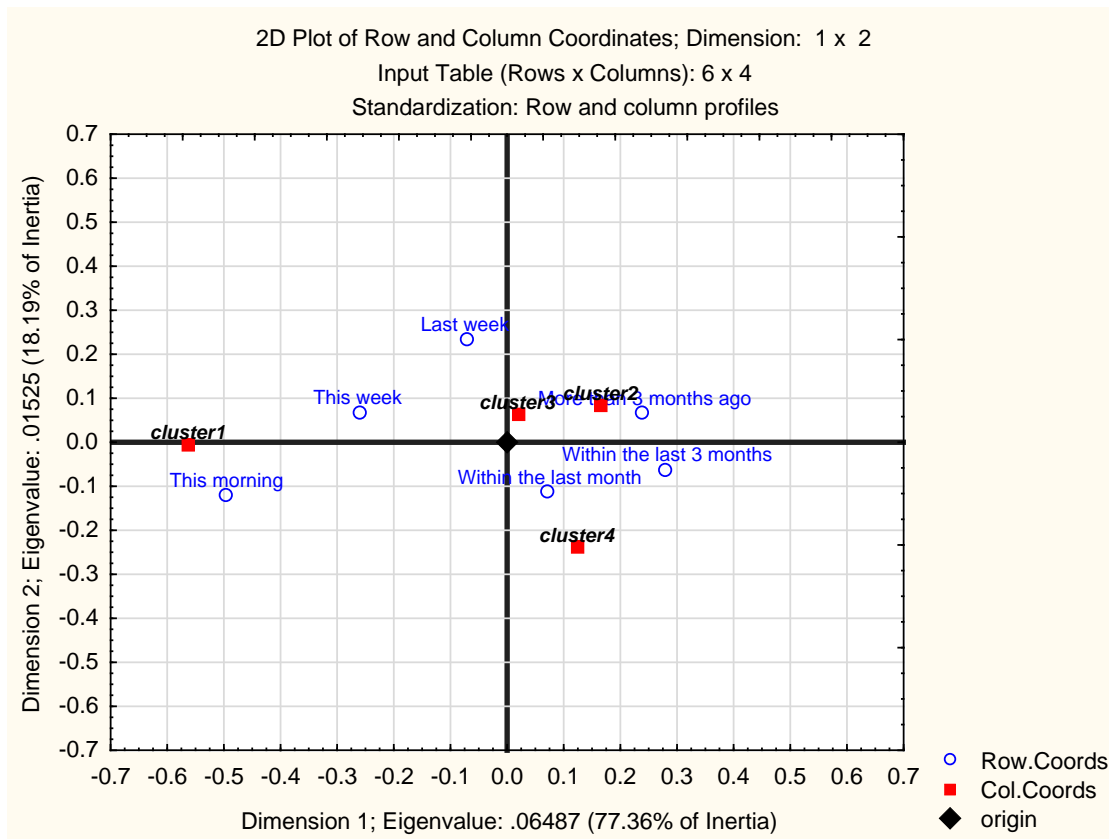


Figure 15. Comparing the Clusters on Time Taken to Decide

The ordinal variables (age, education, income level and number of times purchased before) were then analysed and compared, using ANOVA to determine if the clusters significantly differed. The results of the age analysis are reported in Figure 16. On average, the members of Cluster 2 (Moderate Shoppers) are younger than those of the other clusters, and this is significantly different from the mean age of Clusters 3 and 4, but not from that of Cluster 1. This may explain why Cluster 2 took the longest to make the decision, as indicated by Figure 15, since the literature postulates that younger or less experienced shoppers often rely on extensive problem solving in order to reduce the risk involved in decision-making (Chang et al., 2015b; Seborro, 2011).

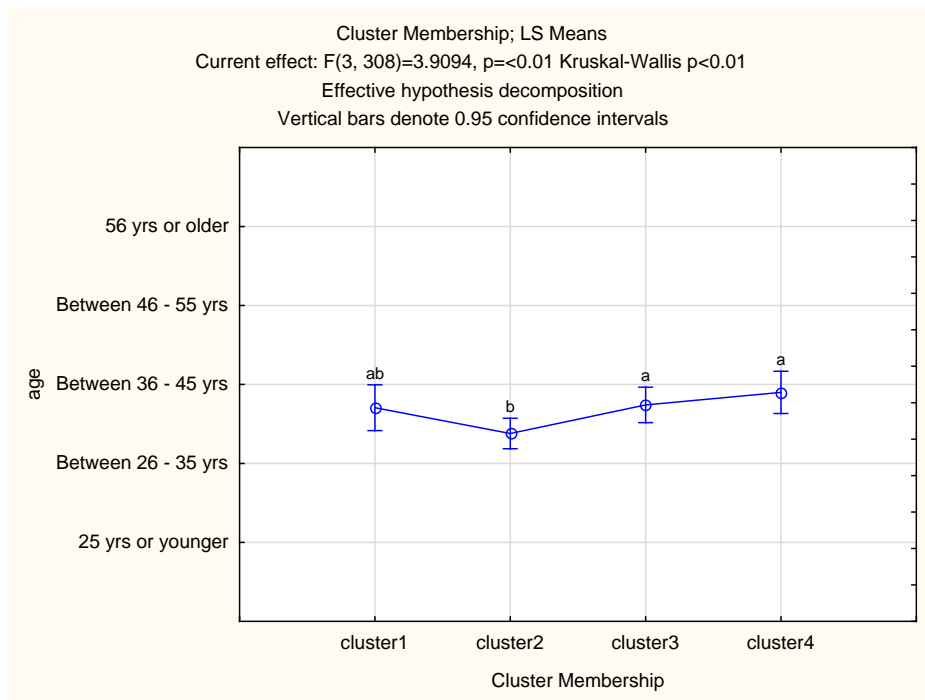


Figure 16. Comparison of Mean Age per Cluster

Regarding education levels, Cluster 3 (Pragmatic Shoppers) were statistically significantly less educated than Cluster 4 (Shopping Avoiders), but there were no statistically significant differences between Clusters 1, 2 and 3 and Clusters 1, 2 and 4. When the level of income across the clusters was analysed, it was found that the Cluster 3 members earned statistically significantly less than the Cluster 4 members, but that there were no statistically significant differences between Clusters 1, 2 and 3; or between Clusters 1, 2 and 4. This is reflected in Figure 17. These results appear to confirm the correlation between education and income reported in the literature (Burgess & Schwartz, 1994; Zhao et al., 2014).

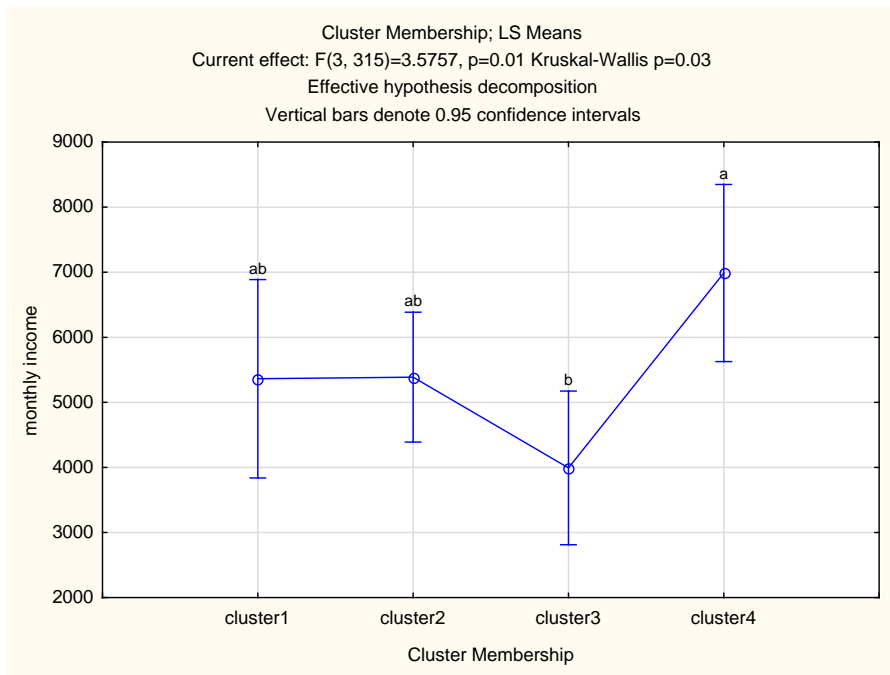


Figure 17. Comparison of Monthly Income per Cluster

When the number of prior purchases were analysed, no statistically significant differences were found between the clusters, although Cluster 4 had a slightly higher mean than the other clusters. The comparison of the mean prices paid is reflected in Figure 18.

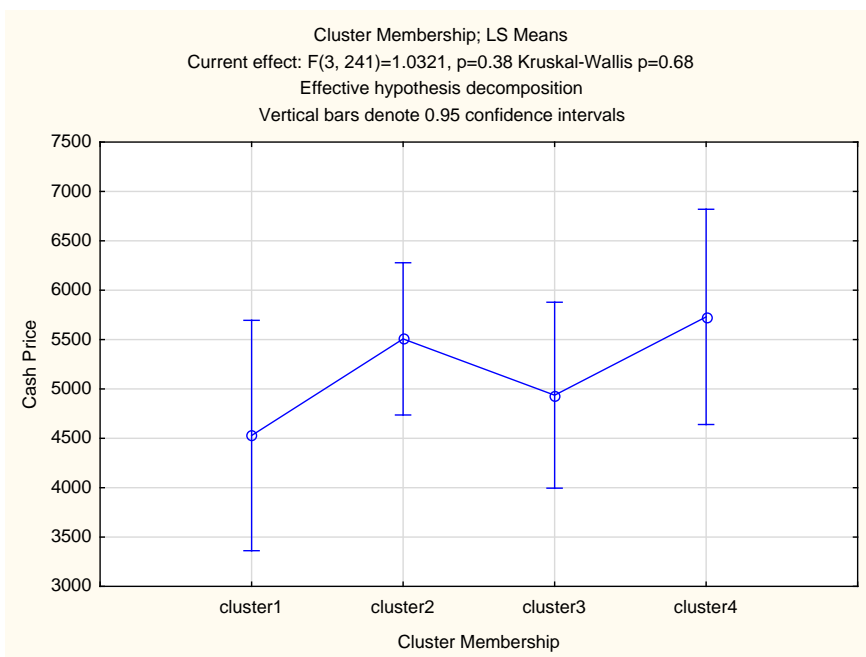


Figure 18. Comparison of Mean Prices Paid

Cluster 1 had the lowest mean price (P4,528), and Cluster 4 the highest (P5,728), but the differences were not statically significant.

To augment the segmentation and assist in generating profiles rich in psychographics, as well as demographic detail (Morton et al., 2017), it was decided to explore whether some of the other variables and psychographic constructs measured in this study (excluding lifestyle) differed statistically significantly between the identified clusters. The results are reported in Table 19. Firstly, the information sources used pre-purchase were compared. Cluster 1 members were statistically significantly more prone to speaking to friends than the other 3 clusters, while Cluster 4 was statistically significantly less likely to rely on in-store displays. No other differences in information sources were significant. This was followed by a comparison of the consumer's attitudes towards the products purchased. Cluster 4 members rated products significantly lower on both dimensions (functional and hedonic) than the other three clusters.

Table 19.
Shopping Motivation Clusters – Comparison of Mean Values

Variable	F Anova	Mean	IS (1)	MS (2)	PS (3)	SA (4)
Information sources						
Speaking to friends	2.9334*	2.63	3.41	2.57	2.35	2.58
In-store displays	1.7568	4.35	4.48	4.42	4.47	4.03
Product attitude						
Functional	2.4961	4.33	4.45	4.45	4.43	3.92
Hedonic	2.6581*	4.31	4.48	4.41	4.35	3.85
Values						
Exciting life	4.7460**	4.26	4.24	4.37	4.45	3.84
Fun and enjoyment	6.0915**	4.37	4.41	4.49	4.51	3.97
Security	3.4654*	4.48	4.49	4.52	4.66	4.18
Self-respect	5.1271**	4.69	4.53	4.77	4.87	4.45
Warm relationships	3.5170*	4.40	4.09	4.50	4.61	4.19
Sense of accomplishment	4.9812**	4.04	4.23	4.33	3.58	4.00

Note: IS = Involved Shoppers; MS = Moderate Shoppers; PS = Pragmatic Shoppers; SA = Shopping Avoiders.

Green: above the mean; red: below the mean.

*p<0.05.

**p<.01.

When the responses on the LOV values were analysed, statistically significant differences were found between the clusters on six of the nine values, as indicated in Table 19. Members of Cluster 4 tended to rate values lower than the other three clusters. This cluster rated “an exciting life” and “fun and enjoyment” significantly lower than the other three clusters. Cluster

4 also regarded “security” as statistically significantly less important than did Clusters 2 and 3, but there was no significant difference on this value with Cluster 1.

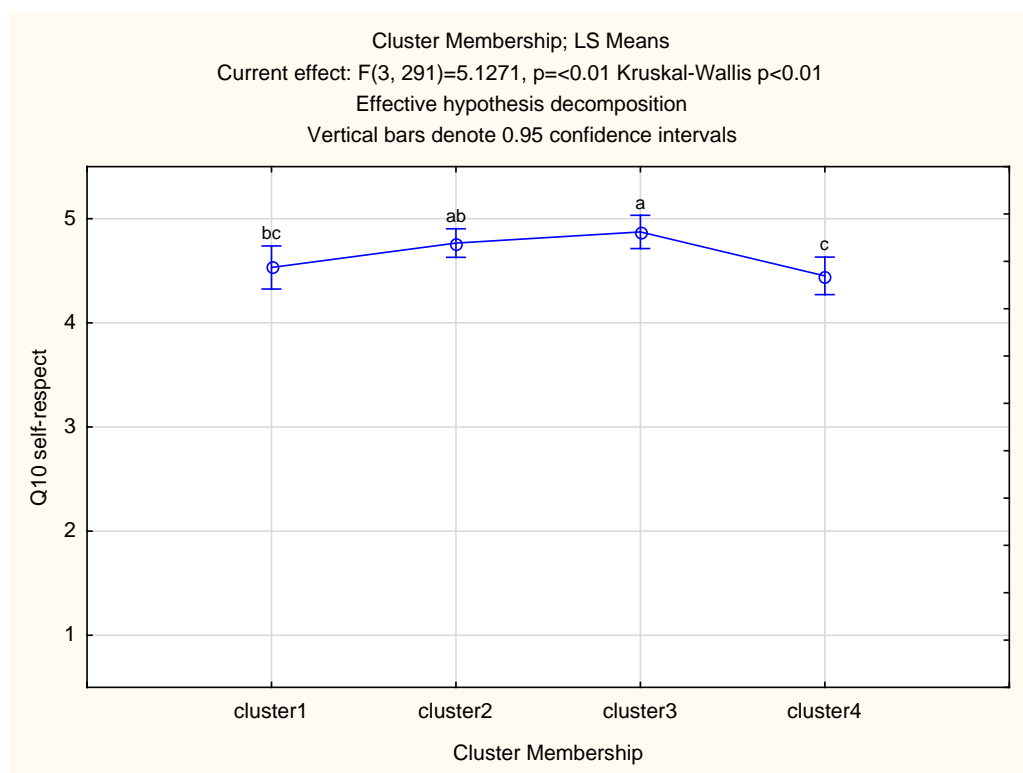


Figure 19. Comparing the Clusters on *Self-respect*

Cluster 4 members rated “self-respect” statistically significantly lower than Clusters 2 and 3, while Cluster 3 members rated it significantly higher than Cluster 1, but had no significant difference with Cluster 2. Cluster 1 did not differ significantly from either Cluster 2 or 4 on “self-respect” (see Figure 19). Cluster 3 members rated “warm relationships” significantly higher than Clusters 1 and 4. The relatively low ranking on this value for Cluster 1 is surprising and difficult to explain, since members of this Cluster referred to friends for advice pre-purchase and enjoyed shopping with friends.

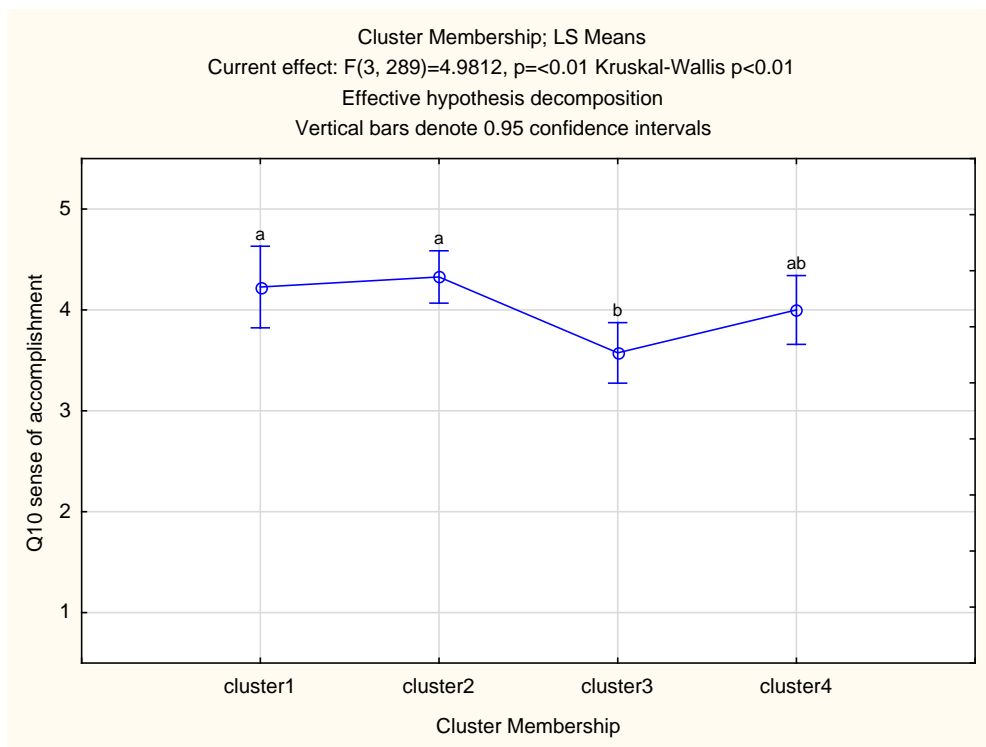


Figure 20. Comparing the Clusters on *Sense of accomplishment*

Cluster 3 members ranked “sense of accomplishment” significantly lower than Clusters 1 and 2 (refer to Figure 20). The results on the values seem to indicate that Cluster 4 members not only dislike shopping, but they appear to have a more critical world view overall, which may suggest that they will be less susceptible to promotions in general.

4.5 Description of the shopping motivation clusters

From the results discussed in section 4.4, the description of the four shopping motivation clusters can be summarised as follows:

- Cluster 1 (Involved Shoppers) is the only cluster where hedonic shopping motivation is as high as functional shopping motivation, and both forms of shopping motivation are extremely high. Males and females are equally represented in this cluster. A significant proportion (29%) of this cluster preferred the tablet, a hedonic prize, a result not shared by the other clusters. These shoppers spent the least amount of time on making the decision to purchase, and appear to be prone to impulse shopping, since 27 per cent decided on the day to make the purchase, and another 19 per cent during the preceding week. They rated “speaking to friends” as information source significantly

higher than the other clusters, although still significantly lower than the in-store information sources. Regarding values, they gave “warm relationships” the lowest ranking of all clusters, with a mean score of 4.09, which is significantly lower than the total sample mean ($\bar{x} = 4.40$)

- Cluster 2, Moderate Shoppers, have a high level of Achievement motivation and moderately high levels of the other forms of shopping motivation, and this is the largest of the four clusters. Males and females are equally represented. On average, members of this cluster are younger than the other clusters. They take the longest time to make the decision to purchase, possibly indicating the need to reduce the risk involved in decision-making by extensive problem solving and information gathering (Chang et al., 2015b; Seborro, 2011).
- The Pragmatic Shoppers in Cluster 3 have an extremely high level of Achievement motivation, high Value motivation and lower levels of hedonic motivation. The cluster is predominantly female (58.2%) and single (64.6%), although 62.3 per cent of cluster members have children below the age of 18 years. Regarding social class self-description, 45 per cent classify themselves as working class. They are the highest users of credit, and are less educated with lower incomes than the other clusters, especially Cluster 4. The cash rebate was the preferred prize of 88 per cent of these members, confirming their strong functional orientation. Regarding values, they rate “warm relationships” the highest of the four clusters, and “sense of accomplishment” lowest.
- Cluster 4, the Shopping Avoiders, have the lowest levels of all forms of shopping motivation. They are mostly male, and have the highest incidence of married participants (35%) amongst the clusters, while 72 per cent describe themselves as middle class (18% lower middle, 49% middle, and 11% upper middle). They make the most cash purchases (19%) of all the clusters, and the lowest level of 24-months credit purchases (50%). Overall, they tend to attach the lowest importance of all clusters to most variables, possibly indicating a more critical outlook on life. Regarding product attitude, they rate products as both less functional and less hedonic than the other three clusters. Cluster 4 members are more educated with higher incomes than the other clusters, especially Cluster 3. They rate “in-store displays” as source of information lower than the other clusters. They rate most of the values as less important than the other clusters do, and have the lowest scores on “an exciting life”

and “fun & enjoyment” which seem to indicate that they take themselves and life quite seriously.

4.6 Testing of Proposition 1

Based on the overall analysis of the results discussed in Chapter 4, the proposition set on page 77 for this study, can be partially accepted.

4.7 Summary: Chapter 4

Chapter 4 commenced with a description of the demographics of the sample. This was followed by the analysis of product type, price and type of purchase (cash/credit). Prior purchases, joint decision making and the time spent on the decision were discussed, followed by a description of information sources used pre-purchase. The respondents rated electronics significantly higher on both utilitarian and hedonic dimensions than either furniture or appliances, which was expected. The lifestyle scale suffered from reliability concerns, although an exploratory PCA of lifestyle resulted in three possible clusters that could be further investigated in future studies. The lifestyle items were excluded from further analysis. The LOV scale indicated that self-respect was the most highly rated value, while sense of accomplishment obtained the lowest ranking. The shopping motivation scale also had fairly low reliability, but exploratory cluster analysis resulted in four clusters similar to that obtained in previous studies. The researcher decided to continue the analysis using the shopping motivation clusters as base segmentation variable, and these clusters were compared on all the variables in the study (excluding the lifestyle items). A number of statistically significant differences were reported. The chapter concluded with a summary description of the clusters. In the next chapter, the findings of the study will be consolidated into actionable steps for retail management, the limitations of this study will be noted, and recommendations for future research will be outlined.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Who are the consumers of FAE in Botswana? To what extent can they be profiled and clustered according to their demographic characteristics, lifestyle, values, shopping motivation, product attitude and the information sources used in pre-purchase? These research questions guided the study.

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the background to the research and justified its importance. The recent failure of the largest FAE retail chain in Sub-Saharan Africa provided the context of an industry facing severe challenges but still presenting opportunities for growth, where a retailer with insights into consumer behaviour would be able to capitalise on these opportunities by aligning marketing strategy to consumer needs. The analysis of various consumer behaviour models resulted in a conceptual theoretical framework for the profiling of FAE consumer segments in Botswana, which guided this research.

The literature review was presented in Chapter 2. The chapter commenced with a discussion of market segmentation and introduced the segmentation process and its benefits. Segmentation that clusters consumers provides numerous advantages to producers, marketers and retailers in that they are able to position products and target their promotional practices. Several different segmentation approaches were discussed. The focus then turned to a discussion of the variables included in the framework presented in Chapter 1. The dependent variable, purchase behaviour, was considered first. This was followed by a discussion of demographic variables, lifestyle, psychographics, AIO and values. From the discussion it was evident that differences in consumers' demographics, lifestyle and values have an impact on their behaviour. Utilitarian and hedonic consumer motivation was studied, as well as differences in consumer attitudes toward hedonic and functional products. Situational influences such as joint decision making and time pressure were also mentioned. The chapter concluded with a discussion of pre-purchase information search behaviour. Thus, the literature-related objectives were addressed in this chapter.

The purpose of Chapter 3 was to demonstrate that the research methodology followed was appropriate to defend the eventual conclusions reached. At the start of the chapter, the

research paradigm and design were discussed briefly. This was followed by a description of the population and sample, as well as the data collection method and measurement instruments. Next the statistical techniques used to analyse and interpret the data were discussed. The chapter concluded with a summary of the process followed to ensure that the study complied with current ethical requirements for social research.

Chapter 4 presented the results and a discussion thereof. The chapter commenced with a description of the demographics of the sample. This was followed by the analysis of product type, price and type of purchase (cash/credit). Prior purchases, joint decision making and the time spent on the decision were discussed, followed by a description of information sources used pre-purchase. Since the lifestyle scale suffered from reliability concerns, the lifestyle items were excluded from further analysis, although three tentative lifestyle clusters, labelled 'Family followers', 'Modest trendsetters' and 'Individualists', were presented. The LOV scale indicated that self-respect was the most highly rated value, while sense of accomplishment obtained the lowest ranking. Exploratory cluster analysis on the shopping motivation data resulted in four clusters like those obtained in previous studies, which provides support for their validity. These were labelled 'Involved Shoppers', 'Moderate Shoppers', 'Pragmatic Shoppers' and 'Shopping Avoiders'. The clusters differed in the type and intensity of shopping motivation. The researcher decided not to attempt to do clustering on all the variables overall, but to continue the analysis using the shopping motivation clusters as base. These clusters were accordingly compared on all the variables in the study other than the lifestyle items, and a number of statistically significant differences were reported. The chapter concluded with a description of the clusters. Chapter 4 thus addressed the empirical objectives of the study.

In this final chapter, the implications of the cluster profiles for FAE retailers in Botswana are considered and recommendations suggested for retail management. Furthermore, the limitations of this study are noted, and recommendations for future research outlined.

5.1 Implications and recommendations for management

The cooperation of operational management of the retail chain concerned was essential for the study. Accordingly, an attempt will be made to present the findings in such a way that is useful for management and can result in actionable steps that can be implemented in-store and incorporated into the marketing strategy. The implication of the results for management

will be discussed in two parts: firstly, the implications from the overall results and emerging recommendations will be explored; this will be followed by a discussion of the implications of the shopping motivation segmentation and resulting recommendations.

5.1.1 Implications and recommendations from overall results

The demographic composition of the total sample was informative in a number of aspects. The age analysis indicated that 65 per cent of respondents were between the ages of 25 and 45 years with only 14 per cent below 25 years. Turning to marital status, the level of formally married consumers appeared low (25%), but this is significantly higher than the national average of 18 per cent (Statistics Botswana, 2014, p. 227). The high level of consumers with tertiary education (36%) and who regard themselves as professional (21%) contrasts with the finding that 54 per cent of the respondents earn less than P3,200 per month and another 23 per cent earn less than P6,200 per month. Regarding households, the large number of childless households (38%) and single parent households (35%) suggests that the traditional FLC is not relevant for this sample, while families were small in size (fewer than 2 children on average). The high percentage of respondents self-classifying as middle class (69%) does not align with the literature.

Management could use these insights to reassess several practices. For instance, management could either decide to continue their focus on those over 25 years (the biggest group), or decide actively to target younger consumers, incentivising them to buy lower-priced items on credit, thus establishing a credit record and possibly building life-long brand loyalty towards the retailer. The relatively low levels of monthly income appear to confirm that price competitiveness should remain a core focus area, despite the middle-class self-classification, which could be served by stocking a number of aspirational product brands, as well as building the retail store brand that aligns more closely to aspirational identification to prevent consumers from moving to stores that do so already once their incomes increase. The small family sizes could indicate that the range of appliances kept in stock such as fridges and washing machines do not have to include super-sized model ranges.

The pre-purchase search behaviour results for the total sample confirmed the importance of the in-store sales people and in-store displays as a source of information in the purchase decision. The perceived credibility of sales staff is based on trust, which increases even further

when customers see them as dependable, honest, competent, customer-oriented, likeable experts, possessing accurate, current and specialised knowledge of the products they sell. For the retailer the results endorse the importance of ongoing training to ensure that sales people know how to establish a trust relationship with customers, are fully informed about the products they sell, and know how to build attractive in-store displays that assist consumers in decision-making. The competencies and skills within the domains of customer relations, product knowledge and in-store merchandising should therefore remain a core focus area for management and staff training.

The finding that electronic products are regarded as both more fun and functional than furniture or appliances could fruitfully be used in the design of promotional campaigns. Price discounts, rebates, coupons and loyalty rewards could be used for the electronic product category, since empirical research demonstrated that promotions are more effective for hedonic than functional purchases due to the guilt-reducing justification of such promotions; in other words, consumers naturally feel the need to justify indulgence, and promotions help them to do so. This finding (that electronic products are perceived as more fun than furniture or appliances) can also be used to promote selling of cross-category bundles, by framing the discount on the electronic product, for instance: "Buy a new bed and get 10% off on a cell phone of your choice".

From the values analysis, it is suggested that any marketing communications developed for this retailer's FAE market would do well to focus on enhancing "self-respect" and "being well-respected", rather than "accomplishment" as central marketing communications message.

The predominantly functional shopping motivation of the respondents implies that store management should continue to ensure that purchases can be done as quickly and efficiently as possible, focusing on merchandise variety and constant stock availability, competitive prices, store layout and making it easy for customers to find products and compare prices. Since the literature suggests that meeting functional needs is merely a threshold for competition, and that hedonic needs must also be met in order to build store loyalty through customer satisfaction and positive word of mouth, improving the emotional shopping experience (for instance by playing pleasant background music in-store and having staff greet consumers with a friendly smile) should, however, not be neglected and should continue to receive

management attention. To align with the dominant utilitarian needs of respondents, prizes in promotions should also be functional – like a rebate on an account or a discount – rather than experiential or hedonic, for instance “Win a trip to the Delta”.

5.1.2 Implications and recommendations from shopping motivation clusters

Even though all participants in this study were predominantly task focused, the four shopping motivation clusters have diverse needs, and specific marketing strategies could be designed to fulfil these needs. For instance, to fulfil the experiential needs of the Involved Shoppers, they could be targeted for invitations to new store openings, product launches or to become part of a loyalty rewards programme. To capitalise on their propensity for impulse shopping, promotions that are valid for a short period only could also be designed. Since Moderate Shoppers tend to be younger than members of the other clusters and take longer to act on their decision to purchase, which could be due to their need to reduce the risk involved in such decision, it appears that the specific needs of this cluster could be addressed in part by supplying product information that is readily assessable, whether online or in-store. Low-price offerings and attention to improving the convenience of the total shopping experience could persuade the majority female Pragmatic Shoppers. Targeting the mainly male Shopping Avoiders could be a challenge for the retailer, but it may be possible to reach them with technology, for instance by the implementation of the soon to be launched e-commerce project (“You don’t have to come to us, we will come to you!”).

5.2 Limitations of the study

The limitations of this study can mostly be ascribed to the choices made regarding the research methodology, specifically pertaining to the measurement instrument and sample selection. Various limitations of the study are highlighted in the paragraphs that follow.

The use of only English and Setswana in the questionnaire excluded the use of the minority languages such as Sesarwa, Kalanga and Shekgalagadi. Since an estimated 97 per cent of Botswana speak Setswana as either home or second language (Statistics Botswana, 2014 p. 20), this is, however, not regarded as a major shortcoming. By contrast, 79 per cent of questionnaires were completed in English, which would in most instances be a second

language, and this could have had an influence on the understanding of the more nuanced items included in the questionnaire.

Further limitations included the length of the questionnaire, which could have led to respondent fatigue, error in response and a loss of interest. It is possible that the level of literacy of consumers may have impacted on the correct interpretation of the survey questions, despite the assistance of branch management to ameliorate these shortcomings. The assistance of branch management in completing the questionnaire could, on the other hand, have led to socially desirable responses by some participants.

Regarding the sample selection, the survey was directed at purchasers only and thus excluded potential shoppers (browsers). A further limitation of the in-store intercept method is that participants did not have the choice to complete the questionnaire in their own time. Moreover, data collection was limited to one FAE chain in Botswana only, so the results may not be generalisable to the general FAE industry in that country or to the population as a whole.

The most significant limitations of the study arose from the low reliabilities of the scales used in the lifestyle survey and the shopping motivation scale. This means that the results need to be interpreted with the necessary circumspection.

The use of measurement instruments developed in the Western world may have affected the validity and reliability of the constructs measured. This was compounded by the omission of one item through the fault of the researcher. The research was exploratory and descriptive, and not explanatory. The quantitative methodology applied could have benefited from qualitative research, which may have resulted in deeper insights and a richer understanding of the nuances at play.

The study was limited to a selection of variables used in models of consumer behaviour, and cannot be seen as representative of the complexity of consumer behaviour in its totality. Furthermore, ultimately the clusters were segmented on one construct (shopping motivation) only, and the use of a different variable as a point of departure in the cluster analysis could have resulted in different clusters.

Despite these shortcomings, the study managed to provide useful insights into the FAE consumer in Botswana.

5.3 Recommendations for future research

Since the results of the suggested clustering by shopping motivation must be treated with the necessary caution because of the low reliabilities of the sub-scales used, it is advisable to have the clustering confirmed in subsequent studies before the retailer spends marketing funds in the implementation of such segmentation. Future studies could be more targeted, focusing on shopping motivation only, attempting better to understand the dimensions that underlie this construct in an African context. In this study, five different dimensions of hedonic motivation found in previous Western studies (gratification, adventure, social, idea and role shopping) converged into one overall hedonic construct. It would be interesting to establish whether these results are replicated in future studies in the Botswana market. Furthermore, the third underlying dimension of shopping motivation found in this study – value – could be studied in more depth to understand why scale items that load on this factor in Western studies do not do so consistently in an African context. For instance, why do “I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop” and “I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop” load on two different factors? This could be fruitful grounds for future research, which will in all likelihood require qualitative research better to understand what meaning these scale items hold for African consumers, and how they perceive and define ‘Value’. In future studies, new items to measure the price and value consciousness/shopping motivation reliably in this market could thus be developed.

Lifestyle, including what consumers do, how they feel about life and what they value, is a strong determinant of their purchase behaviour. Analysing lifestyle can thus allow marketers to develop a more comprehensive profile of their target markets, which will better enable them to meet consumer needs. Unfortunately, the low reliabilities of the lifestyle measure used in this study stymied this intention. Even though tentative lifestyle clusters of FAE consumers were suggested, this must be treated with caution and more research is required on the lifestyle of the Botswana consumer in relation to FAE consumption (including purchase) behaviour. This will also enable the researcher to understand what dimensions underlie this construct in this market. Since it appears that Western measures cannot simply be transplanted to an African context, it is suggested that a market-specific lifestyle questionnaire

be developed. To keep it manageable, it may be best initially to focus such a questionnaire on one product category only. For instance, appliance related AIO of consumers could be researched to determine how important the energy-saving attributes of appliances are for their purchase decision. Alternatively, the AIO of consumers related to either electronic products or furniture could be researched to determine what product attributes are the most highly rated.

The LOV indicated few statistically significant differences between the values listed. This may be due in part to the fact that many respondents failed to perform the second step of the measure, where respondents were encouraged to indicate the two most important, and the two least important values, in an attempt to encourage them to differentiate between values. Future studies on the values of the Botswana consumer could contribute to a better understanding of their behaviour.

Finally, the social class description, why the self-classification of “middle class” was so high and how Botswana consumers interpret the social class descriptors could benefit from future research. In the Western world, being middle class is associated with valuing independence and accomplishment, rather than interdependence and relationships. It is doubtful that the same is true for an African market. Furthermore, in South Africa the new middle classes have been associated with conspicuous consumption, which contrasts with the thrift mentality of most of the consumers indicated in this sample. Future research could help to shed light on the meaning of being middle class in Africa.

5.4 Conclusion: Chapter 5

The study was, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, the first to investigate the FAE consumer in Botswana. The ambit of the research was ambitiously wide. However, in the absence of any prior studies of the FAE consumer in Botswana, it was considered necessary to investigate a wide range of variables to establish a broad-based basic knowledge of these consumers. Despite its many shortcomings, the current study did offer new insights into the behaviour of FAE consumers in Botswana. The findings indicate that the Botswana FAE consumer is predominantly functionally motivated, which provides guidance to retail management about where to focus their efforts to improve the shopping experience of their consumers. The four shopping motivation clusters identified are similar to clusters found in

previous international studies, which provides some support for their validity, despite some concerns about the reliability of the measurement instrument used. Some of the implications of the findings can immediately assist management to adjust their marketing strategy. However, future research is required to build on this first, exploratory research.

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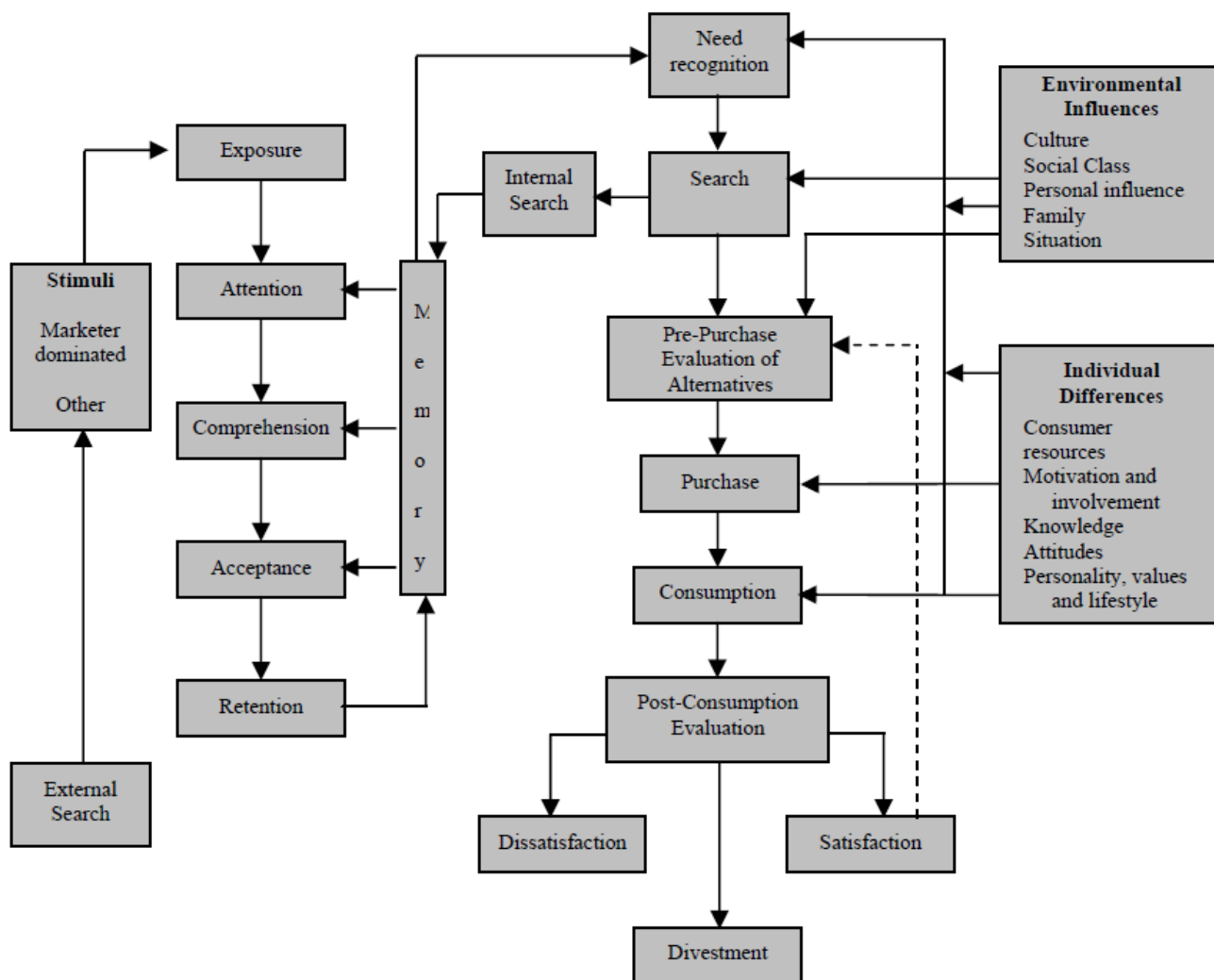
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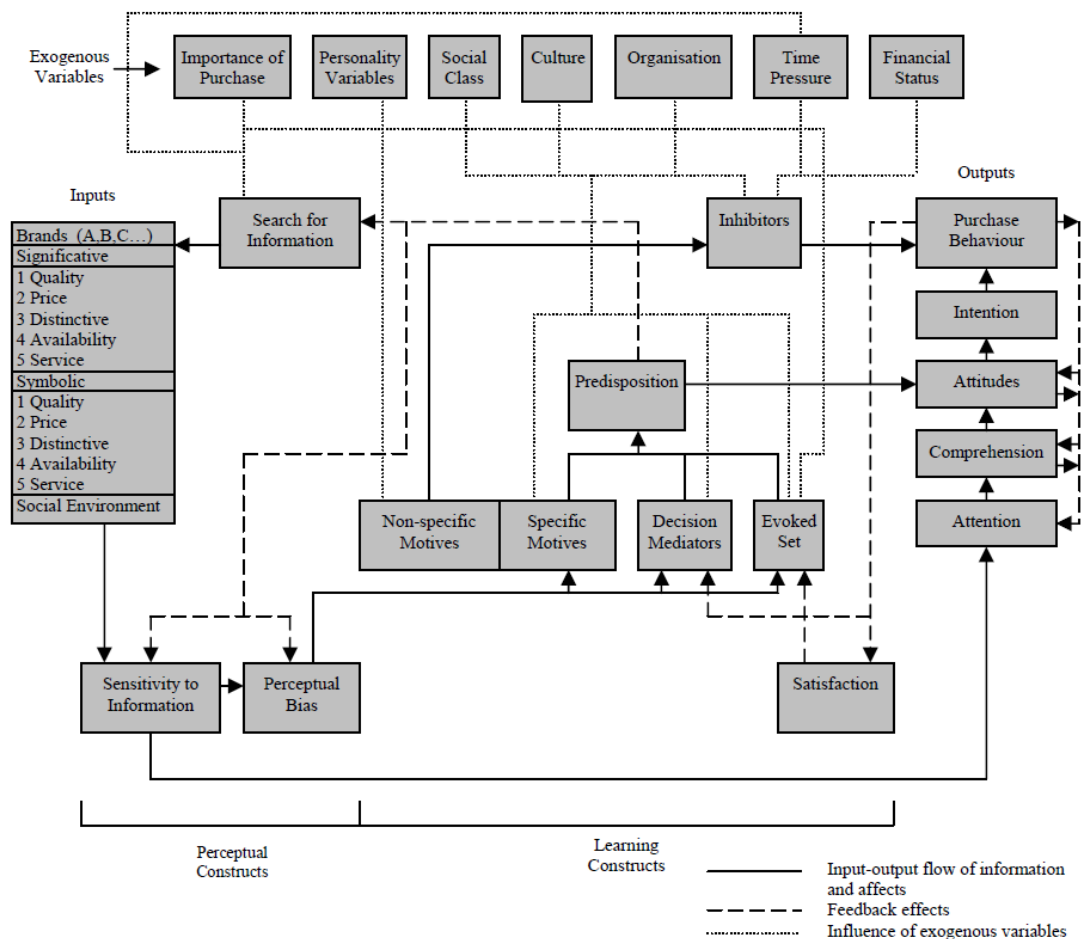
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APPENDIX 1: The Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model of Decision Processing Behaviour (EBM Model)



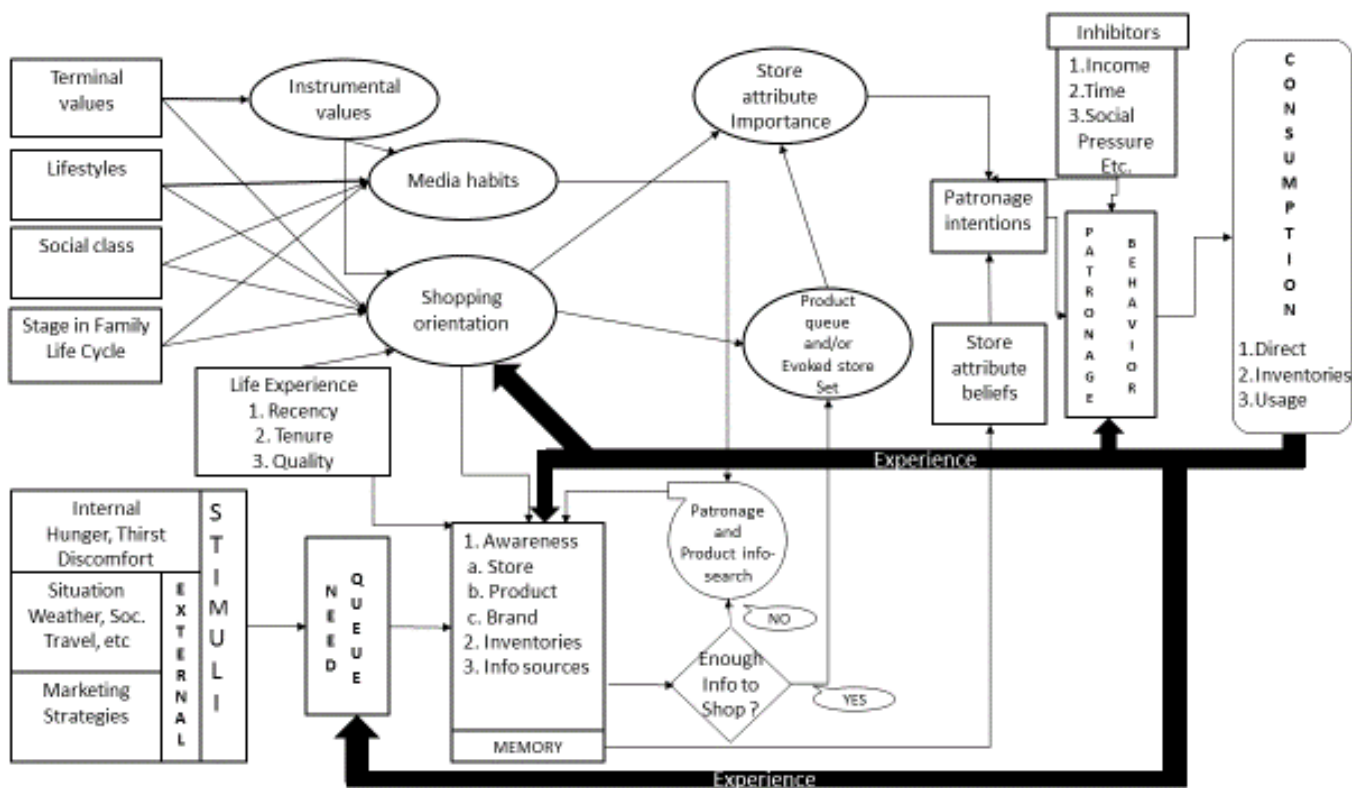
(Blackwell, Miniard & Engel as cited in Bray, 2008)

APPENDIX 2: Howard-Sheth Model of Buyer Behaviour



(Louden & Della Britta cited in Bray, 2008)

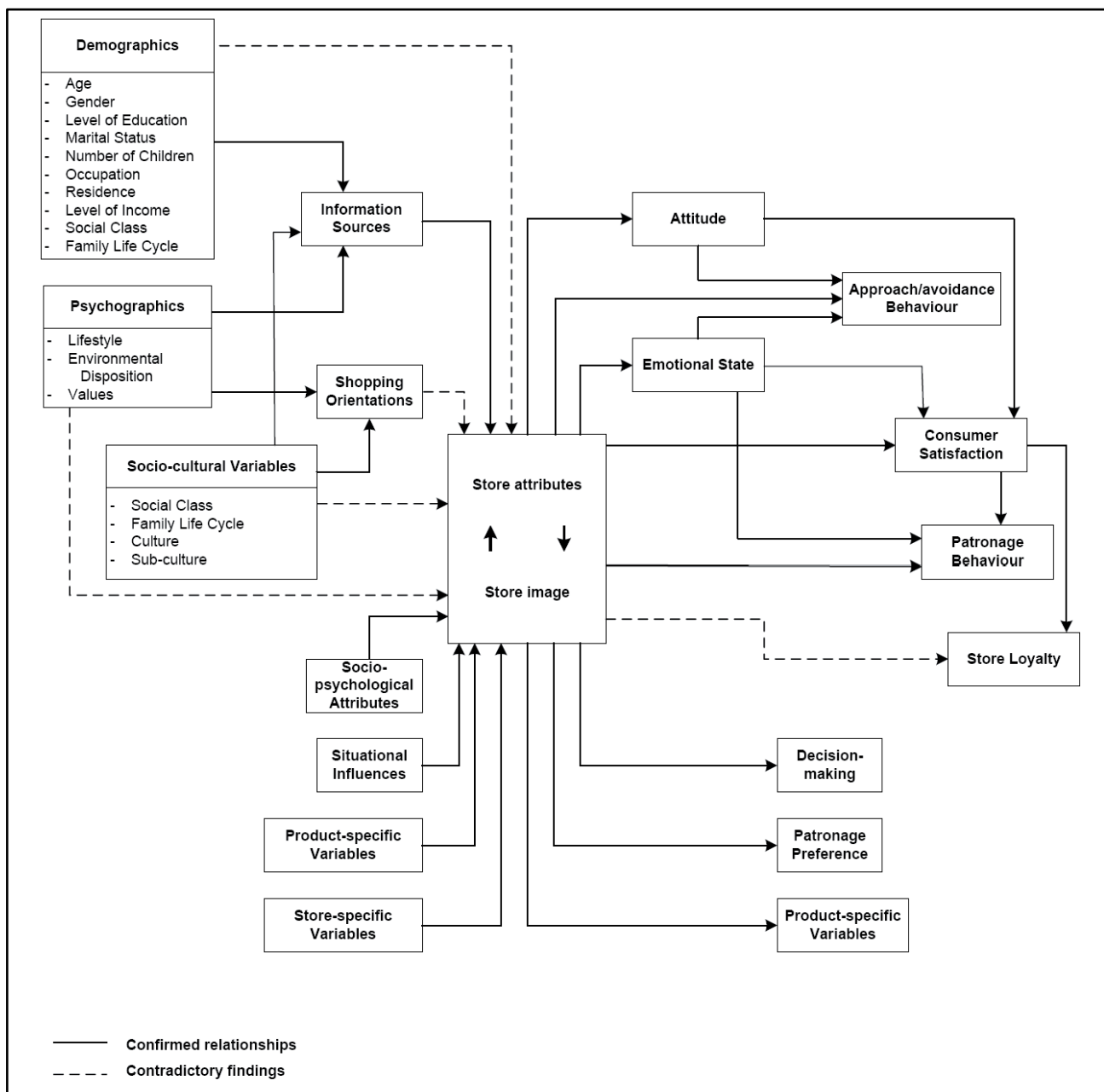
APPENDIX 3: Darden's Patronage Model of Consumer Behaviour



(Darden, Darden, Howell & Miller, 1981)

APPENDIX 4:

Du Preez, Visser and Van Noordwyk's conceptual theoretical model of store image and related consumer behaviour



(Du Preez, Visser & Janse van Noordwyk, 2008)

APPENDIX 5: Consent, instruction sheet and questionnaire



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jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

Dear Customer

Thank you for agreeing to take part in our market research. It forms part of a study done by Ms Hinré Smit, a Master's student at the University of Stellenbosch, with the objective of profiling the Botswana consumers of furniture, appliances and electronics. This will help us to improve our service to you. Answering these questions will take approximately 30 minutes. Please only proceed if you have the time.

Participation is voluntary and anonymous (you will not be required to provide your name). The only discomfort you may experience is the time to complete the survey and giving information about yourself (e.g. your income). It will give you the opportunity to state your opinions, helping us to get to know you better. Information obtained during the course of the study will remain confidential. On completion of the questionnaire, you will be given the opportunity to participate in a lucky draw, by completing your details on a separate entry form.

There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your opinions. You may withdraw or stop participation at any time. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; +27 21 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development, Stellenbosch University. If you have any other questions or concerns that cannot be answered by branch management, please contact Ms Hinré Smit at 742 55 317.

Please confirm your consent to participate and that your responses may be used for research purposes (i.e. published in a thesis and academic article) by ticking the box at the top of the questionnaire.

Please answer all items.

Dear Customer

Thank you for agreeing to take part in our market research, which will help us to improve our service to you. Answering these questions will take approximately 20 – 30 minutes. Please only proceed if you have the time.

Participation is voluntary. It will give you the opportunity to state your opinions, helping us to get to know you better. Information obtained during the course of the study will remain confidential. On completion of the questionnaire, you will be given the opportunity to participate in a lucky draw, by completing your details on a separate entry form.

There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your opinions. Should you have any questions or concerns that cannot be answered by branch management, please contact Ms Hinré Smit at 74255317.

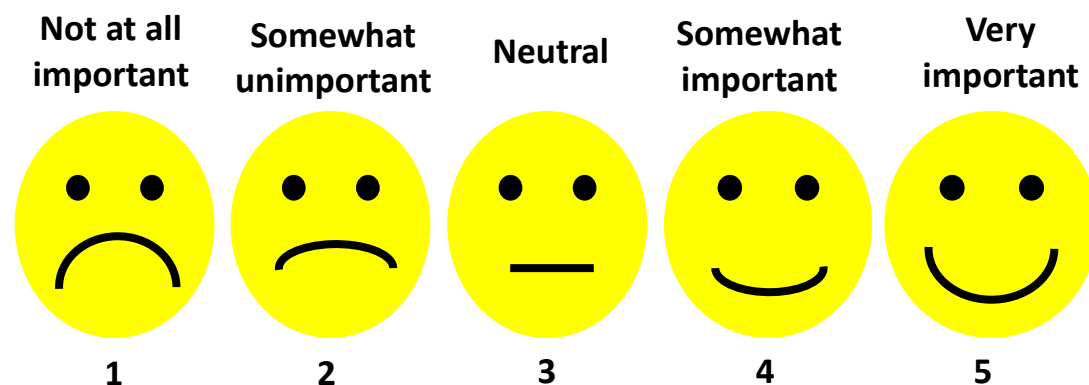
Please confirm your consent to participate by ticking the box at the top of the questionnaire. Please answer all items.

To help you understand and answer the questions, the following instruction sheet is provided:

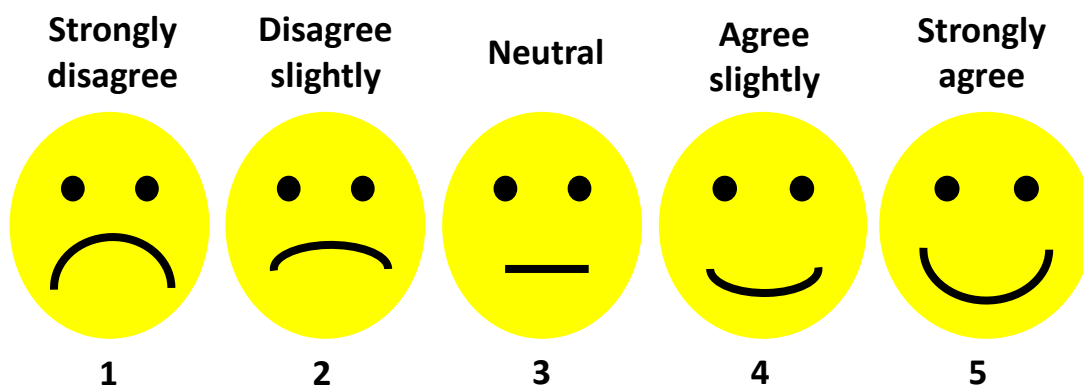
SECTION A – Question 7

In this question, 10 sets of opposing adjectives are provided. Rate the product you bought accordingly. For instance, if you regard it very effective, rate it a 1, or slightly effective 2. If not effective at all, rate it a 5, and so on.

SECTION A (Question 6) and SECTION B (Question 10): INDICATE IMPORTANCE



SECTION B (Questions 8 and 9: INDICATE AGREEMENT



I consent Y N Store number: Date: Time:

SECTION A: PURCHASE AND PRODUCT & CHARACTERISTICS

1.Type of product purchased: Furniture Appliance Electronics
 (If purchased more than one, answer for most expensive)

2.Cash Price Purchased Cash Credit (months) 6 12 18 24

3. How often have you purchased such a product before?	4. Whose decision was it to purchase this product?
This is the first time <input type="text"/> 1	It was my decision <input type="text"/> 1
Once before <input type="text"/> 2	It was a joint decision with my spouse/partner <input type="text"/> 2
Twice before <input type="text"/> 3	It was a joint decision with my child(ren) <input type="text"/> 3
Three times before <input type="text"/> 4	It was a joint decision with other relatives <input type="text"/> 4
More than 3 times <input type="text"/> 5	It was a joint decision with someone else <input type="text"/> 5

5. When did you first decide to purchase such a product?	6. How important were these information sources for your decision?	Not at all important	Somewhat unimportant	Neutral	Somewhat important	Very important
This morning <input type="text"/> 1	Speaking to family	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5
This week <input type="text"/> 2	Speaking to friends	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5
Last week <input type="text"/> 3	In-store sales people	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5
Within the last month <input type="text"/> 4	In-store display	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5
Within the last 3 months <input type="text"/> 5	Store advertising leaflet	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5
More than 3 months ago <input type="text"/> 6	Radio advertising	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5

7. How would you describe this product?						
Effective	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Ineffective
Not fun	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Fun
Helpful	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Unhelpful
Dull	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Exciting
Functional	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Not functional
Not delightful	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Delightful
Necessary	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Unnecessary
Not thrilling	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Thrilling
Practical	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Impractical
Unenjoyable	<input type="text"/> 1	<input type="text"/> 2	<input type="text"/> 3	<input type="text"/> 4	<input type="text"/> 5	Enjoyable

8. Please indicate your agreement with the following statements

	Strongly disagree	Disagree slightly	Neutral	Agree slightly	Strongly agree
I follow the latest trends and fashions	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Our home provides ideal space for quality time in our family	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Appliances must be as affordable as possible, i.e. as cheap as possible	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
The colour of my appliances should match my kitchen's colour scheme and decor	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I spend a lot of time in front of the TV	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
It is really important that my home has a big kitchen	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Owning beautiful appliances could boost one's image amongst friends	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I often buy the latest model in electronic products	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I don't easily abandon something that can still be used	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Price is important to me, i.e. I decide beforehand what I will pay	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I dress to impress, rather than for comfort	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I exercise regularly to keep fit	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Usually, I want to follow others' steps rather than be a trendsetter	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
When buying things for my home, I compare prices in order to get the best value for money	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
The design of appliances, i.e. shape, is important to me	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I try to arrange my home for my children's convenience	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I like pursuing new and extraordinary products	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
In our family, we eat a lot of vegetables	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I like spending time at the cattle post	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
The amount of the instalment is more important than the cash price	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Quality is more important than price	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I spend a lot of time listening to music	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
In my home, function is more important than looks/beauty	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Expensive products are of better quality	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I would buy certain brands to impress others	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
When buying furniture, comfort is more important to me than design	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I like cooking for my family	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Having friends visiting at home is an important part of my social life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I like showing off my home	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I am a soccer fan	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Buying things on the Internet scares me	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>

9. Please indicate your agreement with the following statements

	Strongly disagree	Disagree slightly	Neutral	Agree slightly	Strongly agree
When I am in a down mood, I go shopping to make myself feel better	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I go shopping to keep up with trends	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I like to feel smart/clever about my shopping trip	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I find shopping stimulating	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I go shopping with my friends and family to socialise	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
It feels good to know my shopping trip was successful	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
To me, shopping is a way to relieve stress	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I enjoy hunting for bargains when I shop	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
To me, shopping is an adventure	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
On a particular shopping trip, it is important to find items I am looking for	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Shopping with others is a bonding experience	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I go shopping when I want to treat myself to something special	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I enjoy looking for discounts when I shop.	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I go shopping to keep up with the new fashions	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I enjoy socialising with others when I shop	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
I go shopping to see what new products are available	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
For the most part, I go shopping where the sales are.	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
It is important to accomplish what I had planned on a particular shopping trip	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>

Indicate the 2 least important values (rank 9 & 8)

<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>

10. How important are these values to you?

	Not at all important	Somewhat unimportant	Neutral	Somewhat important	Very important
Being self-fulfilled in life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Being well respected in life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Having an exciting life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Having a sense of belonging in life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Having fun and enjoyment in life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Having security in life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Having self-respect in life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Having warm relationships with others	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Obtaining a sense of accomplishment in life	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>

Indicate the 2 most important values (rank 1 & 2)

<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>

SECTION C: DEMOGRAPHICS

11. Gender: Male Female 12. Address

13. What is your age?	14. What is your highest level of education?	15. What is your marital status?
25 yrs or younger <input type="checkbox" value="1"/>	I never attended school <input type="checkbox" value="1"/>	Married <input type="checkbox" value="1"/>
Between 26 - 35 yrs <input type="checkbox" value="2"/>	Primary school <input type="checkbox" value="2"/>	Never married <input type="checkbox" value="2"/>
Between 36 - 45 yrs <input type="checkbox" value="3"/>	Secondary school <input type="checkbox" value="3"/>	Living together <input type="checkbox" value="3"/>
Between 46 - 55 yrs <input type="checkbox" value="4"/>	Tertiary education <input type="checkbox" value="4"/>	Separated/divorced <input type="checkbox" value="4"/>
56 yrs or older <input type="checkbox" value="5"/>	Post graduate <input type="checkbox" value="5"/>	Widowed <input type="checkbox" value="5"/>

16. No of children: Age of first born Age of last born

17. What is your level of occupation?	18. Where do you work?	19. How would you describe yourself?
Unskilled <input type="checkbox" value="1"/>	Government (central or local) <input type="checkbox" value="1"/>	Working class <input type="checkbox" value="1"/>
Semi-skilled (eg driver) <input type="checkbox" value="2"/>	Retail <input type="checkbox" value="2"/>	Lower middle class <input type="checkbox" value="2"/>
Supervisory <input type="checkbox" value="3"/>	Agriculture <input type="checkbox" value="3"/>	Middle class <input type="checkbox" value="3"/>
Administrative <input type="checkbox" value="4"/>	Security <input type="checkbox" value="4"/>	Upper middle class <input type="checkbox" value="4"/>
Technical/artisan <input type="checkbox" value="5"/>	Financial <input type="checkbox" value="5"/>	
Manager <input type="checkbox" value="6"/>	Mining <input type="checkbox" value="6"/>	
Professional <input type="checkbox" value="7"/>	Other <input type="checkbox" value="7"/>	

20. What is your monthly income?	21. What is your source of income? (Tick all applicable)
Below P1500 <input type="checkbox" value="1"/>	Full time wages/salary <input type="checkbox" value="1"/>
P1501 - P2299 <input type="checkbox" value="2"/>	Part time wages/salary <input type="checkbox" value="2"/>
P2300 - P3199 <input type="checkbox" value="3"/>	Grants <input type="checkbox" value="3"/>
P3200 - P6199 <input type="checkbox" value="4"/>	Rental <input type="checkbox" value="4"/>
P6200 - P9999 <input type="checkbox" value="5"/>	Investments <input type="checkbox" value="5"/>
P10000 - P19999 <input type="checkbox" value="6"/>	Own business <input type="checkbox" value="6"/>
P20000 and more <input type="checkbox" value="7"/>	Other <input type="checkbox" value="7"/>

22. Should you win the lucky draw, which prize will you prefer?

P7000 rebate on my account Tablet to the value of P7000

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION

APPENDIX 6: Ethical clearance



UNIVERSITEIT
STELLENBOSCH
UNIVERSITY

NOTICE OF APPROVAL

REC Humanities New Application Form

4 October 2017

Project number: IPSY-2017-1182-912

Project Title: Profiling Botswana Consumers of Furniture, Appliances and Electronics

Dear Mrs Henrietta Smit

Your REC Humanities New Application Form submitted on 28 August 2017 was reviewed and approved by the REC: Humanities.

Please note the following about your approved submission:

Ethics approval period: 4 October 2017 - 3 October 2020

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (IPSY-2017-1182-912) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary)

Included Documents:

Document Type	File Name	Date	Version
Research Protocol/Proposal	20170723 HA Smit 12492051 research proposal	02/08/2017	1
Informed Consent Form	20170813 Consent and instruction sheet	13/08/2017	1
Data collection tool	20170813 Questionnaire	13/08/2017	1
Proof of permission	20170814 Consent from Fummart	14/08/2017	1

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number: REC-050411-032.

The Research Ethics Committee: Humanities complies with the SA National Health Act No.61 2003 as it pertains to health research. In addition, this committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research established by the Declaration of Helsinki (2013) and the Department of Health Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes (2nd Ed.) 2015. Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

Investigator Responsibilities

Protection of Human Research Participants

Some of the general responsibilities investigators have when conducting research involving human participants are listed below:

1. Conducting the Research. You are responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC approved research protocol. You are also responsible for the actions of all your co-investigators and research staff involved with this research. You must also ensure that the research is conducted within the standards of your field of research.

2. Participant Enrollment. You may not recruit or enroll participants prior to the REC approval date or after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials for any form of media must be approved by the REC prior to their use.

3. Informed Consent. You are responsible for obtaining and documenting effective informed consent using **only** the REC-approved consent documents/process, and for ensuring that no human participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their informed consent. Please give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents. Keep the originals in your secured research files for at least five (5) years.

4. Continuing Review. The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research proposals at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is **no grace period**. Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, **it is your responsibility to submit the progress report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur**. If REC approval of your research lapses, you must stop new participant enrollment, and contact the REC office immediately.

5. Amendments and Changes. If you wish to amend or change any aspect of your research (such as research design, interventions or procedures, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material), you must submit the amendment to the REC for review using the current Amendment Form. You **may not initiate** any amendments or changes to your research without first obtaining written REC review and approval. The **only exception** is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.

6. Adverse or Unanticipated Events. Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to Malene Fouche within **five (5) days** of discovery of the incident. You must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the REC's requirements for protecting human research participants. The only exception to this policy is that the death of a research participant must be reported in accordance with the Stellenbosch University Research Ethic Committee Standard Operating Procedures. All reportable events should be submitted to the REC using the Serious Adverse Event Report Form.

7. Research Record Keeping. You must keep the following research related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of five years: the REC approved research proposal and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence from the REC

8. Provision of Counselling or emergency support. When a dedicated counsellor or psychologist provides support to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognised as research nor the data used in support of research. Such cases should be indicated in the progress report or final report.

9. Final reports. When you have completed (no further participant enrollment, interactions or interventions) or stopped work on your research, you must submit a Final Report to the REC.

10. On-Site Evaluations, Inspections, or Audits. If you are notified that your research will be reviewed or audited by the sponsor or any other external agency or an internal group, you must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation.