

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**

**TOILET-CARE PRODUCT BRAND SWITCHING  
BEHAVIOUR: A CASE STUDY OF CONSUMERS OF COSMO  
CITY, GAUTENG PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA**

By

**TRUST MASUKU**

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements  
For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**School of Management, IT and Governance  
College of Law and Management Studies  
University of KwaZulu-Natal**

**Supervisor: Prof. Krishna Govender**

**2015**

## DECLARATION

I .....Trust Masuku.....declare that

- (i) The research reported in this dissertation/thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.
- (ii) This dissertation/thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
- (iv) This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
  - a) their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced;
  - b) where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks, and referenced.
- (v) Where I have reproduced a publication of which I am an author, co-author or editor, I have indicated in detail which part of the publication was actually written by myself alone and have fully referenced such publications.
- (vi) This dissertation/thesis does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation/thesis and in the References sections.

Signature:

Date:

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to extend my sincere thanks and appreciation to the following people who assisted me in this study:

- Professor Krishna Govender for his dedication and guidance towards the completion of this research. Professor Govender's constructive criticism and encouragement throughout the duration of my study proved invaluable and motivating to keep me going though at times it looked impossible.
- Gill Hendrys for data processing and analysis. She was patient with me and guided me through the interpretation of results of the findings.
- Dr Given Mutitinta who proved to be a friend and bouncing board throughout my research. I truly valued his time and effort in discussing my thoughts and intentions on this research study.
- Deborah Cunynghame, the ever so helpful resource administrator at UKZN, without home I would have missed so many deadlines and finer issues of my study. My most heartfelt thanks go to her and may God truly bless her gentle spirit.
- Prof. Brian McArthur, for supporting me in getting a supervisor and accommodating my personal challenges during this research study.
- Mrs Nokuthula Masuku, my wife and joy of twenty years, who had the utmost belief in me that I would complete this mammoth task. She stood by me with consoling words and emotional support in the darkest hours of this study.
- Gloria Ndebele, for capturing all the raw data into Excel.
- GOD, for helping me to complete this research project and guiding me through the most difficult stages of my life.

## ABSTRACT

South African consumers face increasingly highly competitive brand offerings in the toilet-care product category due to the proliferation of multinational manufacturer and (private) retail store brand offerings. The economic environment has also compelled consumers to review their brand choices, with significant shifts towards the purchase of retail brands, as they try to balance the ever shrinking disposable incomes. In this context, the primary objective of this study was to examine the factors motivating toilet-care product brand choice by households, who relocated to a government demarcated residential area (Cosmo City). The relocation was perceived as a radically disruptive social change for some consumer segments, since it entailed a physical change in the place and type of residential dwelling. The relocation had a significant impact on the residents because the change resulted in most cases to a radical change in the type and system of toilet facilities. The resultant effect was a change in the brand-consumer relationship with consumers switching brands as they adapted to the new residential facilities.

A structured questionnaire was used to investigate the before and after usage of toilet-care product brands. The benefit of using the structured questionnaire was to capture the brand usage behaviour of respondents of were being studied. The questionnaire was divided into four sections with questions on administrative and demographic data, brand switching, change in place and type of residence, and desired toilet-care product brand benefits. The questions were constructed on a five-point Likert scale, and the questionnaire was administered to a randomly selected sample of 332 residents from Cosmo City. The sample was chosen from the Cosmo City housing list which included house numbers, and street names. The housing list informed the selection of sample units which ensured that the three segments were proportionally represented in the survey.

The SPSS (V17) software was used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistical analysis was conducted on the data and the means, standard deviation and sample variances obtained were presented and conclusions drawn. Inferential statistical analysis techniques such as Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Pearson's correlation coefficient tests, and logistic regressions were conducted on the data to evaluate the research objectives and hypotheses.

The relationship between brand benefits and brand switching following a radical social disruption were both positive and significant. Logistical regression path coefficients ( $\beta = 1.709$ ,  $p < .0005$ ) on the brand benefits and brand switching demonstrated positive and significant changes in the desired brand benefits following the social disruption. The same results were affirmed between brand benefits and lifestyle change where 'brand benefits' significantly predicted 'lifestyle' ( $\beta = .595$ ,  $p < .0005$ ). The other finding was that the binominal and T-Test results on brand switching following a change in the type and place of residence was significant ( $p < 0.0005$ ) because the p-value is less than 0.0005. The relationship between a social disruption (change in the place and type of residence) and lifestyle, using Pearson's correlation tests, confirmed significant correlation ( $r = -.278$ ,  $p < .0005$ ) between the aforementioned variables. The Logistical regression analysis proved that there social disruption significantly predicted lifestyle change ( $\beta = -.278$ ,  $p < .0005$ ). However, the findings based on regression analysis indicated that there were no significant differences ( $\beta = -.601$ ,  $p = .027$ ) between households that switched brands and those that did not, meaning that the social disruption was not strong or significant enough to motivate them to change their lifestyle and switch brands.

The aforementioned summary findings underscore the importance of recognising that consumers re-evaluate their brand choices leading to significant brand switching in cases where the a social change has a radical effect on brand usage. The results explicitly indicate that 'out-of-market' changes such as a radical social change have the same impact on consumer brand behaviour and brand choice as 'in-market' disruptions such as the introduction of a radically new innovative brand. The findings further illustrate that both 'in-market' and 'out-of-market' disruptions motivate consumers to behave in similar ways with regards to brand choice.

**Keywords:** consumer behaviour; brand choice; brand identity; brand loyalty; brand switching, social disruption, social identity

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Abstract	iv
Table of Contents	vi
List of Tables	xiii
List of Figures	Xv
Appendices	Xvi
Key Concepts and Terms	Xvii
Acronyms and Abbreviation definition	Xviii

### **Chapter 1: Introduction and Background**

1.	Introduction	1
1.1.	Background to the Problem	2
1.2.	Research Problem	3
1.3.	Research Aim and Objectives	4
1.4.	Research Question	4
1.4.1.	Secondary Questions	5
1.5.	Research Hypotheses	5
1.6.	Significance of the Study	6
1.7.	Research Design	7
1.8.	Ethical Considerations	8
1.9.	Study De-limitations	9
1.9.1.	Geographical Location of the Study	9
1.9.2.	Product Selection	9
1.9.3.	Interpretation of the Questionnaire	10
1.9.4.	Other Delimitations	10
1.10.	Structure of the Study	11

1.11.	Conclusions	11
<b>Chapter 2: South African Market Review</b>		
2.	Introduction	13
2.1.	Household Product Market Overview	13
2.2.	An Overview of Toilet-care Products	14
2.2.1.	Toilet-care Product Segment Overview	15
2.2.2.	Toilet-care Product Distribution	16
2.3.	Manufacturer and Private Label Brands Dichotomy	16
2.4.	Growth of Private Label Brands	19
2.4.1.	Competitive Pricing Policies	21
2.4.2.	Competitive Product Quality Offering	22
2.4.3.	Product Differentiation	23
2.4.4.	Improved Product Value Offering	24
2.4.5.	Economies of Scale	25
2.5.	Brand Switching between Private and Manufacturer Brands	25
2.6.	Housing Development in South Africa – An Overview	26
2.6.1.	Background to the National Housing Policy	26
2.6.2.	Financial Support	28
2.6.3.	Housing Unit Delivery	29
2.6.4.	Housing and Sanitation - An Overview	31
2.7.	Conclusion	34
<b>Chapter 3: Branding and Brand Switching</b>		
3.	Introduction	35
3.1.	Brands	35
3.2.	Evolution of Brands	37
3.3.	Brand Equity	40
3.3.1.	Consumer Brand Equity Measurement (CBE)	41

3.3.2.	Financial Brand Equity Measurement (FBE)	41
3.3.3.	Hybrid Brand Equity Measurement	46
3.4.	Brand Loyalty	48
3.4.1.	Brand Trust	49
3.4.2.	Product Brand Value	49
3.4.3.	Consumer Satisfaction	50
3.4.4.	Brand Switching Costs	50
3.4.5.	Brand Associations	51
3.4.6.	Emotional Bond with a Brand	51
3.4.7.	Brand Resonance	52
3.5.	Behavioural Loyalty	53
3.6.	Attitudinal Loyalty	55
3.7.	Brand Switching	59
3.7.1.	Dissatisfaction with the Current Brand's Value Proposition	61
3.7.2.	Economic Motivation	62
3.7.3.	Emotional Motivations	62
3.7.4.	Variety Seeking	64
3.7.5.	Brand Promotion	65
3.8.	Factors Motivating Brand Switching	66
3.8.1.	Switching Costs	66
3.8.2.	Procedural costs	66
3.8.3.	Financial Costs	67
3.8.4.	Relational Costs	68
3.9.	Brand Loyalty-Switching Continuum	68
3.10.	Consumer Brand Decision Making Process	70
3.10.1.	Economic Approach	73
3.10.2.	Revealed Preference Approach	74
3.10.3.	Utility Approach	77



3.10.4.	Marketing Implications of the Economic Consumer Decision Approach	79
3.11.	Heterogeneity and Consumer Brand Choice	80
3.12.	Generic Decision Process	82
3.13.	EBK Model Decision Process	85
3.13.1.	Culture and Consumer Brand Decision-Making	87
3.13.2.	Family and Consumer Brand Decision - Making	82
3.13.3.	Attitude and Consumer Buying Decision-Making	88
3.13.4.	Learning and Consumer Brand Decision- making	88
3.13.5.	Personality and Consumer Buying Decision- Making	90
3.14.	Criticisms of Rational Approaches	91
3.15.	Sociological and Psychological Methodologies	93
3.15.1.	Social Identity Theory and Consumer Choice	94
3.15.2.	Identity Theory and Consumer Choice	97
3.15.3.	Social Theory and Consumer Behaviour	98
3.15.4.	Social Theory and Consumer Decision Making	103
3.16.	Lifestyle and Consumer Choice	106
3.16.1.	Lifestyle and Brand Choice	108
3.17.	Conclusions	116

#### **Chapter 4: Theoretical Framework**

4.	Introduction	117
4.1.	The Consumer Brand Identification (CBI) Framework	117
4.2.	The Relationship between Desired Brand Benefits and Brand Switching	123
4.3.	The Relationship between Social Disruption and Brand Switching	124
4.4.	Relationship between Lifestyle and Brand Switching	124
4.5.	Relationship between Brand Benefits and Lifestyle change	124
4.6.	Relationship between Social Change and Lifestyle change	125

4.7.	Conclusion	125
<b>Chapter 5: Research Methodology</b>		
5.	Introduction	126
5.1.	Research Design	126
5.1.1.	Internal Validity	139
5.1.2.	External Validity	131
5.1.3.	Construct Validity	131
5.1.4.	Statistical Validity	132
5.1.5.	Improving Validity	133
5.1.6.	Reliability	134
5.2.	Research Methodology	134
5.2.1.	Questionnaires	134
5.2.2.	Interviews	137
5.2.3.	Direct Observations	138
5.2.4.	Document Analysis	138
5.3.	Research Population	139
5.4.	Sampling Method	139
5.4.1.	Sample Size	140
5.4.2.	Sampling Type	142
5.4.3.	Pilot Study	143
5.5.	Unit of Analysis	145
5.6.	Research Instrument	145
5.6.1.	Demographics	145
5.6.2.	Brand Switching Questions	145
5.6.3.	Change in Place and Type of Residence	146
5.6.4.	Desired Brand Benefits	146
5.6.5.	Interval Scale Use	146
5.7.	Data Analysis	148
5.7.1.	Quantitative Analysis	148

5.7.2.	Correlation Analysis	148
5.8.	Research Limitations	149
5.9.	Conclusions	149

## **Chapter 6: Research Findings**

6.	Introduction	150
6.1.	Findings	150
6.2.	Reliability of the Research Instrument	150
6.3.	Validity of the Research Instrument	154
6.4.	Demographic Data	154
6.5.	Descriptive Statistics	156
6.5.1.	Brand Types and Brand Switching	156
6.5.2.	Private vs Manufacturer Brands	157
6.5.3.	Product Format	157
6.5.4.	Reasons for Switching Brands	158
6.6.	Benefits of Switching Brands	158
6.7.	Change in the Type of Residence and Brand Switching Behaviour	159
6.7.1.	Change of Type of Residence	161
6.7.2.	Change of Toilet Type	162
6.7.3.	Change in Toilet Cleaning Behaviour	162
6.7.4.	Ease of Cleaning	163
6.8.	Lifestyle Changes	164
6.9.	Results of Inferential Statistical Analysis	165
6.9.1.	Brand Switching	165
6.9.2.	Product Format: Brand Switching	165
6.9.3.	Brand Switching Since Relocating from an Informal Settlement to Cosmo City	167
6.9.4.	Brand Switching since Relocated from a Townhouse to Cosmo City	168

6.9.5.	Brand Switching since Relocating from a Stand-alone House to Cosmo City	170
6.9.6.	Brand Switching since Relocating from a Backroom to Cosmo City	171
6.9.7.	Changes in Toilet Cleaning Behaviour	172
6.10.	Change of Residence and Lifestyle	173
6.11.	Product Brand Benefits	174
6.12.	Testing of Hypotheses	176
6.13.	Conclusions	179

### **Chapter 7: Discussion of Findings**

7.	Introduction	181
7.1.	Discussion of Findings	181
7.1.1.	Influence of Product Benefits on Toilet-care Brand Choice	181
7.1.2.	Influence of a Change in Place of Residence on Toilet-care Brand Choice	183
7.1.3.	Influence of Lifestyle Change on Toilet-care Brand Choice	185
7.2.	Conclusions	187

### **Chapter 8: Conclusions and Recommendations**

8.	Introduction	189
8.1.	Research Conclusions	189
8.2.	Managerial Implications	190
8.3.	Summary of Recommendations	190
8.4.	Limitations of Study	191
8.4.1.	Product Selection	191
8.4.2.	Sample Selection	192
8.4.3.	Question Depth and Quality	192
8.5.	Future Research Options	192
8.6.	Conclusion	193

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1. CBI Assumptive Differences	7
Table 2.1: South African Home-care Category Market values:2009-2013	13
Table 2.2: Brands versus PLs – Identification of Main Differences	18
Table 2.3: Formal Housing Units Delivery 1994- 2014	30
Table 3.1. Brand Leadership – The Evolving Paradigm Shift	48
Table 3.2. AIO Model of Consumer Lifestyle	108
Table 3.3. SAARF LSM Model	115
Table 5.1. Research Design and Methods	134
Table 5.2. Research Sample Representation	142
Table 6.1. Summary of Responses	150
Table 6.2. Validity Testing of the Research Instrument	150
Table 6.3. Factor Analysis	152
Table 6.4. Rotated Factor Analysis	153
Table 6.5: Reliability of the Research Instrument	154
Table 6.6. Race Profile of Respondents	154
Table 6.7. Family Size of Respondents	155
Table 6.8. Home Ownership	155
Table 6.9. Sources of Income	155
Table 6.10. Product Switching Profile	156
Table 6.11. Brand Switching: Binominal Test Results	156
Table 6.12. Brand Switching	157
Table 6.13. Usage by Product Brand Format	157
Table 6.14. Factors Motivation Brand Switching	158
Table 6.15. Benefits of Switching Brands	159
Table 6.16. Ranking of Change in Residential Type	160
Table 6.17. Ranking of Change in Residence	160
Table 6.18. House Type Change and Loyalty/Switching	161
Table 6.19. Analysis of Means of the Respondents’ Lifestyle	164
Table 6.20. Social Change as a Predictor of Lifestyle	164

Table 6.21. Reasons for Brand Switching	164
Table 6.22. Change of Residence and Brand Switching	166
Table 6.23. Brand Switching: Relocation from an Informal Settlement to Cosmo City	167
Table 6.24. Brand Switching: Relocation from a Townhouse/Flat to Cosmo City	169
Table 6.25. Brand Switching: Relocating from a Stand-alone House to Cosmo City	170
Table 6.26. Brand Switching: Relocating from a Backroom to Cosmo City	172
Table 6.27. Changes in Toilet Cleaning Behaviour	173
Table 6.28. Change in the Place of Residence and Lifestyle Change	173
Table 6.29. Social Change as a Predictor of Lifestyle	174
Table 6.30. Brand Benefits Influencing Brand Switching	175
Table 6.31. T-Tests for Brand Benefits Influencing Brand Switching	176
Table 6.32. Regression Analysis	177
Table 7.1: Summary of Decisions on the Hypotheses	186

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Model	6
Figure 1.2: Toilet-care Product Category Profile	9
Figure 2.1. Toilet-care Product Segment Market Values: 2009-2014	15
Figure 2.2. Perceptions of Private Label Brands	20
Figure 2.3. Household with Access to piped Water:2009-2013	31
Figure 2.4. Household with Access to Sanitation: 2002-2013	33
Figure 3.1. Mr Muscle Toilet Cleaner	37
Figure 3.2. Brand Spectrum Evolution	39
Figure 3.3 Equity Measurement Perspectives	41
Figure 3.4. Customer –Based Brand Equity Model	42
Figure 3.5. Brand Equity Dimensions	44
Figure 3.6. Attitudinal Conversion Model	57
Figure 3.7. Brand Loyalty: Conceptual Framework	58
Figure 3.8 Switching Across same Brands	60
Figure 3.9 Switching Within same Brands	60
Figure 3.10. Spectrum of Repeat Purchase Probability	69
Figure 3.11. Consumer Optimisation Equilibrium	76
Figure 3.12. Generic Model of Consumer Problem Solving	83
Figure 3.13. Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model	86
Figure 3.14. The Learning Process	90
Figure 3.15. Consumer Identification: Different Perspectives	104
Figure 3.16. Consumer Purchasing Decision Model	110
Figure 3.17. VALS Framework	113
Figure 4.1. Consumer Brand Identification Conceptual Framework	121
Figure 6.1: Changes in the Profile of the Place of Residence	161
Figure 6.2. Changes in Toilet Types	162
Figure 6.3. Changes in Toilet Cleaning Behaviour	163
Figure 6.4. Ease of Cleaning Toilets	163
Figure 6.5. Brand Switching Construct Confirmation	179

## APPENDICES

Appendix 1a	Residential Segmentation	223
Appendix 2a	Toilet-care Product Segment	224
Appendix 2b	Distribution Channels Shares	224
Appendix 2c	Private Brand Shares	225
Appendix 2d	Manufacturer Brand Shares	226
Appendix 5a	Soweto Informal Settlement Dwelling Profile	227
Appendix 6	Consent Letter	228
Appendix 7	Research Questionnaire	229
Appendix 8	Ethical Clearance Letter	236



## KEY CONCEPTS AND TERMS

In order to assist the reader to contextualize the various terms and key concepts used in this thesis, definitions are provided below.

**Brand** - a representation of tangible and intangible features that create a specific identity which consumers can identify one product from another (Keller, Aperia & Georgson, 2012).

**Branding** - methods employed by an organisation for positioning the brand in the market in order to achieve a sustained competitive advantage (Lamb, Hair, & McDonald, 2011).

**Brand identity** – ‘this is a brand’s unique vision and its values about it intends to satisfy the needs of consumers (Lam, Ahearne and Schillewaert, 2012).

**Brand loyalty** – is “a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour”. Oliver 1999:34

**Brand switching** - is the process by which consumers switch from using of one product brand to another but of same category (Kumar and Charlas 2011).

**Brand equity** - is the “value accrued from the customer, product and financial markets” (Davicik and Sharma, 2015:5).

**Formal dwelling** – house made of a brick structure built on a separate stand. It can also be a flat, town/cluster/semi-detached house, a room/house/dwelling in a backyard, dwellings on a shared property, or a room or a small flat on a property (South African Institute of Race Relations, 2012).

**Informal dwelling** - shacks in backyard and not in backyard. (South African Institute of Race Relations, 2012).

**Lifestyle** - a person’s pattern of living which is reflected by the way the person spends his/her money, time and energy on different activities, interests and opinions (Kotler, 2009:786).

## **ACRONYMS and ABBREVIATIONS**

**CAGR:** Compound Annual Growth Rate

**CBI:** Consumer Brand Identity

**DoHS:** Department of Human Settlement

**ITB:** In-the-Bowl

**ITC:** In-the-Cistern

**LSM:** Living Standard Measure

**LSM:** Living Standard Measures

**RDP:** Reconstruction and Development Programme

**FMCG:** Fast Moving Consumer Goods

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

### 1. Introduction

The study of consumer behaviour has over the last century been central to marketing research, as marketers seek to understand how consumers relate to brands (Elbedweihy & Jayawardhena, 2014), facilitate the development of effective marketing strategies (Matthews, Son & Watchravesringkan, 2014), predict consumer buying behaviour in the marketplace (Solomon, Russel-Bennett & Previte, 2012), synthesise the framing of consumer choice (Peter & Olson, 2010), and understand the degree of consumer brand loyalty or brand switching (Barroso & Picon, 2012). Based on such a wide and diverse research background, this study examines the concept of consumer brand identification (CBI) to understanding consumer brand choice behaviour under disruptive ‘social’ conditions.

Disruptive market conditions are viewed as interruptions from the normal working conditions of the market. Market disruptions are defined as “major events occurring in the market that threaten customer–brand relationships,” (Lam, Ahearne, Hu & Schillewaert, 2010). These events are very complex impacting the entire market and supersede any individual or consumer level disturbances and they include aggressive competitors’ sales promotion, and industry crises. The true impact of market disruptions is to alter the consumer-brand relationships leading to either brand switching or entrenched brand loyalty.

The study examined the link between product brand benefits required by consumers and brand choice behaviour, as well as lifestyle effects on brand choice, when a household is faced by an external disruptive social factor. The role of lifestyle was articulated as a reflective link between consumer identity and brand consumption, based on the assumption that lifestyle incorporates elements of consumer ‘self-brand’ connections namely, the degree to which individuals incorporate brands into their self-definition (Klipfel, Barclay & Bockorny, 2014).

The study also draws on insights from branding, consumer brand loyalty, consumer-brand identification, consumer decision making and social theory, to present a holistic picture on the influences that motivate modern consumer brand choice behaviour. These insights provide the framework to shape and articulate the research problem and research objectives.

## **1.1. Background to the Problem**

Consumers are confronted by an increasing plethora of brands in the marketplace, and this puts tremendous pressure on how they choose brands (Chang & Dibb, 2012). The democratisation of the South African economy has resulted in an increased inflow of international toilet-care product brands into South Africa, since sanctions and other trade barriers were lifted. The inflow of international toilet-care brands and the rapid growth of store (retail) brands meant that the South African consumers were spoilt for choice. However, this choice was not fully realised given that the majority of previously disadvantaged people were still living in poor informal settlements, without piped water or proper sanitation (DoHS, 2014a). As a result, a major segment of the consumer market could not use the available toilet-care products.

In order to address the socio-economic imbalances, the South Africa government intervened through the enactment of a number of legislations, one critical area being in the housing sphere. The democratic government implemented a number of bold and ambitious strategies to redress the imbalances of the legacy of apartheid (DoHS, 2014a). One major policy, namely the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) entailed instituting a series of social-economic interventions in the housing or residential accommodation sphere. The aforementioned resulted in the rapid development of new housing infrastructure to replace the old apartheid structures which confined the majority of black people to “squatter” impoverished settlements, with no access to basic modern sanitary systems and piped water.

The impact on consumer brand choice behaviour has been fundamental as the toilet-care product market experienced a 3% Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) over the years between 2009-2014, which in rand value translated to a growth of R46.5m from a base of R285.9m (MarketLine, 2015). The aforementioned report also highlighted that the 3% CAGR in toilet-care product is above the 2.1% CAGR of the national economic growth for the same period, indicating the importance of the toilet-care category in the fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) category. The growth in toilet care product range and availability at different distribution points has enabled consumers to have greater choice, yet simultaneously complicating the decision-making process for the consumer.

In light of the developments in the toilet-care and housing markets alluded to above, this study explores the issues that influence consumer brand choice (brand switching or brand loyalty), in response to a disruptive social change in the form of housing or residential infrastructure. The essence of the study is to understand the factors motivating brand choice behaviour resulting from disruptive external ‘out-of-market’ or social conditions. This approach to brand choice is different from the mainstream marketing theory which frames brand choice as a process that involves a choice between two alternative and competitive brands (Peter et al., 2010), a choice between store brands and national brands (Beneke & Carter, 2015), a consumer brand choice in stable market conditions as in classical economics (Arnold, 2011), or a choice under ‘in-market’ disruptive conditions, such as the introduction of an innovative brand (Lam et al., 2012).

## **1.2. Research Problem**

The literature on consumer behaviour indicates that consumers use different brand cues in deciding on the kinds and quantities of brands to consume, and these cues constitute brand identity (Berger, Jonah & Ward, 2010). A consumer aligns the visible and invisible brand attributes with his/her personal identity, such that the final product brand choice is congruent with self and also satisfies social, emotion and physical needs of the consumer (Kang, Tang & Lee, 2015).

Lam, Ahearn, Blair, Hu and Keller (2010) used Consumer Brand Identity (CBI) as the conceptual vehicle to create an alignment between a brand and the self. The refined CBI framework by Lam et al., (2010) has its origins in the works of Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) who adapted literature on brand, customer and company identification to advance the Consumer-Company Identification (CCI) concept. There are other similar studies that have been conducted which supported the CCI concept, such as Ahearn, Bhattacharya, and Gruen (2005).

The insights and contributions of various authors as noted above have helped in explaining consumer choice behaviour from a company perspective, [the Consumer-Company Identification](#) (CCI), and also from a brand-personal perspective [the Consumer-Brand-Identification](#) (CBI). However, the problem that still exists is to understand consumer brand

choice dynamics during unstable market conditions involving social disruptions. The concept of ‘social disruption’ is defined in this research study as a radical external disruption to the normal working of the consumer market whereby consumers and brands freely interact. The external disruption is framed as a radical change in the type and place of dwelling or residence of respondents being studied. The disruption potentially causes a dislocation in the consumer-brand relationship motivating consumers to re-evaluate their brand consumption repertoires. This study recognises that previous studies on CBI focused on ‘in-market’ disruptions (Lam et al., 2012), but ignored ‘out-of-market’ or external market disruptions, and this study therefore attempts to contribute to the knowledge on consumer brand-choice following an external market disruption.

### **1.3. Research Aim and Objectives**

The aim of this study was to examine the impact of a disruptive social change on consumer toilet-care product brand choice, with specific reference to the households who had relocated from various types of formal and informal dwellings to Cosmo City. More specifically, the objectives were:

- a) To determine the impact of a change in the place and type of residential dwelling on brand choice behaviour;
- b) To assess critical factors influencing brand choice of toilet-care products;
- c) To determine the significance of social mobility on brand choice and brand switching behaviour;
- d) To determine the relationship between the changes in Living Standard Measures (LSM) profile and brand choice.

### **1.4. Research Question**

The framing of the research question was guided by insights from the literature review which alluded that consumers consider functional and non-functional brand attributes when making brand choice selection, (Pion, 2014; Park et al., 2010; MacInnis, Park, & Priester, 2009). The critical constructs that emerged from the review of literature on consumer brand choice were brand benefits, lifestyle change and social change. In light of the aforementioned, the primary question which emerges is: *How has a change in the household sanitation facilities of residents*

*motivated/influenced their brand choice behavior with specific reference to toilet-care products?*

#### **1.4.1. Secondary Questions**

- a) How has a change in the place (and type) of dwelling influenced toilet-care product brand switching in the South African market?
- b) How significant are the changes in the place (and type) of dwelling on toilet-care product *type* use?
- c) How have the changes in the place (and type) of dwelling influenced the use of different *forms* of toilet-care products?
- d) How significant have changes in the place (and type) of dwelling been in influencing the *quantity* of toilet-care products used?
- e) What are the critical factors that motivate brand choice behaviour in the toilet-care product market?
- f) Is there a relationship between a change in lifestyle and toilet-care product brand choice behaviour in the South African market?

#### **1.5. Research Hypotheses**

The research study constructed three hypotheses to address the research problem and examine the impact of an external disruptive (out-of market) force (social disruption) on toilet-care product brand choice behaviour.

**H1:** There is a positive relationship between consumers' perception of the current brand's benefits and brand switching behavior following a social disruption.

**H2:** There is a positive relationship between a change in the consumers' place and type of residential dwelling (social change), and their brand switching behavior.

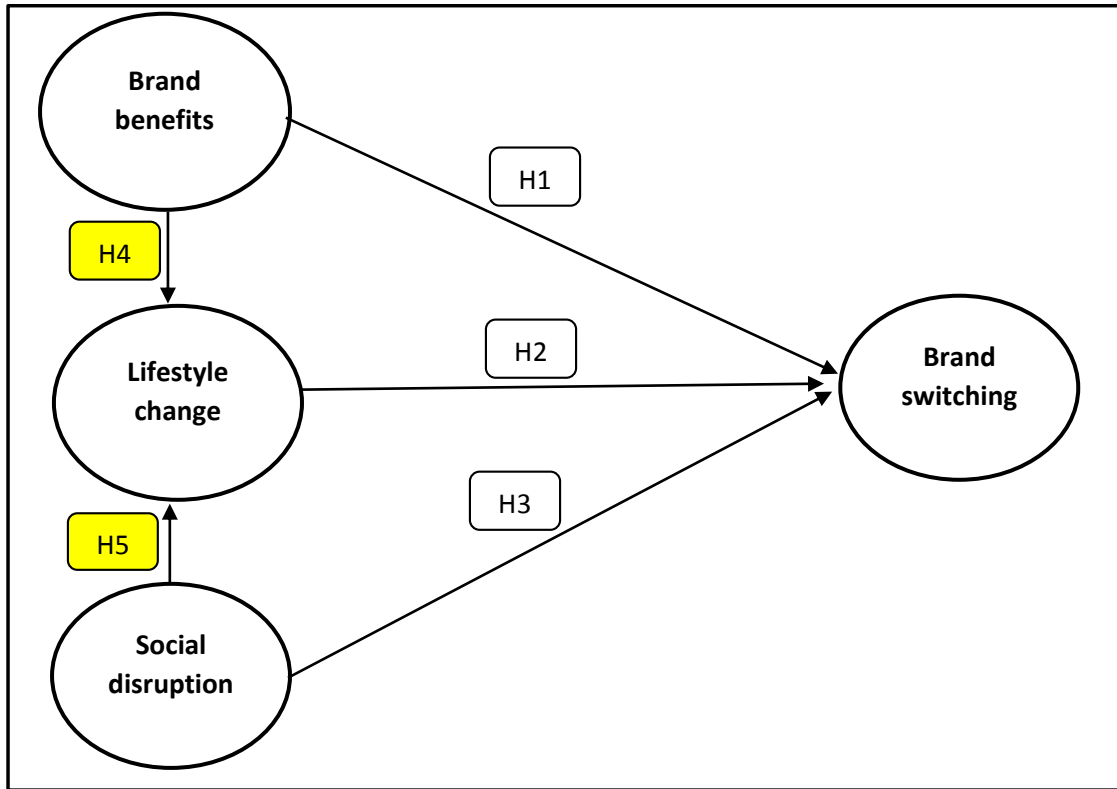
**H3:** There is a positive relationship between consumers' lifestyle and their brand switching behavior following a social disruption.

**H4:** There is a positive relationship between brand benefits and lifestyle change.

**H5:** There is a positive relationship between social disruption and lifestyle change

The five hypotheses are reflected in a conceptual research model depicted in Figure 1.1.

**Figure 1.1: Hypothesised Conceptual Model**



### 1.6. Significance of the Study

It is envisaged that this study will contribute to consumer behavior generally by understanding consumer brand choice under disruptive out-of-market conditions. More specifically, although the relative CBI model by Lam et al., (2010) is adopted as the premises of this research, a critical deviation from the CBI framework is made. In the case of the relative CBI model, the disruptive factor is the introduction of a radically new innovative brand. The current research study frames the disruption as a radical change in the type of residential home. The effect of this deviant assumption is summed as follows:



**Table 1.1: CBI Assumptive Differences**

Lam et al. (2012) (CBI)	Proposed modification
Disruption in the form of an <i>innovative brand</i> being introduced	Disruption is in the form of a <i>household physical dwelling infrastructure</i>
The disruption is an <i>internal or endogenous</i> factor of a normal market (demand and supply)	The disruption is <i>external/ exogenous</i> to the normal market

The deviations in Table 1.1 enable the study to explore brand choice dynamics involving brand switching/loyalty, perceived brand benefits, and lifestyle factors following a social disruption. The dynamically changing South African environment provides an ideal research context to examine these three constructs, because the changing socio-economic conditions have altered the consumer markets. The study context also influences decisions on the product category (toilet-care products) to be investigated so as to examine brand switching behaviour. The research into the South African consumer toilet-care product brand choice behaviour provides unique insights into the needs and wants of the previously disadvantaged sector of the population. It also offers incremental insights into the Relative CBI framework, and also allows for comparisons of research findings' impact on decision making of toilet-care products with other product categories, such as detergents or foods within the FMCG market.

From a practical perspective, the study aims to contribute insights on how a social change influences consumer-brand choice decisions, how lifestyle changes impact brand choice, and how marketing practitioners can incorporate these insights into brand marketing and positioning.

### **1.7. Research Design**

A quantitative research methodology was employed to collect data from respondents in Cosmo City. A quantitative approach is defined by Aaker, Kumar, Leone and Day (2013:145) as “a highly structured research approach that involves the quantification of concepts in order to do measurements and conduct evaluations.” This approach was chosen so as to be able to test the hypotheses using inferential statistics. A two-staged approach was used involving secondary

data collection from various publications, and primary data collection using a structured questionnaire.

The secondary data collection entailed an extensive review of the literature published in textbooks, relevant journals, trade magazines, and the Internet (Bush, 2013:26). The insights, conclusions and knowledge gained from these publications guided the study's structured review of brands, branding, brand choice, brand loyalty and switching, consumer-brand identification, and lifestyle brand choice. The literature review also covered findings on consumer brand identification and brand choice from an international and local perspective, so as to create a balanced and holistic picture of consumer behaviour with respect to toilet-care product choice and usage.

The primary data for the research study was collected from a sample of 385 household in Cosmo City, Johannesburg as statistically determined in Chapter 5. The sample size was calculated using standard sampling size techniques suggested by Churchill and Iacobucci (2010). The sample was stratified and the questionnaire was administered through structured interviews and self-administration in instances where the respondents chose this option.

Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 17.0. Factor analysis was conducted to determine the fundamental dimensions of the different consumer brand decision-making styles. The Pearson's correlations coefficients were calculated to examine the relationship between residential change and lifestyle variables. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was also conducted to appraise the differences between the group means, whilst the reliability of the research instrument was assessed by determining the Cronbach coefficient alpha.

### **1.8. Ethical Considerations**

The research process was informed and guided by the requirements specified in the Policy on Research Ethics of the University of KwaZulu-Natal., More specifically, issues of confidentiality, anonymity, right to privacy and voluntary participation were considered.

## 1.9. Study De-limitations

### 1.9.1. Geographical location

The study was limited to households in Cosmo City, Johannesburg, South Africa. Cosmo City households were segmented into three household typologies namely, RDP or freehold government subsidised houses (Extension 2, 4 and 6); the Low Income bonded houses (Extension 6, 8, 9 and 10), and the High Income bonded houses (Extension 3, 5 and 7) (Urban Dynamics 2010). Appendix 1a represents the profiles of the three research segments used in the study.

### 1.9.2. Product Selection

Private and manufacturer toilet-care product brands reflected in Figure 1.2 were selected for this study. These product brands are a sample of the many different brand names that are readily available in the retail store channel. The study recognises and uses the toilet-care product category classification which is commonly used by all leading retailers in SA, such as Pick and Pay (PnP), Shoprite-Checkers, Spar, Massmart and also by leading research houses such as MarketLine and Euromonitor. The classification breaks toilet-care products into three sub-categories, namely liquids, In-The-Cistern (ITCs) and In-The- Bowl (ITBs).

**Figure 1.2: Toilet-Care Product Brand Profile**



Source: MarketLine (2015)

### **1.9.3. Interpretation of the Questionnaire**

The structured questionnaire and the interviews were in English and IsiZulu. The questionnaire was translated into IsiZulu to assist some of the respondents, especially those in the RDP sections who were not conversant in English.

### **1.9.4. Other Delimitations**

The study investigated “in-home” household consumer product choice behaviour, and excluded “point of sale or point of purchase consumer brand choices. The research also excluded investigations into channel behaviour and how it affects consumer choice, since the primary objective was on ‘in-home consumer’ toilet-care product brand choice behaviour.

## **1.10. Structure of Study**

The thesis consists of eight chapters. **Chapter One** presents an overview of the research, and highlights its relevance and importance. The Chapter also provides the research background, purpose, research design, ethical considerations and delimitations.

**Chapter Two** presents a detailed two-pronged discussion of the South African toilet-care product market and the development of the housing market. The main aim of this review is to present critical and relevant developments in both markets, pull together interrelated trends that expose how social changes in the housing market can be related to toilet-care product consumption trends. The review will also assist in contextualising the research since the main objective of the research is to investigate the relationship between changes in the place of dwelling (residence) and toilet-care product brand consumption behaviour.

**Chapter Three** deals with a review of the most relevant literature on consumer behaviour in relation to consumer choice, brands and branding. The objective of this chapter is to evaluate the different meanings of the concepts of brand, evolution of the brand concept; the relationship of brand and consumer behaviour of loyalty /switching and decision making. In addition, different models of consumer behaviour from the fields of economics, sociology and psychology are briefly discussed in relation to consumer decision making, with the intention of bringing into perspective the relationship between brand consumption and motivating behavioural choice. Finally, the chapter provides a critique of the reviewed consumer decision

making models and then provides a methodological framework that guides this study in the form of consumer brand identity (CBI).

**Chapter Four** focuses on the conceptual framework that guides and directs this research. The chapter reviews the Customer-brand-identification (CBI) framework and its application to the current study. The objective of this chapter is to differentiate the motivating ‘out-of-market’ disruptive factor from the traditional ‘in-market’ disruptive factors, and then evaluate the impact on brand choice.

In **Chapter Five**, the research design is explained from a theoretical perspective and the research paradigm which informed the research design is also discussed. Detailed insights on how, when, and where the data was collected is discussed, with the objective of presenting a structured approach to data collection and processing. The research questionnaire that is used is explained in detail and contextualised in relation to the study’s objectives.

**Chapter Six** is dedicated to presentation of the research findings by analysing the data from the survey by subjecting it to various statistical analysis. The data analysis section examined, categorised, and presented results using the most appropriate formats such as table and charts (Bush 2013). The essence of the chapter is to pull together all the analysis of the researched data into a meaningful presentation.

**Chapter Seven** deals with analysing the findings, which entails comparing the empirical results with other relevant studies internationally, regionally or locally.

**Chapter Eight** deals with discussions of the findings, conclusions and recommendations. The overall findings with respect to the research objectives are discussed and presented with recommendations for academic, practical applicability and future research.

### **1.11. Conclusion**

This introductory chapter presented the context, background and objectives of the study so as to provide insights and also highlight some of the key areas of this study. The chapter also provided an overview of the scope of the research, whilst placing into context the conceptual

framework that is used in the research. This background information provides a platform for Chapter two which deals with the literature relevant to this study.

## CHAPTER TWO

### SOUTH AFRICAN TOILET-CARE PRODUCT MARKET OVERVIEW

#### 2. Introduction

The chapter presents an overview of the South African toilet-care product market and housing sector developments in the context of the objectives of the study. The chapter highlights the changes in the toilet-care product brand performance over the past five years, stressing the role that toilet-care plays in the lives of the citizens and the economy of South Africa. The review is complemented by an overview of government legislative changes that enabled the provision of housing with proper sanitary facilities to the majority of South Africans. A convergence point of this two pronged approach is presented, with the aim of aligning the South African toilet-care and housing market overview with the research study's objectives.

#### 2.1. Household Product Market Overview

The South African Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) Home-care product market is divided into ten product brand categories, and the study focuses on the toilet-care product brand category which is part of the Household Products market (MarketLine, 2014a). The Household Products market is defined by MarketLine (2015) as a market consisting of retail sales from ten product categories, as presented in Table 2.1. The Household product market is valued using retail selling prices (RSPs) excluding value added tax (VAT) and other taxes. The ten categories that constitute the Home-care product market are defined according to how the product is used in maintaining and improving the household's basic needs. All other products that are used outside the house such as pest control products are excluded from the Homecare product market category.

Table 2.1 indicates that the South African Home-care market's Rand value is R12 369.8m as of 2014, which equates to a 23.6% increase from 2009 (MarketLine, 2014a). The market growth was a result of organic market growth and the introduction of global brands like Vanish, Ariel, complemented by a proliferation of retail store brands (MarketLine, 2014a) The Home-care product retail sales revenue growth from 2009 to 2014 represents a Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) of 4.8%, and this performance compares favourably with the European and Asia-Pacific markets whose CAGR grew by 2.2% and 5% respectively, over the same period (MarketLine, 2014a). The MarketLine report further projects that by 2018, the South

African Home Care product market is forecasted to be valued at R1 546.5 million, an increase of 25.5% since 2014.

**Table 2.1: South African Home care Category Market Values: 2009-2013**

Category	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Overall Growth	CAGR (2009-2014)
Textile washing products	3636,3	3757,7	3885,9	4011,1	4134,7	4261,8	17%	3%
Paper	2629,2	2869,2	3113,7	3375,8	3672,5	3986,5	52%	9%
Insecticides	710,8	734,3	759,9	784,5	809	834,5	17%	3%
General purpose cleaners	587,5	606,8	627,5	647,7	667,8	688,6	17%	3%
Bleach	509	525,2	542	558,4	574,8	591,4	16%	3%
Scouring products	482,5	497,9	513,9	529,5	545	560,7	16%	3%
Dishwashing products	425,9	438,9	451,1	463,6	475,8	487,7	15%	3%
Air fresheners	335	345,7	357,1	368,1	379	390,2	16%	3%
<b>Toilet care</b>	<b>285,9</b>	<b>295,2</b>	<b>304,6</b>	<b>314</b>	<b>323,2</b>	<b>332,4</b>	<b>16%</b>	<b>3%</b>
Furniture & Floor Polish	194,2	202,1	210,7	219	227,3	236	22%	4%
Total Market value (Rm)	9796,3	10273	10766,4	11271,7	11809,1	12369,8		

Source: MarketLine 2015a

## 2.2. An Overview of Toilet-care Products

Table 2.1 indicates that the toilet-care category has a market value of R332.4m as of 2014 and this value equates to a 16% sales value growth and a 3% CAGR since 2009 (MarketLine, 2014a). The 16% overall performance is in line with other Home-care product categories' performance which underlines the importance of the category in the economy and Home-care market.

### 2.2.1. Toilet-care Product Segment Analysis

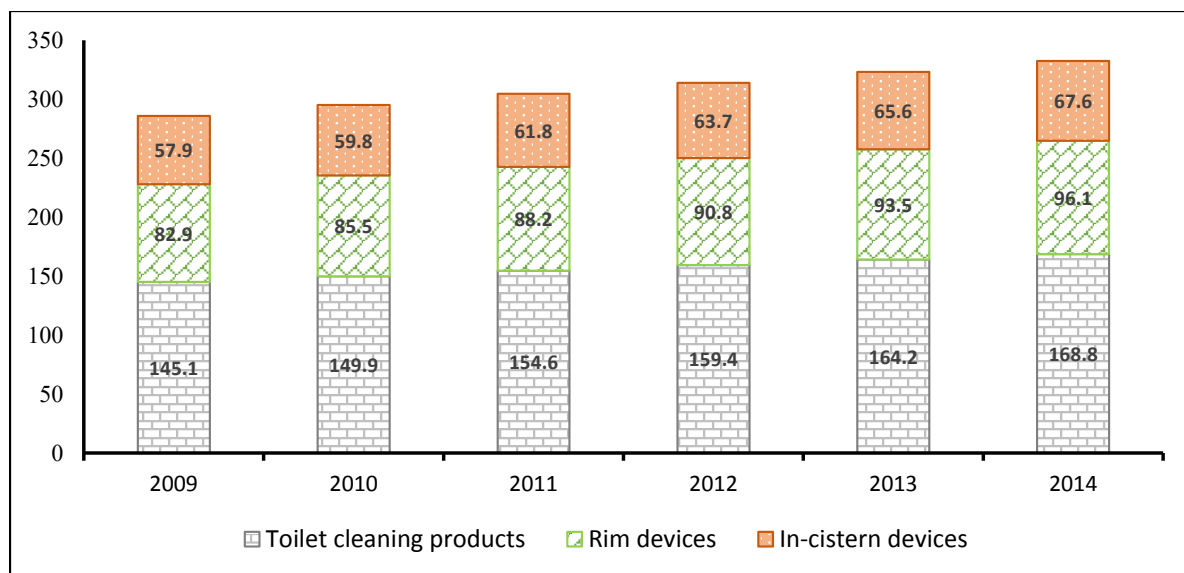
This study recognises the critical role of availing various toilet-care products to consumers at competitive prices, formats and distribution points. The South African toilet-care product market in-line with the rest of the FMCG market, offers different product formats to various



distribution channels so as to meet the different consumer’s needs. The products format as defined by retailers, suppliers and research houses are classified into three segments as in Appendix 2a, namely, liquids, In-The-Cistern blocks (ITC), and In-The-Bowl ring blocks (ITB) (MarketLine, 2014a). The liquids segment products are used to ‘deep clean’ the chamber to remove scale, grime and stains whilst ITC and ITB products are used mainly to refresh and maintain the toilet chamber’s ambiance.

Figure 2.1 presents an overview of the market value of the three toilet-care product segments which amounted to 16.3% retail sales growth with contributions of 16% in liquids segment, 17% in ITBs, and 17% in ITCs (MarketLine, 2015). This total category growth is equivalent to a 3% CAGR over a five year period from 2009-2014. In volume or unit terms, the three segments (liquids, ITCs and ITBs) realized a growth of 13%, 11% and 11% respectively over the same period. The unit or volume CAGR was 2% for the period 2009-2014, indicating that the category is a value creating because the growth of 3% CAGR is greater than the 2% volume CAGR, for period 2009 -2014 (MarketLine, 2015).

**Figure 2.1: Toilet-care Segment Market Values (Rm):2009-2014**



Source: MarketLine (2015)

It is important to note that the toilet-care product market in South Africa is very healthy, comprising of highly competitive local and international brands (Recket Benkisser, 2014; Tiger

Brands, 2014). The intense competition in the category has ensured that the category does not lag behind other categories in the market.

### **2.2.2. Toilet-care Product Distribution**

The two leading South African retail product research houses, that is, Niensens South Africa and MarketLine, use specific distribution channels to collect product brand data of various Home-care product brands. The standard formal distribution channels that are analysed include supermarkets/hypermarkets, independent retailers, wholesalers, convenience stores and others (MarketLine 2015). Appendix 2b presents the share value of each distribution channel's contribution to Home-care products. The bulk (67%) of Home-care products is distributed through supermarket and hypermarkets, followed by independent retailers (23.5%) and wholesalers at 2.9% (informal national wholesalers are excluded), convenience stores (2.6%) then lastly others at 1.5%. The 'other' category includes all small corner cafe stores, independent township stores, and independent wholesalers.

This research ignores product brand purchases at point of sales, since these are closely related to specific retailer channels or stores. However, the research recognize the role of distribution channels in influencing consumer buyer behavior (Beneke et al., 2015), which may lead to product brand loyalty or switching (Kaze & Skapears 2011; Keller, Aperia, & Georgson, 2012). In this regard, this research highlights the channels of distribution as a means to an end, that is, to identify the private brands and their original stores. This study uses some structured questions to link and cross reference channel products in the case or private or store brands with consumer brand choice. A detailed review in this regard is presented in Chapter 3.

### **2.3. Manufacturer and Private Label Brands Dichotomy**

This study assumed that toilet-care product brands belong to three broad classes namely, manufacturer, private label brands and informal brands, in order to reduce the degree of complexity in brand options available in the market to consumers, and also to simplify the study within the constraints of budget and time.

Private label brands (PLBs), also referred to” as own brands or store brands are brands which are “owned and controlled by a particular retailer and are sold solely within their retail chains,”

(Beneke et al., 2015:42). These are product brands that in most cases carry the store or retailer name, and are confined to an individual retailer distribution channel. In the context of this study, these include brands like Spar Toilet cleaner for the Spar stores, PnP Green and PnP No-Name for the Pick n Pay stores, Checkers for the Checker stores and Rite Brand for Shoprite stores. The brands are not found in other retailer channels, unlike manufacturer brands that are found in multiple distribution channels. Appendix 2c presents a visual overview of private label brands by retailer name that were considered in the research study.

Manufacturer brands which can be described as manufacturer brands or national brands because they are brands that are manufactured by national companies and have a wide distribution being available at many different retailers nationally. These brands are not limited to a specific retailer, have a massive brand promotion budgets and are managed more strategically than private brands. In the context of this research, manufacturer brands include Domestos Toilet-care brand, Jeyes, Home Guard, and Toilet Duck. Appendix 2d presents a visual overview of manufacturer brands by manufacturer name that were considered in the research study.

Table 2.2 provides a summary of the differences between manufacturer brands and private labels.

**Table 2.2: Brands versus PLs – Identification of Main Differences**

<b>Attribute</b>	<b>Manufacturer Brands</b>	<b>Private Labels</b>
Brand failure resolutions	Manufacturers resolve all brand issues	retailers resolve all brand issues
Distinctiveness and copy-cat proof	Protected by trade marks	Unprotected and generic
Brand uniqueness	Focused and differentiated eg. Domestos Toilet cleaner	Unfocused and over extended to many different categories e.g. PnP No Name
Research and Development investment	Extensive	Limited
Time frame	Long term/sustainable	Retailer dependent
Brand Promotions	Extensive and frequent focusing on the brand	limited and generic as it covers store brand name
Supply	Nationally available to all stores	Limited to retailer stores
Pricing strategy	Premium	Everyday Low Pricing (EDLP)
Consumer loyalty	Very loyal consumers	Dependent on store and product type ranging from low to high
Coordination and info sharing between buyer / seller	Medium	High

**Source:** Adapted from the various definitions of brands and private label brands

The growth of private label brands has been investigated by many researchers and the explicit deduction from various researches is a portrayal of a hostile relationship between private and manufacturer brands (Chimundu, McNeill, & Hamlin, 2015; Steenkamp & Geyskens, 2013). Private brands are viewed as direct competitors to manufacturer brands in a win or lose situation. These conclusions are also supported by Nenycz-Thiel and Romainiuk, (2011) who researched the competition and brand image features between store and manufacturer brands. The private brands are viewed as brands which are consumed at the exclusion of manufacturer brands. In other words most researchers view the private-manufacturer brand relationship as being non-complementary (Gooner & Nadler, 2012). The reasons that have been proposed for

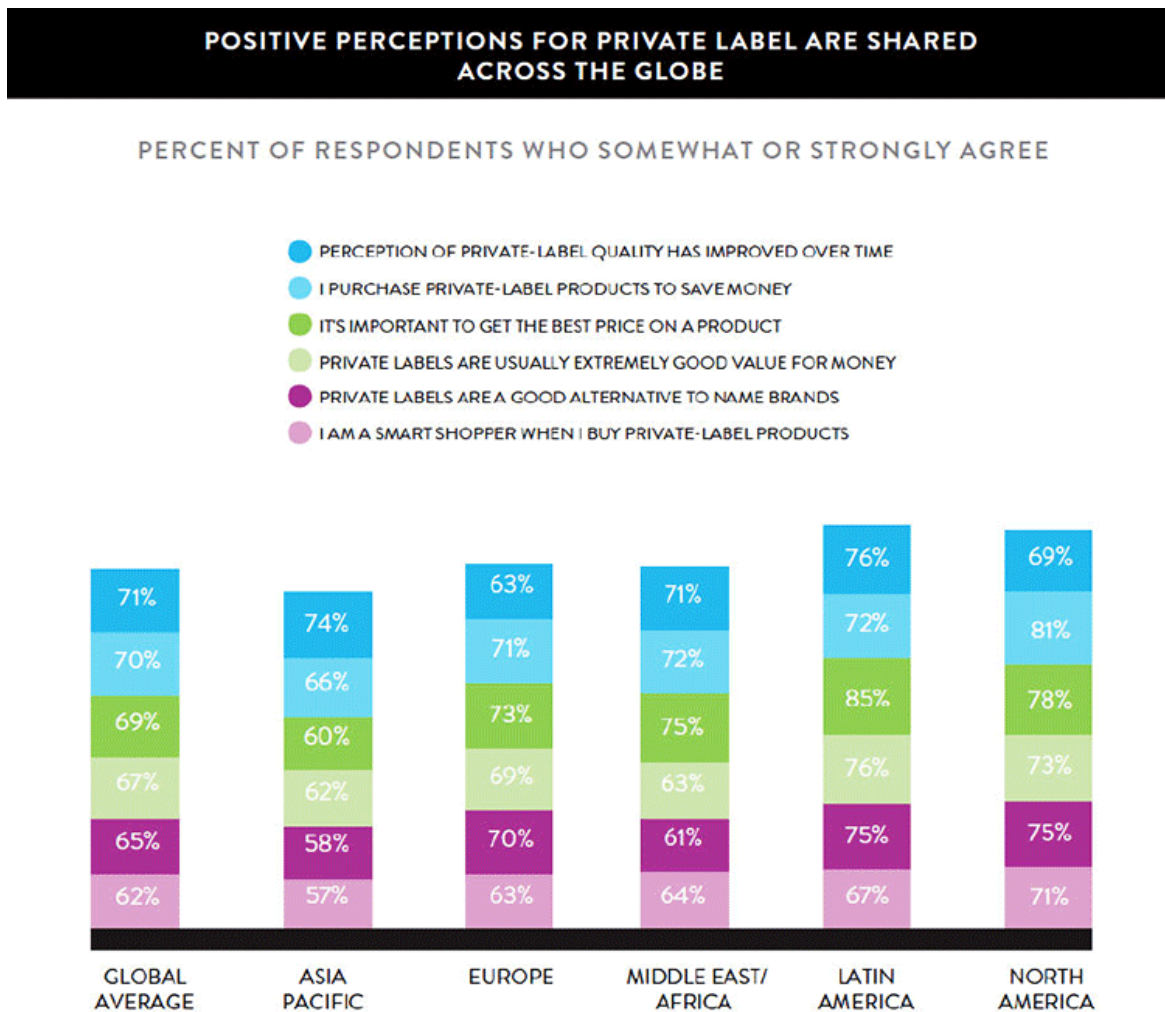
such conclusions are that retailers have increased their power to control retail operations, optimised economies of scale in production and distribution and also concentrated their store outlets. The net result of these developments has been the growth in very powerful store brands that have directly competed with manufacturer brands both for shelf space and consumer share of mind (Chimundu, et al., 2015). However, other researchers have found contradictory results to the aforementioned, and concluded that private labels and manufacturer brands can coexist, and with an “equilibrium level between manufacturer and retailer brands in the categories taking into account the level of innovation required to support the categories.”

#### **2.4.Growth of Private Label Brands**

The literature reveals that private or store brands have grown rapidly in that last couple of decades to become a real competitive alternative to manufacturer brands in the market. Studies on the growth of private label brands compared to manufacturer brands indicate that in the UK, private labels sales grew faster than all national labels over the period 2002-2013, delivering a Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) of 3.5% (MarketLine, 2014b). Retailer brands in Europe are estimated to “have achieved at least a 40% market share in five countries”, and in countries such as the UK and Switzerland, private labels account for one of every two products sold (MarketLine, 2014b:8).

Private labels have grown extremely well across the world due to the increased positive perception on their offerings as indicated by Figure 2.3

**Figure 2.3 Perceptions of Private Label Brand**



Source: Nielsen, 2014

In South Africa, the growth of private labels has been rather muted when compared to Europe or Australia, because ‘South African consumers have traditionally been very brand loyal’ (Euromonitor, 2015a:4). However, the current and future growth prospects of private labels is changing with positive signs of increasing adoption by South African consumers as they gradually accept that private label brand product offer similar product quality and performance usually associated with manufacturer branded products, at more competitive prices (Euromonitor, 2015b). The two major reasons for this development, is that many South African consumers are increasingly willing to experiment with different and new products and brands, including private label and this growth is coming mostly from commoditised products and categories, where brand loyalty is not such a strong driver of consumer choice.

The progression of private label brands has been across all product categories; however the growth has been different depending on category type and type of retailer. Private brands are prevalent in almost all product categories (Beneke, 2010), with the food categories performing much better than all others. Private labels have been advantageous to retailers, not only because they offer a chance to widen retailer product range and attract consumers to the store, but also because they produced higher margins, therefore greater profitability than branded products, and involved little or no marketing effort (Euromonitor, 2015b).

The literature on the growth of private label brands indicates that these brands have evolved over the decades. Chimundu et al., (2015) cite Laaksonen (1994) who detailed the evolution of private label brands by categorising the evolution into four generations. The first generation of store brands are generic in nature without a name, using basic production techniques and are suffer from lower quality and image when compared to similar manufacturer brands. The second-generation of store brands are characterised by average quality which lags behind the quality of leading manufacturer brands. The third-generation store brands have a product quality that is competitive to that of competitive manufacturer brands and share outstanding technological and innovative capabilities with manufacturer brands. The fourth generation of store brands are usually copy cats of leading manufacturer brands being very of comparable or improved quality than competitive manufacturer brands.

There are several factors reasons that have supported the rapid growth of private labels and these will be discussed briefly.

#### **2.4.1. Competitive Pricing Policies**

The history of private labels is intricately woven with the view that private labels are cheaper than similar competitive manufacturer labels (Martos-Partal & Gonzalez-Benito, 2011). This perception is borne from the comparison of private labels with manufacturer brands where the former has always been at a discount price, sometimes 30% cheaper (MarketLine, 2014b). The other driving force for brand switching between store brands and manufacturer brands has been the absolute price differential between the two (Porrral & Levy-Mangin, 2015). Private label brands support their brand offerings through competitively cheaper prices which appeals mostly to price sensitive consumers. Retailers tend to capitalise on these consumers by offering

some of their products at discounted prices through the everyday low price (EDLP) strategy (Kumar & Steenkamp, 2007). Consumers benefit from these brands through competitive lower prices as the store brands have lower manufacturing costs, inexpensive brand packaging, reduced advertising costs, and lower overhead costs (Ailawadi, Pauwels, and Steenkamp, 2008). The ability of retail stores to heavily discount and drive sales volume on private labels is one common motivation for retailers to offer private labels to provide saving to consumers and build store loyalty (Liu & Wang, 2008).

#### **2.4.2. Competitive Product Quality Offering**

In the past, private labels have been viewed as having poor qualities compared to manufacturer brands (Beneke, Brito and Garvey, 2014). However, private labels have evolved over the years and caught up with manufacturer brands in many technical and non-technical attributes. Porral, et al., (2015) suggests that private labels have migrated from offering consumers inferior-quality alternatives at low prices, to offering competitive products that rivalry leading manufacturer brands. Private brand suppliers have collaborated with manufacturer brand suppliers in co-production as a strategic move to improve the brand quality and credibility with consumers (Sethuraman, 2009). The collaboration between private brands and manufacturer brands can be beyond the actual factory production to include co-branding or dual branding (Kumar et al., 2007). The choice by suppliers of manufacturer brands to co-produce private label brands is motivated by a number of considerations that include; the ease of producing high quality products (Braak et al., 2013); utilising excess production capacity, inability to compete with low end private label brands. The option of co-production can take two forms, namely, of exclusivity, whereby the manufacturer brand agrees to exclusively produce the private label brand not any other brand that can compete with it. The other approach is where the manufacturer brand supplier produces both the private label brand and its own brands that may be competitively the same as the private label (Kumar et al., 2007). In cases when it is relatively easy for retail stores to match their private label brand's quality, manufacturer brand suppliers tend to be more open to engage in a in co-production, because of the limited benefits which can be achieved from not co-producing (Kumar et al., 2007). Consumer perceived quality is a significant determinant in the success or failure of store brands and it has been found that it has a considerable influence on consumer buying intention (Bao, Bao & Sheng, 2011; Kumar & Steenkamp, 2007). The heavy investment in private label product development



has resulted in the narrowing of the relative quality and price differentiation between private label and national brand, leading to the rapid growth in their adoption as consumers switch brands. As a result, consumer attitudes towards private label brands have improved, leading to their rapid sales growth and market penetration (Sloan, 2015).

Beneke et al., (2015) points out that traditionally private store brands were viewed as brands bought by lower income, price conscious individuals; however, this perception is rapidly changing due to the increased product- quality-price offering of private label brands. Private brands have been able to segment the consumer market and offer differentiated products that can satisfy a whole range of price and quality sensitive consumers (Kumar et al., 2007). Private labels have become extremely competitive resulting in a price differential of up to 30% less expensive as witnessed in the five leading European countries and a 4% product line increase (Nielsen, 2014).

### **2.4.3. Product Differentiation**

In the South African toilet care product category, private label brands are delivering the similar quality as manufacturer brands but offered at a discount (MarketLine, 2014b). Many retailers have increased their product brand portfolio of store brands to include multiple value propositions, intended to satisfy discrete quality and price expectations of different consumers who usually compare private brands with manufacturer brands (Kumar et al., 2007). For example, the PnP Green label product range is an extremely sophisticated bio-degradable toilet-care product brand that uses live bacteria to clean toilets, compared to the harsh chemicals of the Domestos range.

Product differentiation in private labels has mimicked the manufacturer brand strategy where products are developed, positioned and sold in the market using sophisticated psychographic segmentation approaches (Catalin & Andreea, 2013). It is common to find private label offerings ranging from low cheap brands to premium private label brands within the same product brand. For example, PnP stores offer a ladderred PnP Private label brand with, the PnP Choice brand for price conscious consumers, PnP No Name brands, for value seeking consumers, and PnP Organic or Premium brand range for high product quality seeking

consumers (PnP, 2015). This approach has resulted in more consumers switching to private label brands as their needs are adequately catered for through a differentiated product approach.

European retailers have advanced in the ability to offer highly differentiated private labels for their consumers. Asda supermarket which is a wholly owned subsidiary of Walmart stocks mainly private label brands under its 'Asda' brand name. It has entrenched its multi-tier value proposition by differentiating its offerings through 'Chosen by You', 'Extra special' which is a premium brand range; 'Smart prices' for consumers that are shopping on a tight budget (MarketLine, 2014c:9). Tesco offers a differentiated offering of 'Finest' and 'Everyday Value'.

#### **2.4.4. Improved Product Value Offering**

The concept of 'product value' denotes an interchange between the benefits and costs that are derived from an activity or from consuming a brand (Thomas & Maurice, 2011). Kumar et al., (2007) note that there are three ways through which private label brands develop competitive value offerings and these are, copycat or mimic manufacturer brand value offerings, price mirroring of manufacturer brands and lastly continuously innovate in line with manufacturer brands trying to keep up with new quality and innovation proposals.

The economic value proposition is underpinned by the economic utility theory proposition which emphasises that product value is the interchange between total brand benefits attached to a product and the associated costs that are incurred in acquiring and consuming the brand (Ding, Ross & Rao, 2010; Chang & Wang, 2011; Beneke et al., 2015). Chang and Wang (2011:254) further assert that "a product's perceived value is a reflection of what the consumer stands to gain from their purchase, thus influencing consumer preference." Consumers are portrayed as choosing brands that offer them the greatest brand value from a competitive set. The benefits and costs trade off included both financial and non-financial consideration in brand choice. The perceived product value of private brands has over the years been investigated and the results indicate that there has been a steady increase in the competitive value offering, which at times matches that of manufacturer brands (Beneke et al., 2014; Walsh & Mitchell, 2010).

#### **2.4.5. Economies of Scale**

The advance of private labels has also been spurred by the increased economies of scale in the production and distribution systems of retail stores (Braak, Deleersnyder, Geyskens & Dekimpe, 2013). Economies of scale amount to the reduction in the long run of average production costs and marginal costs due to an increase in production output (Thomas & Maurice, 2011). Many retailers have expanded their store footprint, which means that there are more distribution points which increase product availability to consumers. Consequently, retailers have increased their capacity to produce and supply a wide range of their private labels to meet the consumer demand from the increased numbers of distribution points. The economies of scale and brand equity of large grocery retailers makes them well suited to the development and distribution of private labels. Hence, markets are experiencing higher private label product distribution and penetration especially with the supermarkets/hypermarkets distribution points (Euromonitor, 2014c).

Partnerships between retailers and leading producers of manufacturer brands have become common, as retailers attempt to reduce costs or add credibility to private labels, and these includes co-manufacturing or character licensing agreements and the use of celebrities to help endorse and promote products. In some cases manufacturer brand suppliers have struggled to compete and beat private brands leading them to co-produce private brands (Braak, et al., 2013). These developments have increased the propensity for brand switching among consumers, as product brand alternatives have become more available and more accessible than ever before.

#### **2.5. Brand Switching between Private and Manufacturer Brands**

The evolving consumer propensity to buy brands, or undertake inter or intra brand switching between private label brands and manufacturer brands becomes complicated when appraised within various economic cycles (MarketLine, 2014b). Porral et al., (2015:103) suggest that “the price-quality perceptions become more pronounced during economic down turn where consumers tend to switch more to private labels.” However, Walsh et al., (2010) argue that this view is weak and non-symmetrical. The aforementioned scholars argue that it not necessarily true that the sales of manufacture brands decline whilst those of private labels increase during times of economic recession. The thrust of their argument is that during economic recession

there greater elasticity for switching to private labels during an economic recession than the reverse elasticity switching when the economic downturn stops and the economy swings upwards. However, results from MarketLine (2014b) using FMCG data analysis of periods of recession during 1987, 2012 and 2013, to conclude that an economic recession triggers price consciousness among consumers and they are less likely to spend on branded food products.

## **2.6. Housing Development in South Africa – An Overview**

### **2.6.1. Background to the National Housing Policy**

The history to South Africa's housing challenges can be traced back to the pre-democracy period of 1994, where the then government used apartheid laws to racially segregate people and residential areas. The new democratic government introduced a number of legislations to redress this imbalance and these were anchored in the new South African Constitution. The government introduced a White Paper on Housing which was followed the National Housing Accord, in December 1994, specifying the structure of the new governmental housing policy (National Department of Housing, 2000). All policy programmes and guidelines that followed fell within the framework set out in the White Paper (DoHS, 2009a). Other significant policy frameworks which guided the housing policy included the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), The Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR), the Urban and Rural Development Frameworks, and lastly, White Papers and policy frameworks pertaining to local governments and the Public Service (DoHS, 2009a).

The first 10 years of housing delivery interventions were successful in setting up the legislative and policy framework for the delivery of housing to redress the housing backlog from the apartheid period. The national government approved the Breaking New Ground in 2004 (BNG) which was a comprehensive plan for the development of sustainable human settlements (DoHS, 2014b). The Comprehensive Plan was aimed at resolving delivery constraints in the construction of houses, curb corruption and maladministration in the public sector housing provision.

The democratic government in South Africa instituted targeted housing reforms through various pieces of legislation to address the discriminatory effects of the apartheid housing

schemes. In 1995, the government introduced a Linked Subsidy Project aimed at providing housing access to previously disadvantaged people (DoHS, 2014c).

In 1997, the government introduced a White Paper on Human Settlement (DoHS, 1997) that defined and specified various income bands of people who qualified for the housing subsidy. A housing subsidy was articulated as financial support given to qualifying households to help them access and acquire decent houses with running water and flushing toilets (DoHS, 2014a).

The Housing Act of 1997 promulgated and stretched the specifications that were set out in the 1994 White Paper on Housing. The Housing Act (1997:4) revealed the future housing vision for South African housing which stated that “the establishment and maintenance of habitable, stable and sustainable public and private residential environments to ensure viable households and communities in areas allowing convenient access to economic opportunities, and to health, educational and social amenities in which all citizens and permanent residents of the Republic, will, on a progressive basis, have access to permanent residential structures with secure tenure, ensuring internal and external privacy and providing adequate protection against the elements, and potable water, adequate sanitary facilities and domestic energy supply”.

The core ethos of this vision was to provide decent accommodation especially for the previously disadvantaged or marginalised black population of South Africa. A decent accommodation would have basic sanitation, piped water and a permanent brick structure (DoHS, 2014). The 20 Year Review by the Presidency on the progress of housing delivery in South Africa indicates that over the last 20 years nearly “12.5 million people were provided access to accommodation and a fixed asset, about 56% of all subsidies were allocated to woman headed households and that the post-1994 Government Housing Programme constitutes about 24% of the total formal housing stock in the country” (SA Habitat, 2015:4).

In 1999, the South African government through the National Department of Human Settlement (DoHS, 2009) introduced the Integrated Residential Development Program (IRDP) which was informed by a vision of a post-1994 government which sought to restore, redistribute and reconstruct justice through human settlements or housing (DoHS, 2009). The IRDP superseded all the previous Linked Subsidy Program, which had been in existence since 1995. The IRDP

aimed to provide for the planning and development of integrated housing projects which would accommodate mixed housing units, work opportunities, leisure and entertainment facilities in one spatial area (DoHS, 2014a). The IRDP also removed the segregation and separation of people through the provision of housing facilities as was previously done by the apartheid government.

The 2012 policy interventions were designed to widen the ability of the government to offer housing and better living conditions to the majority of South Africans in line with the objectives of IRDP documented in the Millennium Development Goal (MDG -outcome number 7) which states that the South African government intends to develop durable human settlements, and better quality of life for all households. (SA Habitat, 2015. The MDG aimed to reduce the number of houses without access to water and proper sanitation through Goal 7 (Target 7C) which targeted to half by 2015 the share of people living without sustainable access to clean, safe drinking water and proper basic sanitation. This goal is complemented by the MDG Goal 7 (Target 7D) which proposed to realize substantial enhancement of lives of people living in the informal settlements.

The progressive developments in housing infrastructure developments, from the initial 1994 Act, to the 2012 Amendment and the Millennium Development Goals, resulted in the creation of more than seven integrated housing schemes around the country with over 2 million housing units being built (DoHS 2014a) These multi-million housing developments include Cornubia in Durban, Walmer in Port Elizabeth, Joe Slovo Cape Town, Lerato Park in Kimberley, Phomolong in Hennenman, Klarinet in Emalahleni, Rebuile in Groot Marico, Cosmo City in Johannesburg and Ga-Rena Rental Village in Polokwane (DoHS, 2014a).

### **2.6.2. Financial Support**

The government has over the last 20 years progressively increased the amount and type of schemes that provide financial support to individuals and households buying houses. The government created the Housing Development Finance Institutions, Rural Housing Loan Fund, National Home Builders Registration Council and National Urban Reconstruction Housing Agency) to facilitate access to housing finance to the low-income group across the country (DoHS, 2012).The financial support package comprised of three programmes which were the

Housing Subsidy Scheme the Discount Benefit Scheme) and the Public Sector Hostels Redevelopment Programme. The Housing Subsidy Scheme was effected in March of 1994 replacing all other subsidy programmes that the government had enacted the scheme granted a subsidy to households earning between R1 - R3 500 per month, so as to enable them to acquire secure housing tenure, and basic services.

The low income earners who qualified for the HSS housing subsidy were supposed to fulfil the following criteria: “their household income should not be more than R3 500 per month; they should be South African citizen or permanent residents; they should be legally competent to contract (i.e. over the age of 21 and of sound mind); be married or cohabitating; be single and have dependants; be acquiring a home for the first time and lastly, they have not received a housing subsidy previously” (South African Institute of Race Relations 2012:634).

The Government established Finance Linked Individual Subsidy Programme (FLISP) to address the subsidy requirements for individuals who belonged to the affordable housing market and earning between R3 501 and R15 000 per month. The subsidy value for this category of beneficiaries ranged from R10 000 to R87 000 depending on specific qualification criteria of the scheme (DoHS, 2012). The various subsidy interventions resulted in the government and private sector constructing and availing 5 677 614 formal housing units, whilst the market value of houses increased from R321 billion in 1994 to R4, 036 trillion in 2014 (DoHS, 2014a).

### **2.6.3. Housing Unit Delivery**

The government introduced the Upgrading of Informal Settlements Programme (UISP) instrument which was targeted at improving the informal settlements standards of housing and sanitation (DoHS, 2014c). The program recognised the importance of an integrated approach to the development of sustainable human settlements as this would eradicate the racial and discriminatory policies of pre-1994 (DoHS, 2014a). The objective of the policy was to improve the quality of life and access to health sanitary conditions for people living in informal settlements.

The government focused on building low cost houses, commonly known as the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) houses. The minimum size of the RDP permanent residential structures was 40 square metres of gross floor area and was to be provided through a subsidy. The housing unit would consist of “two bedrooms; a separate bathroom with a toilet, a shower and hand basin; a combined living area and kitchen with wash basin; and a ready board electrical installation where electricity supply in the township is available” (DoHS, 2014a).

The net result of this policy supported by the subsidy program has resulted in nearly 3 700 000 houses being built for poor and low-income households since 1994, allowing 12.5 million people to access accommodation (DoHS, 2014a). The government invested R125 billion on the development and upgrading of human settlements across the country through direct intervention where it would build house for free through the freehold policy and indirectly through subsidy provision. There has been over R16 billion spent on infrastructure projects to support the new human settlements (DoHS, 2014a).

The government subsidy to low income households has resulted in 15.3% of South African households receiving state-subsidised dwellings with (17.9%) being female-headed compared to 13.5% that are male-headed households (Statistics South Africa, 2014:13). The impact of the subsidies to low income households has been the construction of “over 3.7 million subsidised housing opportunities to very poor households since 1994” (DoHS, 2014a). The post 1994 housing programmes and interventions have been highly significant resulting in massive delivery of formal housing units as detailed in Table 2.3.



**Table 2.3: Formal Housing Units Delivery 1994- 2014**

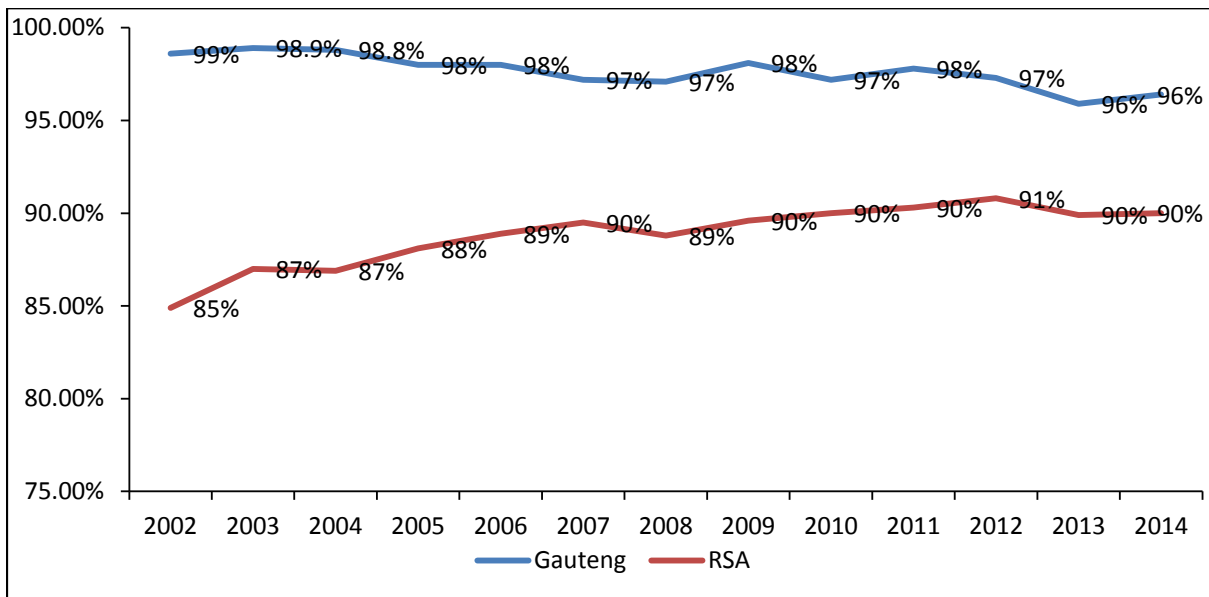
Year	Serviced sites completed	Houses/Units completed	Total housing opportunities
1994/95	-	60,820	60,820
1995/96	-	74,409	74,409
1996/97	-	129,193	129,193
1997/98	-	209,000	209,000
1998/99	12,756	235,635	248,391
1999/2000	-	161,572	161,572
2000/01	19,711	170,932	190,643
2001/02	-	143,281	143,281
2002/03	82,286	131,784	214,070
2003/04	42,842	150,773	193,615
2004/05	87,284	148,253	235,537
2005/06	109,666	134,023	243,689
2006/07	117,845	153,374	271,219
2007/08	82,298	146,465	228,763
2008/09	68,469	160,403	228,872
2009/10	64,362	161,854	226,216
2010/11	63,546	121,879	185,425
2011/12	58,587	120,610	179,197
2012/13	45,698	115,079	160,777
2013/14	48,193	105,936	154,129
TOTAL	903,543	2,835,275	3,738,818

Source: DoHS 2014

#### 2.6.4. Housing and Sanitation - An Overview

Figure 2.4 presents a record of the progress by the South African government in providing households with access to water and sanitation facilities in line with Millennium Development Goal 7, of halving by 2015 the number of homes without access to water and basic sanitation.

**Figure 2.4: Percentage of Households with Access to Piped Water- 2002-2014**



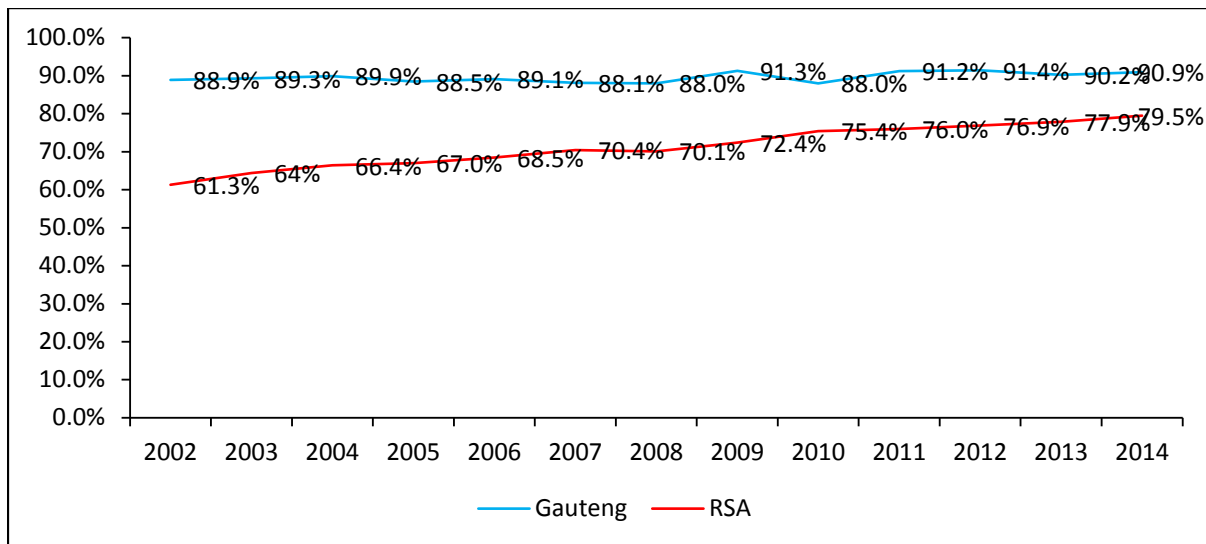
**Source:** Statistics South Africa, 2014

The percentage of people living with no access to basic sanitation facilities and drinking water has decreased, whilst the number of households who receive piped water through the infrastructure created by local municipalities increased from 85% in 2004 to 90.0% in 2014 for the Republic of South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2014). The Gauteng Province where this research is being conducted, performed better than the nation as a whole, with regard to the provision of water and decent housing. The salient insights from Figure 2.4 are that, as people start having access to water based flushing toilets, they begin to experiment with new toilet-care cleaning product brands. The overall supply of water to households has significantly improved since 2002, however 4.1% of South African households have not benefited living them to collect water from 4 rivers, streams, stagnant water pools, dams, wells and springs. The 4.1% figure is a significant decrease from the 9.5% of 2002 (Statistic South Africa, 2014). The tracking of water access to households presents significant insights into understanding the changing dynamics in the usage of South African toilet-care products and this aspect is modelled into the research questionnaire.

Figure 2.5 provides insight into household access to standard toilet facilities, that is, “water based flushing toilets which are connected to a public sewerage system or a septic tank” (Statistics South Africa, 2014). The percentage of households with access to standard sanitation

increased from 61.3% in 2002 to 79.5% in 2014, whilst the percentage of households without standard toilet facilities declined consistently between 2002 and 2013. However, the number of households that do not have access to standard toilet facilities in Gauteng increased from 88.8% to 90.0% over the same period (Statistics South Africa, 2014).

**Figure 2.5: Household Sanitation Access: 2002-2014**



**Source:** Statistics SA , 2014

The increased access to water and basic toilet facilities by many South African households indicates the desire and ability of the government to deliver on its Millennium Development Goal with respect to sanitation and better living conditions. This research study analyses the impact of increased access to standard toilet facilities on toilet-care product brand choice. The research proposes that the net result of a change in the housing infrastructure, specifically a change in the type of toilet system from a non-flushing toilet to a flushing toilet has a direct and positive relationship with consumers' toilet-care brand loyalty-switching propensities. The improvements in basic services in the form of access to piped water, flushing toilet and quality of dwelling place like a change from informal to formal housing has the potential of radically altering the lifestyle of people leading to changes in brand choices. In cases where the degree of change in the type and place of dwelling or residence is intense, the research proposes that resultant brand choice will be more aligned to brand switching than brand loyalty, as households seek toilet-care cleaning products that are aligned to the new toilet facilities.

## **2.7. Conclusion**

The chapter presented an overview of the South African toilet-care product, and housing market, highlighting the relevant aspects of the toilet-care product category composition, its growth and contribution to the overall Home-care product market. This overview was important in that it brought into perspective the interaction between toilet-care product brands and sanitary developments in the housing market. This perspective forms the focus of the research study as the main objective of the study is to examine the impact of and factors motivating brand switching in the toilet-care product category following a disruptive social change in the form of a change in the place and type of residence.

The overview in this chapter provides insights for discussions in chapter seven, where the results are analysed, and chapter eight where recommendations are made. The following chapter reviews the literature on consumer choice behaviour, branding, and consumer decision making in relation to brand switching and/or brand loyalty.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **BRANDS AND BRAND CHOICE**

#### **3. Introduction**

Consumers have over the decades faced increasing challenges in deciding what brands and services to consume. The increased plethora of brand choices has impacted heavily on consumer behaviour, a process which Solomon, Russel-Bennett and Previte (2012:3) define as “the act through which a consumer identifies needs, finds ways to solve these needs and then implementing the purchase decisions.” Consumer behaviour also involves consumer decisions with respect to the purchase, and consumption of product brands (Hardesty & Bearden, 2009). This behaviour leads to what is called brand choice, which is a decision making process through which a consumer makes a final selection of a brand from a consideration set.

Consumer brand choice has evolved over the decades with contributions from different fields of study which include economics, mathematics, sociology and psychology. A literature review into the main approaches on how consumers make brand choices is summed up by Adamowicz et al., (2008) as falling into three broad categories of economic, socio-psychological and statistical methods. The literature review for this thesis provides a balanced but non-exhaustive review of the evolution of brands and consumer brand choice from economic contributions, to rational decision making and then to the contemporary hybrid socio-psychological-economic approaches. The chapter ends with a highlight on the theoretical framework that is used in the research study.

#### **3.1. Brand**

The field of consumer behavior concerns itself with inter-alia, how consumers behave in relation to the different brands they consume. The concept of the brand is central to brand management literature, and it can be studied from various perspectives, including brand choice, brand loyalty and switching behaviour (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015; Peter & Olson, 2010; Armstrong & Kotler, 2007).

The area of brand management is concerned with the profitable management of brands. Christodoulide and De Chernatony (2009) present a review of over 100 published articles on

the definition of brands over the period of 1980s to the 1990s. The conclusion from this review is that brands can be categorised into 12 groups in line with brand themes which include “a legal instrument, logo, company, shorthand, risk reducer, identity system, image in the consumers mind, value system, personality, relationship, added value and evolving entity.” These themes indicate the evolution and development of brands over the decades starting with a simple name or logo, to a highly sophisticated articulation of a brand being a value added offering to consumers.

The evolution in the themes for defining brands can be illustrated by the use of two extreme brand definitions. Blythe (2013) cites the American Marketing Association (AMA)’s definition of a brand which is a “name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competition.” This simplistic definition may have been relevant in the early 1900s, but it falls short in the current market environment where brands have become very complex and sophisticated.

A more complex definition deems brands as “a cluster of values that enables a promise to be made about a unique and welcomed experience,” (Christodoulides and De Chernatony, 2009:104). A cluster of meanings include brand attributes such as brand image, brand personalities or brand positions (McCracken, 2005). The concentration of different meanings in a brand portrays the complexity in defining a brand, as brands now offer different meaningful experiences to different people. The definition also conveys the view that brands are a “composite factor of tangible, product-related attributes as well as intangible, non-product-related characteristics,” (Johnson, Morgeson & Hekman, 2012:1144). The latter definition is adopted in this research, as it acknowledges that people’s reasons for purchasing toilet-care products differ, as they search for different unique promises which are both tangible and intangible to satisfy their physical and emotional needs.

Kotler and Keller (2009:132) posit that “the role of brand name is to help consumers identify the source of a product, signal specific attributes and key benefits to consumers.” A brand name is capable of communicating brand attributes that inform and motivate consumers to consciously make product brand evaluations of the level to which the brand can satisfy the

consumer's need. For example, Figure 3.1, depicts one brand of a toilet cleaner (Mr. Muscle) using a “strong man” image, implying its tough properties in cleaning toilets. The image conveys the meaning to potential buyers that the product can effectively clean the toilet, thereby motivating consumers seeking a tough toilet cleaner to purchase it relative to other toilet-care cleaning product brands like Domestos which shows germ killing effectiveness. Therefore, according to Lamb, Hair, and McDonald, (2011:57) a brand name is “a visual means that enables consumers to make informed decisions when purchasing a product or service, based on their knowledge of the brand's qualities.”

**Figure 3.1: Mr. Muscle Toilet Cleaner**



A brand name's real function and value can be viewed to be a signifier of meaning, often symbolic meaning (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010). This means that brands can be consumed for their ability to satisfy the emotional needs of consumers. In essence, brands are bought and consumed because of their promise and ability to satisfy both physical and emotional needs of consumers. Walker, (2014:51) also notes that “consumers at times view brands as having symbolic meaning which they value apart from the brand's functional benefits.” The symbolic connotations of the brand are usually associated with the persona of the consumer who is using the brand with the intention of enhancing self-image. It is possible to conclude that consumers sometimes buy brands for their functional, emotional and symbolic attributes.

### **3.2. Evolution of Brands**

The brand literature reveals that brand management has progressed over decades in line with marketing and business evolution (Arshad, Akbar, Muqtadir, Shafique, Naseer, & Amin, 2013). Baisya (2013) cite McKenna (1991) who pointed out that, initially brand management

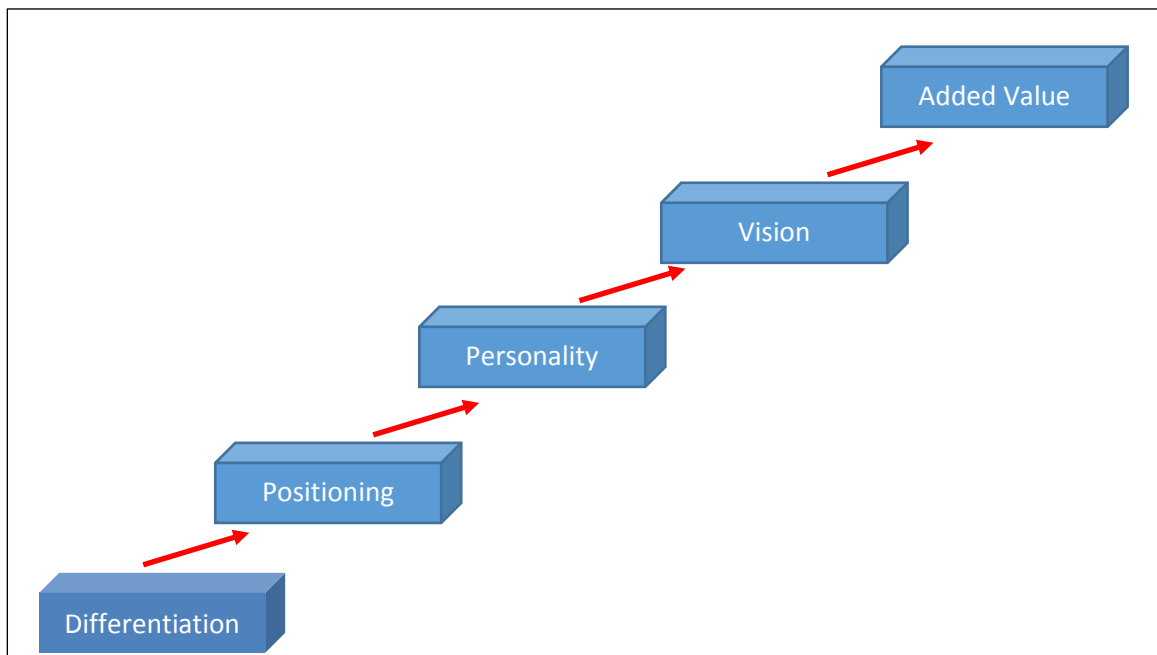
was very basic, satisfying immediate needs of business which were profit and value creation. In this perspective, businesses were solely interested in how a brand can be managed so as to yield the highest possible profit or create more value for the shareholders. The concurrent marketing function was aimed at selling and brand building whilst the business needs were usually short term and tactical.

The initial relationship between brands and consumer choice was very basic and simplistic in nature, as it focused on a singular linear relationship between brands and consumers. The early approaches to defining the consumer–brand relationship viewed brand management “as a simple linear relationship of “one brand = one product = one promise,” (Aperia & Back, 2004: 124). It was initially assumed that consumers engaged one brand and purchased it to satisfy a singular need. This assumption was a result of the basic nature of business, brands and consumers at that time. However, the “one brand, one product, one promise” premise no longer holds in modern marketing. A brand name in modern times is associated with an identity (Keller, Aperia & Georgson, 2012), a style, (Batley, (2008), and a personality (Heding, Knudtzen & Bjerre, 2010). Furthermore, brand extensions have become very common, which contradicts the ‘one brand = one product’ view.

The nature and sophistication of brands evolved with business and consumer needs, and businesses began to improve the labelling and marketing of their products. Simultaneously, consumers began to create mental states of these products leading to the evolution of products into brands, and brands becoming more differentiated to satisfy diverse consumer needs. Business began to adopt a new view on brands. Baisya (2013) notes that this change happened from the early 1900s and it defined brands from a “strategic” point of view with an end objective of building relationships and not solely profits. The strategic definition views brands as value added entities which carry quantifiable equity. Christodoulides et al., (2009) created a brand spectrum approach as presented in Figure 3.2 that traces the evolution of simple products, with no special meanings and undifferentiated to the highest level of brand development where these products get transformed into strategic value added assets.



**Figure 3.2: Brand Spectrum Evolution**



**Source:** Christodoulides and De Chernatony (2009:102).

The evolution of brands as presented in Figure 3.2 reveals that before a brand becomes a brand, it starts off as an undifferentiated product. The undifferentiated product usually has a basic name, basic packaging and no real distribution and marketing support. The basic product then evolves through differentiating itself from other products in the market by adopting a clearer brand name and sophisticated packaging that conveys the product's physical and emotional attributes (Al-Kwafi & Ahmed, 2015). As the process of product differentiation progresses, the product is communicated to the target market in a manner that can create differentiation in the consumer's mind. The mind positioning of the product is supported by selective distribution and product placement.

Brand positioning is the process of planning a brand's offering and image such that it occupies a distinctive role in the mind of a consumer (Wang, 2012). Brand positioning fulfills a critical role in the evolution of a product to a brand. The cognitive and psychological schools of thought propose that consumers develop mental and emotional attachments to the brand. Once these connections are developed the product occupies a special place in the consumer's mind leading to its preference over others during instance of brand choice (Blankson & Kalafatis, 2007). The stronger the mental bond between the brand and the consumer the greater the degree of the

product developing into a brand leading a greater number of consumers preferring it over other brands. At this stage, the product is evolving into a brand as it gathers a bigger consumer franchise and loyalty.

The brand evolution takes a personal positioning through communicating its functional, social and psychological attributes by means of sophisticated above and below the line marketing campaigns. The brand personality that is created from the strategic implementation of the brand position allows the brand to create a shared vision with consumers that ultimately leads to stronger consumer brand equity. Brand vision can be defined as “an articulated description of the aspirational image for the brand: what you want the brand to stand for in the eyes of customers and other relevant groups, such as employees and partners” (Aaker, 2014:20). The resultant brand equity represents the economic value of the brand in the consumers’ minds.

### **3.3. Brand Equity**

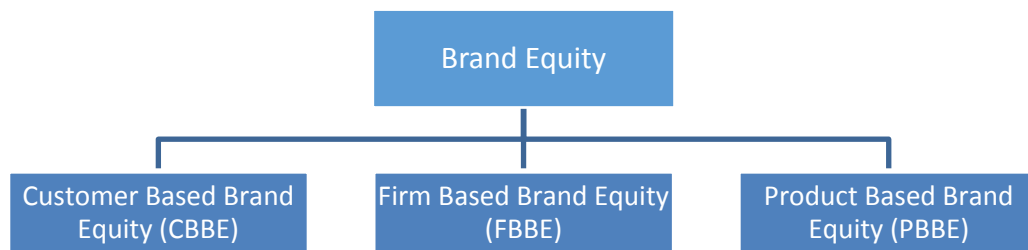
Brand equity can be defined as “the value accrued from the customer, product and financial markets,” (Davicik and Sharma, 2015:5). A common definition on brand equity found in most literature identifies brand equity as the value that is created by the inclusion of a name to an unbranded product (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Kotler, Keller, Brady, Goodman & Hansen, 2012; Walker, 2014). It is clear from this narrow definition that a brand’s name has significant impact on the valuation of a brand. In a general sense, brand equity is considered as a result from a positive marketing campaign associated with the marketing of a brand name to a targeted consumer market (Davicik, et al., 2015). However, brands are much more complex than just a name, which means that brand equity is in today’s terms more than just the value added by a brand name. An all-inclusive definition of brand equity would functionalise brand equity as “the brand value that is derived from high levels of brand loyalty, perceived quality, name awareness and strong brand associations, as well as assets such as trademarks, patents and distribution channels that are associated with the brand,” (Davicik, et al., 2015:5).

Academic discussions on the conceptual foundations, sources, essence and measures of brand equity are inconclusive (Davicik, 2013). Park et al., (2008) as cited by Wang & Finn (2014:233) argue that “there is no consensus among researchers and in the literature as to what constitutes brand equity, with versions ranging from, brand equity being the value of a brand name to being the value of a brand.” The issue of brand equity measurement is further complicated by

a lack of consensus on how to measure it, with variations ranging from customer based (CBBE), product based (PBBE) to financial based (FBBE).

The three perspectives to measuring and understanding brand equity (Figure 3.3) include firm measures, product measures and consumer measures (Christodoulides and De Chernatony, 2009:44).

**Figure 3.3: Equity Measurement Perspectives**



**Source:** Christodoulides and de-Chernatony 2009.

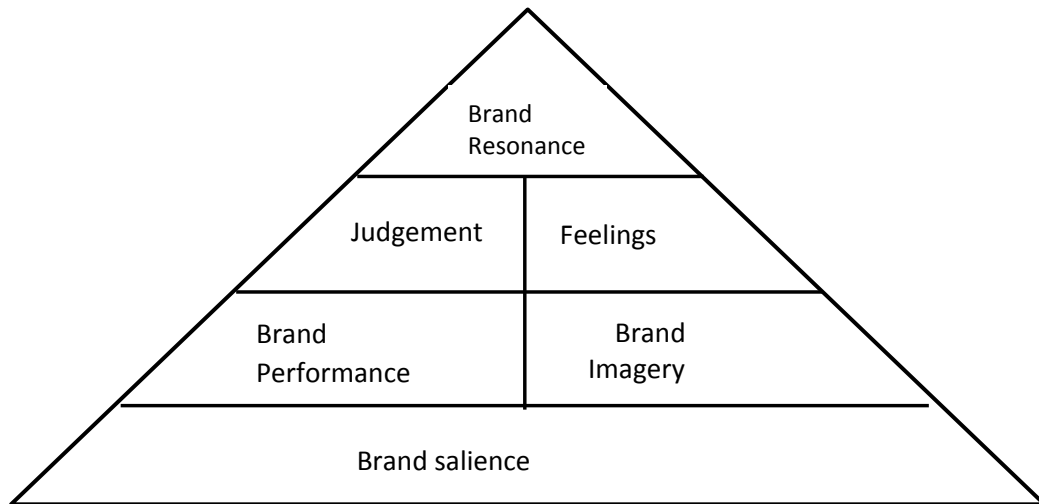
### **3.3.1. Consumer Based Brand Equity**

A consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) perspective measures brand equity as the value consumers derive from a brand. The customer-based brand equity paradigm measures the interface results that result from a consumer engaging the product brand (Davcik, et al., 2015; Veloutsou, Christodoulides, and de Chernatony, 2013). The CBBE approach stresses the view that a brand's value is derived from the mindsets and actions of consumers (Bick, 2009). It is important to note that the CBBE measurement evolved from the psychology perspective where brand equity is the “differential effect of brand knowledge on a consumer's response to marketing of the brand” (Keller, 2008:321). Brand knowledge is deemed to be function brand awareness and brand image.. The CBBE measure centres on the customer mind-set about the brand, with its epicentre being customer brand awareness, familiarity and strong, favourable brand associations.

The “mind-set” focus on the measurement and definition of brand equity is based on the basic premise that the strength of a brand depends on the experiences that customers have had from consuming the brand over time (Veloutsou, Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2013). The longer the time frame of brand exposure for a consumer, the greater would be the brand's equity

in the consumer’s mind if the experience has been positive. The “mind-set” approach as summed up in Figure 3.4 where Keller (2008) presents the four steps involved in the construction of six brand building blocks of measuring brand equity.

**Figure 3.4: Customer-Based Brand Equity Model**



**Source:** Keller 2008

Figure 3.4 indicates that CBBE is a complex process that involves various drivers such as brand salience, brand performance which is the ability of a brand to deliver on its promised value proposition, brand imagery which is the functional and non-functional or visual and non-visual brand cues. These attributes enable the consumer to engage with the brand and create some brand judgement on the brand as to whether there is a brand-personality match or not. In the process the consumer develops emotional feelings that can either create brand resonance or brand switching. In cases where there is brand resonance, strong brand equity is developed in the consumer’s mind.

Christodoulides and De Chernatony (2010) conclude that a consumers respond differently to the marketing mix of a brand and these responses can be observed and at various stages of the purchase decision-making process to reveal the consumer’s brand preference, purchase objectives and actual purchase decision. For example, where a positive manipulation of the marketing “Ps” leads to a positive consumer response, then Keller (2008) would view such responses as indicative of positive brand equity whilst the opposite being true. Keller (2008:95)

concludes that customer-based brand equity occurs “when a customer has a high level of awareness and familiarity with the brand and holds strong, favorable and unique brand associations in memory.”

The CBBE perspective has a weakness in that it uses attitudinal surveys to measure brand equity in the minds of consumers. At times this measure uses expert judgments rather than recorded scanner data. The shortfall in the CBBE method is that the use of surveyed data compromises the reliability and validity of the results given that survey data is heavily reliant on the researcher judgment and respondent’s judgment to articulate and answer the brand equity drivers (Veloutsou, Christodoulides, & de Chernatony 2013; Christodoulides, Cadogan, & Veloustou, 2014).

### **3.3.2. Financial Brand Equity Measure (FBBE)**

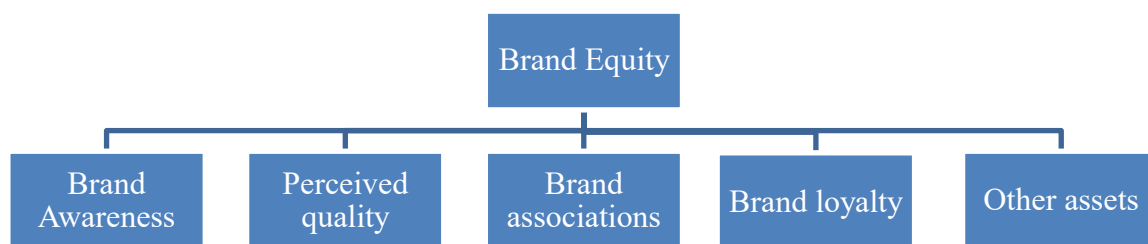
The financial perspective to brand equity proposes that it’s possible to measure the value of brand equity, using clear financial metrics and the most common approach is to evaluate a brand using the discounted cash flow method (DCF) or the Net Present value (NPV) method. By adopting the financial approach, brand equity can be defined as the “incremental cash flows which accrue to branded products over Un-branded products” (Park, MacInnis, and Priester, 2008:354). Davcik et al., (2015:6) cites Ambler et al., (2008) who proposed that “brand equity describes the asset created by a company’s marketing effort that will drive future cash flows from the sales of that brand.” This implies that a brand is an asset that has a specific future value which can be realized in future if the brand was to be sold. The envisioned future value is captured in financial terms using accounting metrics such as DCF or NPV.

Kakati and Choudhury (2013:24) cites Aaker’s (1991) who articulate brand equity as “a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm’s customers.” The essence is that brand equity is a function of two sets of financial measures which include of brand assets and liabilities. The assets of a brand and its liabilities are related to a brand by either adding value to or deducting value from the brand. The brand assets that are measured in this function are “brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and other proprietary assets,” (He & Li (2010:78). The brand assets add value to the brand as they are value creating. Brand liabilities are all the negative aspects that get associated with a brand,

such as bad publicity, negative product recall, and negative brand associations with anti-social movements. This means that consumers assign values to brands based on their personal perception of the brand. A high consumer value perception will equate to higher brand value and higher repeat purchase whilst the opposite being true on a low brand value perception.

The brand assets considered are presented in Figure 3.5, namely, “brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and other proprietary assets” Hi et al., (2010); Aaker (2008).

**Figure 3.5: Brand Equity Dimensions**



**Source:** Adapted- Aaker (2008).

Brand awareness as a brand asset denotes the consumer’s consciousness of a brand’s functional and non-utilitarian benefits that can be quantified from a consumer’s mental state (Christodoulides, Cadogan & Veloustou, 2014). Brand awareness has the potential of improving brand familiarity, enhance brand knowledge and develop brand commitment which leads to improved brand equity. In the framework of brand awareness, a brand can be defined as an “entity that provides added value to different stakeholder constituencies based on factors that extend beyond the functional characteristics that are intrinsic to the goods and services that are traded under those brand names” (Davicik, da Silva & Hair, 2015:8). This means that brands are able to provide both tangible and intangible benefits to consumers. An awareness of these different types of tangible and intangible benefits can be quantified using accounting metrics in valuing a brand.

The value that is added by the intangible and tangible brand assets enables the brand to differentiate itself from competitors, influence consumer preferences and enhance customer satisfaction levels, often leading to greater customer loyalty. The increased brand loyalty if it

becomes attitudinal has the potential of increasing the value of the brand through increased brand sales. The financial perspective consequently uses the financial market matrices such as market shares, sales values and future contractual sales that flow from the brand name and brand awareness to measure the brand's equity (Christodoulides, Cadogan & Veloustou, 2014).

Perceived brand quality is noted as an asset in the description of brand equity from a financial perspective. Perceived brand quality is defined as the perception of "the overall quality or superiority of a product or service, relative to relevant alternatives and with respect to its intended purpose" (Sheau-Fen, Sun-May & Yu-Ghee, 2012:49). The perceived quality of a brand is interested in measuring the consumer's product brand perceptions with reference to the product brand's tangible and intangible attributes as these determine product performance and brand value in the consumer's consumption repertoire. This definition also recognises that brand equity can be measured indirectly through brand quality perception because this measure is subjective and not objective as it is based on a consumer perception. There are a number of empirical study result findings that have confirmed that there is a positive relationship between perceived brand quality and brand equity (Beneke 2010, 2015; Sheau-Fen et al., 2012; Martos-Partal, et al., 2011).

Brand associations are an important aspect in the articulation of brand equity as they influence consumer perception and the value of the brand to the consumer (Christodoulides & Chernatony, 2010). There are different kinds of brand associations that are critical to consumers range from functional qualities, consumption situations, purchase benefits and emotional benefits (Nenycz-Thiel & Romaniuk, 2013). Brand associations can underpin the consumer's propensity to consider and buy the brand from a competitive set of brands. The stronger the associations between a brand and consumer, the stronger the purchase behaviour in favour of the brand and the greater is the brand equity value attached to the brand by the consumer (Nenycz-Thiel et al, 2013). However Nenycz-Thiel et al., (2013) argue that this relationship is not as clear cut as argued above because of inadequate empirical evidence in literature to categorically affirm such a link.

Mirzaei, Gray and Baumann (2011:324) argue that "the FBBE approach has a shortfall in how it measures brand equity in relation to the time horizon, that is, it has an ambiguous time

horizon scale as it does not clearly distinguish between short-term or long-term effects on brand equity.” The most confusing issue in brand equity measurement is the question of whether brand equity is a long- term output of marketing initiatives or a short-term output. The measurement results therefore become difficult to allocate to a particular marketing activity in a specific time frame. Despite these shortfalls, the various methods provide good insight into the value and importance of a brand in the consumer’s mind which then gets translated in the form of the share of their wallet.

Another challenge with the financial performance measures is that the measures focus mostly on determining the financial impact over the short-term period therefore they may exclude valuable intangible brand assets (Ambler, 2008). This means that a large amount of brand value that can be accounted for as goodwill value is excluded from the financial value calculation. However, this may be managed by combining the CBBE measures such as brand awareness, purchase intentions and consumer loyalty to financial measures, to reflect consumer willingness to pay premium prices, market share so as to get a complete picture (Davgik, 2013).

Davgik et al., (2015) present a caution on the FBBE approach in that the term brand equity is not completely accurate because the “word equity has its origin in the realm of finance, but at its core, it takes a subjective view and represents intangible cues that are valued by the consumer.” Therefore, there is need to be aware that brand equity in pure marketing terms should not be confused with the pure accounting measurement terms of assets who also known as “brand valuation” (Kirk, Ray & Wilson, 2013; Davcik et al., 2015) because brand equity represents the customers’ mindset in relation to the importance and value the brand to the consumer and the value of the brand would be influenced by perceptions, thoughts, experiences, attitudes, images of the brand

### **3.3.3. Hybrid Measures of Brand Equity**

The measurement of brand equity as observed from the different approaches leaves a non-harmonised approach to how brand equity. In a bid to find consensus on equity measures, the global market research house Interbrand has developed a brand equity measure that attempts to combine the CBBE and FBBE approaches. The Interbrand (2010) brand equity model is a combination of financial measures of economic profit and non-financial metrics in the form of



brand 'strength' as represented by "customer commitment, protection, clarity, responsiveness, authenticity, relevance, understanding, consistency, presence, and differentiation" (Interbrand, 2010:2).

Davcik et al., (2015:13) proposed a new approach that harmonizes CBBE and FBBE, and in their recommendation, they argue that "an important pillar of brand equity theory is stakeholder value perspectives that posit brand equity as a social and dynamic process of brand creation among stakeholders." This approach seeks to overcome the narrow perspectives of the CBBE and FBBE approaches by incorporating brand value benefits that flow from various stakeholder exchanges. The proposition leans heavily on the contributions from Hult, Mena, Ferrell and Ferrell (2011:48) who suggested that "a brand's value is a composite function of its social networks and its stakeholder marketing inputs." In essence, the proposition seeks to measure brand equity as a function of the market, and customer and stakeholder contributions to the brand. Davick, et al (2015:14) argue that their recommendation will lead to "a generalized brand equity measurement tool that recognises short-term profit or net cash flows, as well as long term cash flows as determined by consumers and other brand stakeholders."

This research study recognises that brand equity has a direct impact on brand choice, and this is supported by some research findings that have found a positive correlation between brand equity and brand recall (Masterson & Picton, 2014), brand equity and customer loyalty (Stahl, Heitman, Lehmann & Neslin 2012), between advertising to brand equity (Christodoulides et al., 2009). These results underscore the importance of brand equity in influencing consumer brand choice. It can be concluded that consumers will have high memory recall on frequently purchased toilet-care brands as these will be having a high CBBE in their consumption repertoire.

The diversity and richness in the conceptualisation of brands and brand equity has resulted in the steady evolution of brand definition from the classical approach to strategic brand management. The developmental evolution of how brands are defined and measured continues to occur irrespective of the differences in the measurements of brands and related equity. Table 3.1 provides a summary of the evolution from the classical brand management to brand leadership perspective.

**Table 3.1: Brand Leadership- The Evolving Paradigm Shift**

	<b>Classical brand management model</b>	<b>The brand leadership model</b>
Perspective	Tactical and reactive	Strategic and visionary
Conceptual model	Brand image	Brand equity
Brand manager status	Less experienced, shorter term horizon	Higher in the organization, longer term horizon
Focus	Short term financial results	Brand equity measures
Product-market scope	Single products and market	Multiple products and markets
Brand structures	Simple	Complex
Country scope	Single	Multiple
Brand manager's communication scope	Coordinator of limited options	Team leader of multiple communication options
Communication focus	External /customer	Internal as well as external

**Source:** Adapted from Aaker (2000)

The discussion on brand equity serves to emphasize that the value that a brand creates has a significant impact on how consumers make brand decisions. Brands which have high levels of brand equity generally have high levels brand awareness, consumer franchise and consumer loyalty, whether behavioural or attitudinal., The critical impact of a strong brand equity is to retain customers in times of market disruptions or economic crises by providing brand assurance and certainty (Brianna, Wangh & Stoner, 2014), growing brand loyalty (Sahin, Zehir & Kitapaci, 2011), and perpetuating future brand value (Hawkins & Prakash, 2014).

### **3.4. Brand Loyalty**

Brand loyalty as a conceptual framework is discussed in the brand literature as having evolved over the years from a behavioural approach, focusing on the actual product brand purchases and purchase frequency, to attitudinal approaches focusing on the cognitive aspects of brand loyalty (Arshad, et al., 2013; Veloutosou & Moutinho, 2009). Despite the evolution of the concept, it is commonly accepted that consumers who brand loyal display a deeper degree of brand conviction and brand emotional attachment which is epitomised by deep brand affection

and connection (Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011). It is important to recognise that there is a finer difference between brand loyalty and habitual buying behaviour. Habitual buying behaviour is consumer behaviour which occurs when consumers buy a product brand from habit with no emotional attachment to the brand (Singh & Pattanayak, 2014). In most cases habitual buying results from brand familiarity and consumers do not buy from brand conviction perspective. In such cases, brand switching becomes prevalent particularly when competitive products are on promotion.

There are many possible explanations that are presented in the brand literature which propose to clarify the formation of brand loyalty in consumer choice behaviour. A few of them are discussed below.

#### **3.4.1. Brand Trust**

Trust in a brand is associated with credibility, and integrity of the brand. Brand trust implies that “a customer trusts the capability and capacity of a brand in performing desired functions,” (Shiraz, Lorestani & Mazidi, 2013:155). The marketing of brands depends on the development and management of the trust relationship between a brand and a consumer, because consumers have a perception of the credibility of a brand, and this leads them to either trust or mistrust the brand. The brand trust perception is a result of experience in the brand that a consumer has, and if past experiences were negative, then the consumer will have little or no brand trust at all. The result of an increase in ‘brand trust’ is brand loyalty and this happens over a long term as the engagement between brands and consumers matures. Sahin et al., (2011), discovered a positive relationship between brand trust and consumer brand loyalty. The conclusion was that if there is positive brand trust, consumers will increase their brand patronage and emotional bonding, leading to the development of both behavioural and affective loyalty. Brand trust can develop due to multiple factors such as advertising, positive word of mouth advertisement and consumer satisfaction from the purchase. Customer satisfaction can be ascribed to be the result of brand trust, whilst brand trust is a derivative of consumer satisfaction (Tsai, 2011).

#### **3.4.2. Product Brand Value**

Product brand value is deemed to be an essential determinant to brand loyalty in that brand value is a brand proposition to consumers offering a better promise than other competitor

brands. Brand value is a result of brand differentiation (Hawkins et al., 2014:139). Marketers are able to create value by incorporating layers of differentiation in a product brand and these include, better price offering, unique product features, superior after-sales benefits, etc. Customers will keep returning to a brand or product, and even go out of their way to get there, as long as current product brand offers superior benefits to comparatively to the competitor (Chang & Wang, 2011). The greater the degree of differentiation, the greater the degree of loyalty and mostly this can be attitudinal loyalty, because the customer can appreciate the product brand's unique value proposition and real benefits.

### **3.4.3. Consumer Satisfaction**

Consumer brand satisfaction is defined as “the consumer’s fulfilment response based on a judgment that a product or service feature has provided a pleasurable level of consumption,” (Hawkins et al, 2014:140). Brand satisfaction is attained when a consumer’s experiences benefits that are equal or greater than the anticipated expectations, leading to a greater probability of brand loyalty. The assumption is that a consumer continues to buy and consume a product brand because of the satisfaction derived from the brand. A number of studies in this regard have found that there is a direct and significant relationship between brand loyalty and satisfaction (Masterson et al., 2014; Carpenter 2008). Christodoulides and Michaelidou (2010) confirmed a positive relationship between e-satisfaction and e-loyalty. Although Jayasankaraprasad and Kumar (2012) confirmed a positive relationship between satisfaction and purchase intention, in their study of the food industry, several other studies have found this relationship to be weak and insignificant. This has led to mixed conclusions on the true effects of satisfaction on brand loyalty.

### **3.4.4. Brand Switching Costs**

Brand switching costs are costs incurred by consumers when they decide to change brands. Several studies have revealed that brand switching costs play a moderating role in brand loyalty (Rockwell, 2008:77). The amount in value terms influences whether a customer can switch brands because of the expected financial loss or penalty involved in brand switching. The brand switching costs that manifest themselves in terms of time, money, or effort, are often strong to retain or constrain brand switching by a consumer even in the absence of better product brand (Nenycz-Thiel et al., 2013).

### **3.4.5. Brand Associations**

Brand associations fulfil a vital role in the development of brand loyalty in that they influence the consumer's propensity to consider and buy a brand. Brand associations create conducive environments for the remembrance of a brand by consumers. Memory recollections of features that are associated with the brand act as potential retrieval cues that enable consumers to remember the brand in brand choice situations (Broyles, Schumann & Leingpibul 2009). Therefore, marketers develop brand promotions and communications which connect a brand with strong and favourable brand associations.

### **3.4.6. Emotional Value of a Brand**

Brand emotional value is defined as "the benefit derived from the feelings that a brand generates," (Matthews, Son & Watchravesringkan,2014). Some researchers have investigated the link between emotion and brands and concluded that positive consumer brand emotions results in improved brand satisfaction, and also that a negative consumer brand emotions lead to brand dissatisfaction (Rockwell 2008). The attachment theory which is a social theory that seeks to explain consumer behaviour proposes that consumers can develop emotional attachments to consumer brands in a similar manner as they develop interpersonal relationships, (Park, MacInnis, Eisingerich, Iacobucci & Priester, 2010). This connection creates emotional attachments which aid in the creation of attitudinal loyalty as the consumer is able to engage with the brand in a personal and meaningful manner.

The above discussion on the factors motivating brand loyalty can be viewed from two broad classes of brand loyalty, namely, behavioural and attitudinal loyalty. The behavioural loyalty formation process concludes by asserting that loyalty is developed through the repeated purchasing of a brand over time by a consumer whilst the attitudinal perspective assumes that consistent buying of a brand is an essential but not a sufficient condition for true brand loyalty (Singh & Pattanayak, 2014). Thus, brand loyalty is a function of both behaviour and attitude though the strength of either type of loyalty will vary depending on the product brand and consumer type.

### **3.4.7. Brand Resonance**

The concept of brand resonance provides insights into explaining how brand loyalty is developed in consumer behaviour. Brand resonance can be defined as the degree of connection that exists between a brand and a consumer both formally and informally (Park et al., 2010). Brand resonance is epitomised by the strength of the psychological bond which exists between a brand and consumers. The bond strength or bond intensity refers to the strength of the attitudinal affection towards the brand. In other words, how deeply does the consumer feel about the brand? Activity within the concept of brand resonance denotes the behavioural changes prompted by this bond which is motivated by feelings and emotions (Moore & Wurster, 2007). Activities can be measured by asking consumers how frequently they buy and use their preferred brands and how often they engage in other activities which are not associated with the purchase or consumption of the brand. These activities are manifested in the day to day brand engagement that a consumer has with the brand at different contact points such as visual, physical or emotional contact points. The Brand Resonance model proposes that the relationship and level of attachment that consumers have with their preferred brands influence the degree of brand loyalty and equity (Keller, 2008).

The concept of brand resonance emphasises the contributions of appreciating the value and contribution of cognitive and affective consequences of brand relationships in developing brand loyalty. These consequential relationships include the way and manner with which consumers deliberate, feel, and behave towards a brand as this is vital in determining the kind and depth of brand loyalty (Keller, 2012). It also emphasizes a hierarchy in brand development and the importance of sequential steps in brand building (Keller 2008; Keller et al., 2012). It is important to recognise that brand resonance plays an important role in the management of relationships between consumers and brands, advancement of affective brand loyalty, and the development of sustainable brand equity between consumers and the brand (Moore & Wurster, 2007). The initial stage in the brand resonance model is the development of behavioural brand loyalty whilst, in a fully developed stage, brand resonance views consumers as possessing a high degree loyalty that is built by the intricate and intimate relationship between a consumer and a brand.

### **3.5. Behavioural Loyalty**

The concept of brand loyalty has been central in consumer behaviour literature as various researchers have undertaken studies to explain why and how consumers develop brand loyalty (Charamine, Hartel and Worthington, 2013). There is evidence that consumers can behave both rationally about decisions on certain brands, yet behave irrationally or impulsively on others. Consumer brand literature presents behavioural brand loyalty as a kind of brand loyalty that is epitomised by a consumer's patronage to a specific brand. Researchers focus on the frequency of brand patronage or the likelihood that a customer will re-purchase a particular product brand or service in articulating behavioural loyalty. Matthews, Son and Watchravesringkan (2014:26) cite Oliver (1999) who conceptualised loyalty as "a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product/ service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour." A customer may engage in repeat brand purchases because of different motives which may include accessibility, better service, or lack of appropriate substitute product brands or expensive inherent switching costs. However, this does not necessarily signify an emotional attachment with the product brand because as aforementioned, this may simply be a either habitual purchase or other hindering factors to brand switching (Hawkins et al., 2014).

Behavioural brand loyalty can be viewed as how likely consumers can switch from one brand to another especially when that brand changes price, product features, and communication or distribution programs (Kakati & Choudhury, 2013). This definition introduces the view that brand loyalty is not an isolated act but exists in relation to a possibility of brand switching. As a consequent, this research proposes that consumers make brand choices along a brand loyalty/switching continuum.

Behavioural loyalty measures the consumer's buying frequency of a specific product brand, which is how many times a consumer buys the same product brand in a specific timeframe. For each brand, a consumer has a specific distribution pattern that outlines the frequency and quantities of product brands that are purchased and this pattern is assumed to follow a predictable behaviour, for which the Negative-Binomial Distribution offers approximations of forecasting behavioural loyalty (Nencycz-Thiel et al., 2013). In this respect, a consumer is said

to be brand loyal if the consecutive brand purchase decision of Brand A are as follows: AAAAA. This is absolute loyalty with no brand switching. If there is an alternative brand, Brand B, a consumer is said to be brand loyal if the consecutive brand purchase are: AAAABAA. However, if the brand purchase decisions are AABABBA, then the consumer is labelled a brand switcher.

Nencycz-Thiel et al., (2013) cite Krishnan (1996) who suggests that behavioural loyalty is developed and reinforced by memories about the brand in three key ways which are, “exposure to marketing communications, receiving word-of-mouth, and direct personal experience.” It is evident from this definition that the development of behavioural brand loyalty is a lengthy and time consuming process which Rockwell (2008) claims to be a function of a consumer’s experience with a brand.

The challenges with definitions and measurement of behavioural loyalty exist in the fact that this kind of loyalty is measured in terms of purchase probabilities or likelihood (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009). However, the propensity to buy a brand is not the same as actually buying the brand. A consumer may indicate a propensity to buy a particular product brand in future but when the actual purchase event occurs, the customer may not buy the brand or even switch brands.

The other weakness in the behavioural loyalty perspective is that the approach does not explain the reasons why consumers behave in a certain way towards a brand. At the core, it only focuses on observing actual purchase or purchase likelihood and not the motivating factors. This makes it difficult to claim that consumers that exhibit behavioural loyalty are loyal to the brand even in the face of competition (Hawkins et al., 2013).

Behavioural brand loyalty is usually associated with future behavioural intentions, but intentions are only tentative and not conclusive measures of behavioural loyalty (Lee & Lee, 2013). In other words, intentions do not represent actual purchase. This shortfall in the measurement of behavioural loyalty means that one cannot be conclusive that consumers are loyal to a brand and will not switch, based on the consumer’s indication of an intention to purchase the brand.



### **3.6. Attitudinal Loyalty**

Hawkins and Prakash (2014:127) cite Jacoby & Chestnut (1978) who defined attitudinal loyalty as “the consumer’s predisposition towards a brand as a function of psychological processes. This includes attitudinal preference and commitment towards the brand”. This definition of attitudinal loyalty indicates significant emotional attachment to the brand which may lead to consistent repeat purchase

The Functional Theory of Attitudes describes attitudinal loyalty as “a function of four aspects which are; utilitarian function, a value-expressive function, an ego-defensive function and a knowledge function,” (Charamine et al., 2013:44). Firstly, the utility function of attitudinal loyalty concerns itself with the capabilities of a brand’s attributes. The consumer evaluates the brand attributes on the basis of their proposed ability to satisfy the utilitarian and non-utilitarian needs of the consumer. The brand choice process and brand loyalty achieved under utilitarian loyalty are a result of prior brand performance knowledge (Schiffman et al., 2015:168). In the context of this research, a consumer would buy Domestos toilet-care cleaner because past usage of Domestos resulted in a positive cleaning experience.

The second component of attitudinal loyalty is the “value-expressive” function which focuses on the consumer’s attitude as an expression of values or self-concept. . It concerns itself with the one’s internal motivation to express and communicate one’s identity to rest of the community of consumers (He et al., 2011). In the context to this research study, value-expresses product brand purchases that can be illustrated by consumers who are environmentally friendly. These are consumers who are conscious of protecting the environment from harmful chemicals and they are opt to buying ozone friendly or biodegradable toilet-care cleaning product brands. These consumers are likely to purchase “green” toilet-care product brands, such as PnP’s Green range products, than any other kind of toilet-care cleaning product. The conclusions from a research by Russell-Bennett et al., (2013:48) alluded to the view that the value-expressive function is “related to the cognitive dimension of brand loyalty with chosen brands closely aligned to consumers’ core values and brand switching only occurring when values changed.”

The third component of attitudinal loyalty involves the ego-defensive function. This kind of loyalty is developed when a consumer recognises that buying and using a particular brand contributes to the development of self-or ego boosting (Russell-Bennett et al., 2013:44). Consumers will select brands that fit their desired egos, and consume them as a process of communicating, affirming and differentiating themselves from the rest of society. This kind of conspicuous consumptions is self-perpetuating as consumers will continue to consume specific ego boosting brands in line with their ever expanding egos. The loyalty that results from an ego and brand relationship is a deeply emotional one that leads to strong attitudinal brand loyalty.

The fourth and final component of attitudinal loyalty is shaped by a knowledge function whereby a consumer's attitude serves as a mental structure to determine and guide product brand choice selection. The knowledge function encompass the grouping and simplification of complex information within the consumer's mind in a logical manner which assists consumers to make brand decisions quickly and without having to refer to the detailed product brand information (Schiffman, et al., 2015; Kotler, et al., 2012). The knowledge function simplifies complex information about brand choice enabling consumers to create simple evoked brand sets from which they select brands that satisfy their needs.

The concept of attitudinal loyalty can be summed up by the Attitudinal Conversion Model of Hofmeyr (1990), as cited by Elliott, Percy and Pervan (2011). The attitudinal conversion model presents consumer brand loyalty in terms of the degree of commitment to the brand. The model classifies consumers into two groups of secure and vulnerable, with secure consumers being described as more brand loyal and can be seen as brand assets whilst vulnerable consumers are seen as a liability who do not have much positive aspects about the brand.

Figure 3.6 illustrates the different the different classes of consumers that engage product brands within the framework of the Attitudinal Conversion model. Non-users are consumers that are available to trial the brand if they are adequately motivated to do so or alternatively they are a consumer typology that will not trial the product brand even if they were induced to do so. Non-user consumers are a type of consumer that is are willing to consider the brand's proposition, and will have at least have a favourable attitude towards the brand and thus have the potential for building brand loyalty. The unavailable consumer class is a category of

consumers who are unlikely to possess any favourable attitudes towards the brand therefore they do not offer any potential for building brand loyalty.

**Figure 3.6: Attitudinal Conversion Model**

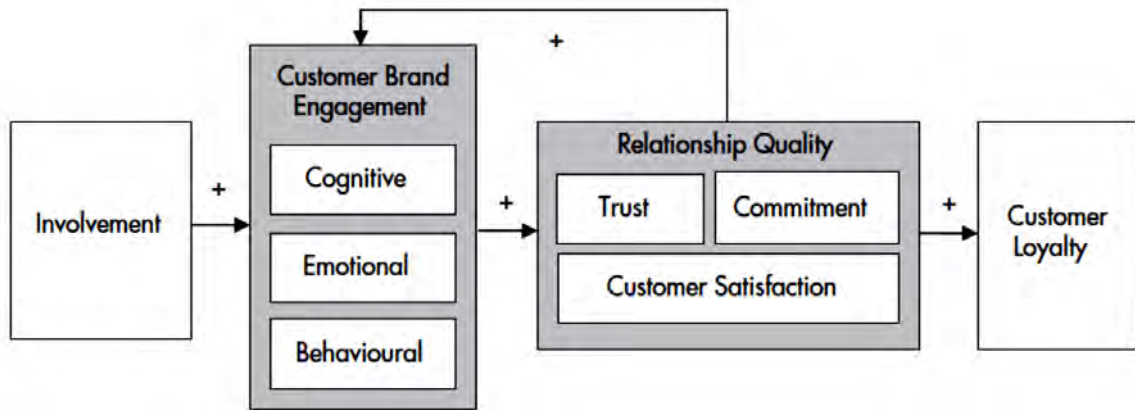
<b>Secure users</b>		<b>Vulnerable users</b>	
Entrenched	Average	Shallow	Convertible
		<b>Open non-users</b>	
		<b>Unavailable non-users</b>	
		Available	Ambivalent
		Weakly available	Strongly available

**Source:** Elliott, Percy and Pervan (2011).

Attitudinal brand loyalty definitions have their strength in being able to differentiate between habitual brand purchases and true brand loyalty which involves emotional attachment. Attitudinal loyalty measures are based on specified product brand choices, commitment or purchase objectives of the consumers emphasising the cognitive element of brand loyalty (Elliot, et al., 2011). The measure used to ascertain attitudinal brand loyalty provides insight into the drivers that motivate consumer brand choice unlike the behavioural approach which simply focuses on measuring the frequency and patterns of consumer purchasing behaviour.

The concept of brand loyalty which recognises both the behavioural and attitudinal perspectives is illustrated in Figure 3.7. Hollebeek (2011) attempts to harmonise the different approaches of behavioural and attitudinal loyalty as in Figure 3.7 where the consumer is perceived as being involved with a brand at different levels which include cognitive, emotive and behavioural. The net result of the consumer’s brand involvement and brand engagement is the creation of brand trust, brand commitment and brand satisfaction which then leads to brand loyalty.

**Figure 3.7: Brand Loyalty: Conceptual Framework**



**Source:** Hollebeek (2011).

The first loyalty phase according to Hollebeek (2011) is cognitive, which involves the presence of explicit brand knowledge in the consumer’s brand consumption repertoire. The cognitive phase can be viewed as being similar to the knowledge phase in the Functional utility model. The cognitive concept requires a consumer being able to ascertain a brand as a result of prior brand communication exposure such as television adverts, print adverts or product placements. The cognitive phase in consumer loyalty development involves various processes such as brand awareness, brand image and perceived brand quality. For example, a consumer would have been exposed to billboard adverts of a toilet cleaning product. This exposure creates mental images on the functionality of the brand resulting in the consumer having some kind of brand knowledge that would assist in the creation of brand consideration set.

The second phase is the development of affective loyalty. This level of loyalty involves the whole human being’s behavioural towards a brand which may include the consumers’ brand feelings, cultural knowledge towards the brand and even emotional reactions towards a product brand. Emotions have been discovered to influence brand engagement and how consumers relate with different brands (Bogomolova and Grudinina, 2011). Emotional attachment motivates consumers to feel warm towards brands that exhibit their personality leading brand bonding. The bond that is created enhances affective and behavioural loyalty.

The third and final phase of loyalty is the behavioural intention to purchase and consume a brand. Oliver (1999:393) defines this phase as “an intention or commitment to behave toward

a goal in a particular manner”. This is a loyalty stage where consumers display specific brand preference or allegiance over other competitive brands that are within the consideration set. This is the highest stage of brand loyalty development in a consumer’s mind which enables the brand to retain customers and grow its franchise (Lee & Lee, 2013). The brand franchise grows as a result of increased customer satisfaction which is the customer’s brand experience exceeding the customer brand expectation (Matthews et al., 2014).

It can be summed up that brand loyalty is functional to consumers, as consumers tend to simultaneously operationalize all ego-defensive, knowledge, utilitarian and value-expressive decision rules, though disproportionately depending on the circumstances and brand decisions (Russell-Bennett, et al., 2013; Matthews et al., 2014). Behavioural and attitudinal loyalty tends to be exhibited by consumers who have strong propensities towards the emotional functions, that is, value-expressive or ego-defensive as compared to consumers who rely on knowledge and utilitarian functions to make brand decisions.

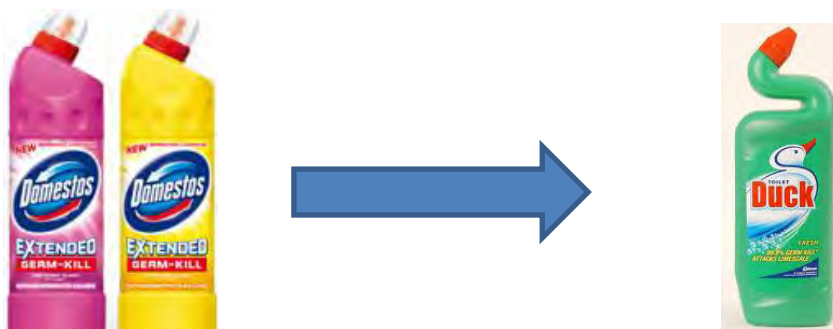
### **3.7. Brand Switching**

Kumar and Chaarlas (2011) assert that brand switching is the procedure by which consumers switch the consumption of one product brand for another product brand within the same category. The traditional approach to investigating brand switching has been informed by viewing consumers as either being brand loyal or not (Bogomolova, et al., 2011:13). The resultant effect of such an approach has been the treatment of brand loyalty and brand switching as separate or discreet events in the consumer’s brand choice repertoire. To this extent, the literature on brand switching treats consumer brand switching as being motivated by a failure in product brand delivery and dissatisfaction. Martin (2008:159) subsequently defines a brand switcher as “a consumer who uses two or more brands when a single brand does not satisfy all their needs.” However, it may be prudent to treat brand loyalty and brand switching as consumer behaviour points in one continuum called brand loyalty-switching continuum (Al-Kwafi, & Ahmed, 2015).

The phenomenon of consumer brand switching can happen both across brands and within the same brand (Jiang, Zhan, & Rucker, 2010). Brand switching across brands is exhibited by consumers changing product brands or service providers. Consumer can switch from Jeyes to

Mr. Muscle toilet cleaner. Alternatively in the context of this study, across brand switching can occur as consumers switch from private label or store brands to manufacturer brands or vice versa. For example, a consumer can switch from using Toilet Duct toilet cleaner to the Shoprite Rite brand, which is store brand. One of the key drivers for across brand switching is the manipulation of the marketing mix by service providers. Product brand promotions involving discounts, product bundle promotions, value added promotions and intensive competitive advertising can trigger across brand switching (Jiang et al., 2010). The across brand switching is illustrated in Figure 3.8.

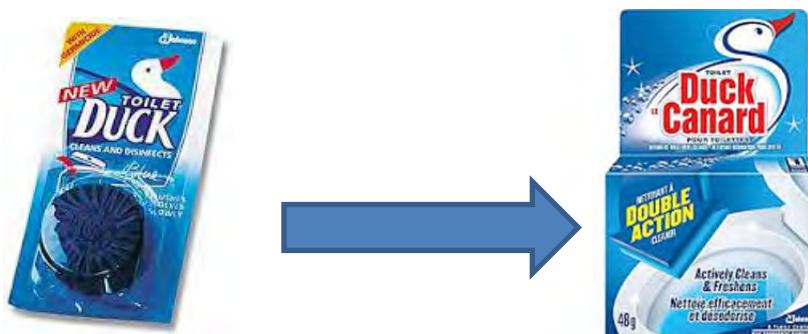
**Figure 3.8: Across Brand switching**



**Source:** PnP Instore Pictures (2015)

Brand switching within brands occurs when consumers switch within the same brand, for example, consumers can switch from buying “in-the-bowl” toilet-care product brands to “liquid” toilet-care products that offer both cleaning and refreshing properties. Alternatively, a consumer can switch from “in-the-bowl” toilet-care cleaning product brands to a “2-in-1” toilet cleaner that combines the “in-the-bowl” and “in-the-cistern” product brand benefits, as reflected in Figure 3.9.

**Figure 3.9: Switching Within the Same Brand**



**Source:** PnP Instore Pictures (2015)

Brand switching within the same brand might occur because of changes in consumer product brand preferences, for example, consumers may start by preferring “2-in-1” products over a single value proposition product, or consumers changing preferences of different formats of the same brand, for example, more liquid toilet-care cleaning product brands than cosmetic in-the-bowl product brands. In the context of the current study, brand switching within the same brand may occur due to changes in the type of toilet system or access to it. For example, households that previously lived in a “backroom” may have had a communal toilet where they had no personal responsibility for cleaning and maintaining it. The relocation to Cosmo City allows them to opportunity to make toilet-care product brand decisions, as they now have a personal toilet which motivates them to switch from using a single value proposition product to a hybrid 2-in-1 product which cleans and freshens at the same time.

A detailed literature review presents a vast array of reasons which aim to explain why consumers engage in brand switching. Some of these will be discussed.

### **3.7.1. Dissatisfaction with the current brand’s value proposition**

Product satisfaction is traditionally associated with brand loyalty and consumers are assumed that they remain loyal to a product brand simply because they are highly satisfied with it (Lee & Lee, 2013). In general, satisfaction measures whether the product brand achieves the customers’ prior delivery expectations. Satisfaction is portrayed as an outcome of brand performance and consumer’s judgment reference (Biedenbach, Bengtsson & Marell , 2015).

Tsai et al., (2015:103) cites Oliver (1980) who used the “cognitive perspective” of customer satisfaction, by proposing that consumers undertake a comparative analysis of product brand delivery expectations and the actual consumption outcome received after consuming the product brand. Flowing from this perspective is the conclusion that customer satisfaction is produced from expectancy-disconfirmation evaluation by a consumer on the consumed brand. The alternative perspective is centred on the affective approach, where customer brand satisfaction gradually develops through experience and evaluation of the product brand. In both cases, brand switching will occur when there is non-conformity between brand expectation and actual brand delivery.

Satisfaction denotes the emotional condition of customers towards a product brand and these emotions can either be pleasant or depressing (Shi, Chen & Ma, 2011). The emotions that result in product satisfaction are the result of a consumer having to compare the actual product benefits with the anticipated or perceived benefits. The alignment between perceived benefits derived from the product brand value proposition and actual product brand delivery determines the level of brand satisfaction and brand loyalty (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009). This position is supported by various researchers such as Jaafar, Lalp, and Naba (2012), who found a positive correlation between product brand satisfaction and brand loyalty in the automobile industry; Shi et al., (2011:140) who concluded that “satisfaction has an apparently significant impact on loyalty,” and Biedenbach et al., (2015:169) who found that “satisfaction had a stronger direct effect on brand loyalty compared to perceived quality and switching costs.” However Tsai et al., (2015:103) conclude that “brand experience does not affect customer satisfaction.”

### **3.7.2. Economic Motivation**

The underlying assumption of economic motivation is that consumers are economically minded, and they make product brand decisions with a singular aim of maximising utility (Hands, 2013). The reasons advanced to support this assertion are that, consumers have limited resources at their disposal, therefore they will seek to maximise utility from product brand consumption. Brand switching when viewed from a micro-economic perspective is an opportunity cost, that is, the loss of benefits from not consuming an alternative product (Foxall & Sigurdsson, 2013). The consumer will seek to maximise benefits and minimise opportunity costs by choosing a brand that offers the maximum utility. Product brand switching will occur when the economic utility derived from the marginal unit is less than zero meaning that the consumer no longer derives any benefit from the brand (Pervan, Visic and Parvic, 2015). In such a case, rational consumers will search for another product brand that will maximise their utility.

### **3.7.3. Emotional Motivation**

The theories of motivation anchored in sociology and psychology provide another explanation as to why consumers switch brands. The general suggestion from motivational theories is the assumption that individuals have wide-ranging emotions which influence, motivate and guide



brand choice and brand commitment (Catalin et al., 2013). One of the important aspects of emotional attachment to a brand is the development of consumer brand attachment which determines the degree of loyalty. Brand attachment is defined as “the overall emotional connection between the consumer and the brand,” (Shi, 2011:138). In cases where there is limited brand attachment, consumers will easily switch brands because they have nothing to lose from the brand (Eric, Urnal, Candan & Yildirim, 2012).

Park et al., (2010) uses the Consumer - Brand Relations Theory to conclude that a high level of brand attachment is a good predictor of brand satisfaction and brand loyalty. Brand attachment influences brand choice in consumer-brand relationships through three complementary ways of ‘brand affection, brand trust, and brand-self connectedness’. The brand affection driver to brand attachment includes the habits of consumer purchase behaviour, brand intimacy and favourable emotions towards the brand when they have brand attachment (Eric et al., 2012).

Brand trust in brand attachment relates to the degree to which consumers are confident and trust the brand to deliver on its value proposition which includes product brand quality promise, and emotional value promise. A brand that delivers high quality benefits leads to greater brand trust, but a constant failure in the ability of the product brand to deliver its quality, emotion and social propositions leads to dissatisfaction and ultimately brand switching.

Brand-self connectedness is another critical aspect of brand attachment and it represents brand relevance to consumers’ lifestyle or needs. Brands that have weak brand-self connectedness can easily lose consumers as consumers defect or switch to more relevant product brand alternatives. Empirical results from various studies investigating the relationship between brand attachment and brand loyalty or switching concluded that, “brand attachment has significant moderating effects on satisfaction and loyalty, even more significant than switching cost,’ (Shi et al., 2011:140). However other findings such as that by Moore and Homer, (2008), Veloutsou et al., (2009) concluded that it is possible for brands to reflect individual self-identity without evoking strong affections and passions.

#### **3.7.4. Variety Seeking**

The literature on variety seeking as an explanation of brand switching is wide and diverse, with no consensus as to its origination and primary drivers; however, what is evident is that variety seeking is commonly associated with satiation, boredom, curiosity, novelty, change and stimulation (Punj, 2011). Sharm, Bharadhwaj & Roger (2010) note that variety seeking is driven by a consumer trait called impulsivity, which spurs consumers to act impulsively in consuming brands leading to continual brand switching as consumers seek new brand stimulations and experiences.

Variety-seeking behaviour may be defined as the biased behavioural response by a consumer to a specific product brand relative to previous responses within the same behavioural category, due to the utility inherent in the variation itself (Punj, 2011). Consumers who have a high drive for variety-seeking usually exhibit a high degree of risk taking, that is, they are willing to experiment with new brands simply to discover whether the new brand can adequately satisfy their need. High-involvement products and services are typically characterized by a higher level of perceived risk relative to low variety seeking as the cost is very high (Labrecque, Krishen & Grzeskowiak, 2011). This observation indicates that the degree of variety seeking differs according to product brand type and product brand categories.

Variety-seeking tendencies exhibited in brand switching significantly affect short-term brand purchase behaviour whereas satisfaction and brand dissatisfaction tend to influence long-term brand purchase behaviour (Usunier & Lee, 2009). This observation indicates that brand switching is moderated by the degree of satisfaction, whereby a consumer is willing to continue consuming a brand even though the consumer is not totally satisfied but in the long term, the consumer will be motivated to switch brands. This is in contrast with true variety seeking which occurs in the short term as consumers experiment with different brands that become available to them due to price promotions, introduction of new products, innovations or new value promotions. Michaelidou and Dibb (2006) conclude that individual consumers attempt to adjust the level of environmental stimulation by engaging new products that offer higher brand stimulations when their current level of brand stimulations is lower than their desired optimal stimulation levels. In such cases it is common to observe consumers aggressively engage in a diversified brand variety seeking. Therefore, brand switching is a consumer phenomenon that can be prevalent in product categories which have many competitive

alternative product brands or where the purchase within the same category occurs very frequently with limited product search time.

The Optimum Stimulation Level (OSL) theory presents possible explanations as to why consumers engage in variety seeking that leads to product brand switching. The OSL proposes that variety seeking is a personality trait that characterizes an individual's general response to environmental stimuli leading to a need to explore new personal brand experiences by exploring new product brand propositions (Markus, Hazel, & Schwartz, 2010).

Ismail, Melewar, Lim and Woodsid (2011) noted that customers can switch products because they are seeking unique experiences of co-creating brands with brand owners. Customers are actively searching for exceptional product brand experiences which deliver benefits that fulfil their desires i.e., product brand experiences that stimulate high levels of emotion the product brand emotions which are connected with either satisfaction (Ismail et al., 2011). This kind of brand switching can be a key differentiator in either developing strong brand loyalty or triggering brand switching in consumer behaviour.

It can be concluded that variety-seeking behaviour is distinguished by a reduction in repeat purchase probability, whilst reinforcement behaviour (loyalty) is supported by an increase in repeat purchase probability. Consumers that exhibit reinforcement brand behaviour are those that consume high involvement products such as durable goods, whilst variety seeking may be prevalent in low involvement product categories such as toilet-care products (Beneke et al., 2015).

### **3.7.5. Brand Promotions**

Brand switching can be motivated by a deliberate manipulation of the marketing branding tools such as price, promotions, product, place and distribution. The most commonly used promotional approach is price manipulation. Price manipulation can take the form of price reductions in the form of sales rebates, price discounts, or coupons with the objective of attracting a wide range of consumers including new and old brand users (Choi & Ahluwalia, 2014). Brand switching that is induced by price promotion occurs because the product brand's price discount reduces purchasing risk that a new consumer can experience.

A brand's promotional activity strategically focuses on improving the sales of the product brand on promotion, the sales of complimentary products of the same brand and also to reduce the rate of sale of competitive products. The effects of brand promotions differ according to the price sensitivities or elasticity of the brand loyalist and brand switcher (Nagar, 2009). The full effect of a promotional activity is more pronounced in product brands that have high price elasticity where a small price drop results in significantly higher product sales, as more consumers purchase the brand and/or buy more of the same product.

The role and impact of price promotions produces mixed results because of the differences and complexities that exist in different product categories. Choi, et al., (2014) found that price discounts in a high-involvement product category do not motivate consumers to switch brands or defect from their current brands even temporarily however, in low-risk product brand conditions, large discounts are likely to motivate consumers to buy other alternative product brands.

### **3.8. Brand Switching Moderating Factors**

#### **3.8.1. Switching Costs**

Product brand switching costs, can be defined as “the perceived economic and psychological costs associated with switching from one product brand to an alternative to product brand that satisfies the consumers’ need,” (Wen-hua, Jia-jia & Jian-mei, 2011:138). Switching costs influence the consumer-brand relationship in that they may motivate consumers not to switch brands even when they are not satisfied with the current brand (Sanchez-Garcia, Pieters & Zeelenberg, 2012). The impact of switching costs may present a high penalty on the consumer to the extent that the consumer would be better off without switching brands. Research findings that evaluate the impact of switching costs on customer loyalty have failed to yield consistent results that affirm a positive relationship (Blut, Beatty, Evanschitzky & Brock, 2014).

There are different types and categories of switching costs that consumers have to incur and overcome as they switch from one product brand to another and these are briefly discussed.

#### **3.8.2. Procedural Costs**

Procedural switching costs relate to an individual's supposed effort of collecting product brand information and appraising the necessary steps involved in brand switching. These costs are

sometimes called information gathering costs or learning costs because they involve time and effort from the consumer's side to search and gather information about the product brand to which the consumers seeks to switch to (Shi, et al., 2011). Blut et al., (2014:276) identified a number of categories within procedural or information costs, which include: "pre-switching costs, that is, costs incurred in information gathering, costs anticipated with evaluation of a new service provider (uncertainty costs), costs associated with the establishment of a new relationship (setup costs), and the costs expected relative to learning the routines and procedures of a new provider (post-switching and behavioural costs)." This process is expensive in that during the learning process about the alternative brand, the consumer can experience negative utility which may motivate them not to switch. This is especially significant in durable product markets or markets that require a large upfront capital investment, such as in contractual products.

The primary driver of procedural costs is the lack of knowledge, abilities, or capacity on the consumer to collect the relevant product brand information related with the switching process or to appraise the alternative product brand options. Blut et al., (2014) describe these costs as internal costs, because they are costs that are limited to the consumer or are internally driven. Results from past empirical studies indicate that internal switching costs are generally negative causing consumers not to switch brands thereby mandating the customer to remain with the brand even when they are dissatisfied with the product brand offering (Blut et al., 2014). However, the impact of procedural costs varies with industry type and product type.

### **3.8.3. Financial Costs**

Financial switching costs are another form of switching costs which emanate from structural arrangements between consumers and product brands as imposed by the product brand provider (Osborne, 2011). These costs are common in the insurance, furniture and telecommunications industry where consumers have to enter into a long term contract before they can test the product brand proposition. These costs add a financial burden on the consumer, making it very difficult or virtually impossible for consumers to defect or switch brands easily, and in so doing create artificial brand loyalty.

The impact of financial costs is represented by the possible loss in product benefits following brand switching. The lost benefits may include, a loss of outstanding financial investment in the product brand, that is, sunk costs (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2006.) The consumer would still incur this cost, even when he/she no longer benefits from the contractual arrangement.

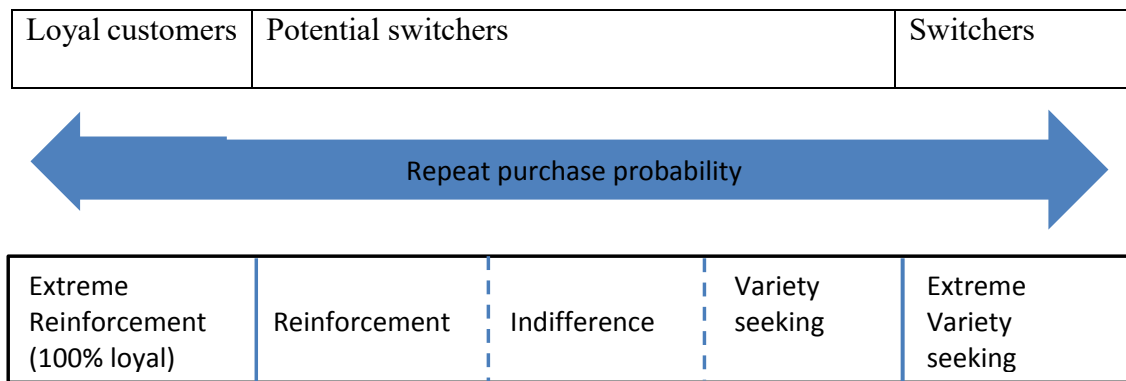
#### **3.8.4. Relational Switching Costs**

Brand switching can cause a relational loss in the form of a lost future income stream with a service provider. For example, insurance companies provide pay-out bonus after a certain period of time to consumers that remain with them. In such an instance, a break in relationship with the service provider or brand switching results in a financial loss. The magnitude of the relational switching costs directly moderates the propensity of a consumer to switch brands and its impact varies from category to category. The toilet-care product category does not have any significant relational switching costs, which means that consumers can easily switch brands without any financial loss or penalty.

### **3.9. The Brand loyalty-Switching Continuum**

The brand loyalty-switching continuum recognises that consumers have varying degrees of brand loyalty and their degree of brand commitment also varies stretching from being disloyal to complete loyalty. Tsao, Pitt and Cambell (2012) cite Ehrenberg et al., (2004), who pointed out that each brand has a variety of customer typologies that include loyal customers, potential switchers and switchers. Figure 3.9 illustrates the brand loyalty-switching continuum. The first category of customers are called loyal customers who display 100% brand loyalty and they are also called “sole buyers” (Tsao et al., 2012:74). These customers’ behaviour is so distinct to the point that they will not buy any other brand than their preferred brand. If the preferred brand is out of stock, they will not buy any other brand.

**Figure 3.10: Spectrum of Repeat Purchase Probability**



**Source:** Tsao et al., (2012).

The second customer typology on the model is the potential switcher. These customers display experimental brand behaviour. They can repeatedly buy the same brand but will at the same time be open to buying alternative brands that are within their evoked brand set. These customers face various switching costs as they experiment with new products and the switching costs can be clustered into three classifications, namely, procedural switching costs, which are switching costs that involve time and energy in search of alternative product, financial switching costs, which are costs that involve financial resources in the acquisition of alternative brands; relational switching costs, which refer to emotional discomfort resulting from a brand relationship identification loss (Wen-hua, et al., (2011)).

The category of potential switchers is not a homogeneous group but are a composite of different switching tendencies and as such they can be broken down into three switching behavioural groups of reinforcement, indifference (zero order) and variety seeking. Kakati and Choudhury (2013) also argue that the cost in time, money, or effort involved in searching and evaluating an alternative brand is often enough to hold a customer’s patronage, thus delay brand switching even in the absence of superior service. The variety seeking consumers which are on the opposite end of the loyalty-switching spectrum displaying a general tendency of switching brands or services for the benefit of pleasure seeking that comes experimenting with different product brands and also the pleasure derived from the process of switching brands (Biedenbach et al., 2015).

It can be concluded from the above review that the diverse types of perceived switching costs have been found to produce significant effects on affective, cognitive, and behavioural loyalty and/or brand switching (Barroso & Picon, 2012). The empirical results on a study by Biedenbach et al., (2015) reveal that there was a significant relationship between switching costs and perceived loyalty, and between switching costs and satisfaction. In the presence of low switching costs, dissatisfied customers can quite easily switch to a new service provider, however, because of their potential lock-in effect, service providers can use switching costs to retain customers as their preference for rival competitors becomes more expensive (Biedenbach, et al., 2015).

### **3.10. Consumer Brand Decision Making Process**

A literature review on how consumers make brand decisions reveals a myriad of different approaches ranging from rational to emotional approaches. Peter and Olson (2010:160) define decision making as “a process that requires choices between different behaviours, and it is an integrating process by which knowledge is combined to evaluate two or more alternative behaviours and then selecting one”. Firstly, the definition recognises that a consumer has to make a choice between two competing alternatives or product brands. Secondly, the consumer uses prior knowledge about the competing alternatives and desired outcome to determine the best choice decision. Thus, it is evident that consumer decision making is a process that requires some degree of personal involvement.

The process of brand decision making involves different degrees of consumer involvement which can range from being an extensive involvement or limited involvement as noted by Schiffman et al., (2015). An extensive decision making process requires in-depth investigation and information gathering to solve a problem, whilst the opposite is true for a limited or simple problem. In the context of this research, it is postulated that various consumer groups will be located in these two groups of problem solving, depending on their toilet-care cleaning needs. The consumers with toilets that require deep cleaning and scrubbing may undertake an intensive product brand search to solve the issue of ‘scale’ and grime in the toilet.

Consumer brand decision making can be viewed from three broad categories, which are stimulus based brand choice, memory based brand choice, and mixed choices (Ballantyne, et



al., 2005). A brand choice that is motivated by a stimulus is one whereby a consumer's brand decision is activated by an external activity that prompts the consumer to consider the brand. For example, a creative bright brand packaging, block merchandising on in-store shelves, a brand name or a television advert can stimulate a consumer's need for a brand. This choice of the brand is subsequently guided and influenced by the kind and intensity of different attributes of brand salience. Brand salience implies the likelihood that a product brand can be quickly and effortlessly remembered by the consumer from memory and be used to make a brand choice from an evoked set (Vieceli & Shaw, 2010).

A brand stimulus that invokes strong brand emotions has a higher propensity of influencing a consumer to choose a specific brand from a consideration set. The intensity of the stimulus has the effect of enabling a consumer to cut through the brand clutter and conflicting competitive brand communications, and direct the consumer to focus on a specific brand and choose it. In this regard, it has been recognised that brands that have intense, that is, strong brand stimulus such as emotional brand associations or emotional brand adverts engender stronger brand responses, and undivided brand choices (Vieceli et al., 2010).

Consumers have been observed to make brand decisions by using brand knowledge from memory. In memory driven brand choice decisions, consumers are deemed to undertake an internal search to recall all decision-relevant information from memory. It can be concluded from this logical assumption that a brand's knowledge and its access and availability in the consumer's mind plays a significant role in determining the kinds of brands that can be selected from a consideration set (Ballantyne, et al., 2005). The ability of a consumer to select a brand from a competitive set is determined by the availability and accessibility of brand information in the consumer's mind. It is postulated that the salience of a brand determines brand accessibility in consumer memory (Vieceli et al., 2010). It is important to note that consumer product brands within the consideration set will not be recalled simultaneously, therefore a consumer default to recall latency during brand choice decisions. Recall latency is a product brand decision making process that refers to the time taken by a consumer to recall a specific product brand and the mental costs associated with this procedure (Pike & Ryan, 2010). The concept of brand latency proposes that consumers will have different levels of brand latency, which means that different brands have different latencies in the consumer's brand repertoire.

Therefore, brands which are easier to recall stand a much better chance of gaining entry into the consideration set and being selected. When it comes to brand choice, brands that have high brand latency will easily be considered as possible brands for consumption, implying that a consumer may have different categories or sets of brands categorised according to the strength of their brand latency.

Brand latency is deemed to be influenced by how recent the product brand was purchased, and brand communicated to the consumer (Kim, Holland & Han, 2013). The proposition is that brands that have been recently purchased will be fresh in the consumer's mind, and therefore have high memory recall levels. The memory for recent purchases is positively or negatively augmented by the experience that a consumer derives from having used the brand, with a positive reinforcement occurring where the consumer was satisfied with the brand. As such brand satisfaction is closely associated with memory recall, and assists in the process of brand decision making.

It can be concluded that brands with positive brand satisfaction are far more likely to have high levels of brand salience hence, their high probability to be considered for consumption (Vieceli et al., 2010). The opposite being true, where a consumer is dissatisfied with a brand leading to the brand being discarded from the consumer's brand consumption set. However, caution is required in this generalisation because past research has revealed that sometimes consumers do not drop brands from their consideration set even when they are dissatisfied because of various reasons such as contractual obligations, lack of substitute brands, etc. (Eric, et al., 2012).

Mixed approaches to brand choice or consumer decision making processes involve both brand stimuli and brand memory recollection (Vieceli et al., 2010). This perspective recognises that it is not necessarily possible to have consumers either selecting brands exclusively from memory or exclusively due to brand stimuli. Mixed decision approach advocates brand choice selection that is determined by the use of internally generated cues (brand memory) and external retrieval cues (brand stimuli). In reality, mixed choice decisions are most likely to occur in situation where the consumers is influenced by brand information, for example, brands that are on display in a store provide a strong cue even though a consumer still has to recall additional information from memory (Ballantyne, et al., 2005).

The aforementioned approaches produce two main schools of thought, namely, the rational approach and emotional approach. The rational school holds that consumers are rational beings who strive to maximise the utility or benefits they receive in consuming different product brands (Wells & Foxal, 2013) whilst the emotional approach contends that consumers' ability to make decisions is essentially an emotional process. The rational consumer decision approach has its roots in the field of economics whilst the emotional approach is anchored in psychology and sociology.

### **3.10.1. Economic Approaches**

The economic perspective uses the rational micro-economic approach to explain how consumers make brand decisions. The micro economic theory is used on a number of different assumptions in modelling consumer behaviour. Kapeller, Schutz and Steinerberger (2012:40) note that 'the basis of rational choices can be analysed either from a positive and normative perspective.' A positive perspective uses rational choice to analyse, interpret or explain real-world decisions while the latter invokes rational choice as the basis of reason.

The classical and neoclassical approaches depict consumers differently, in how they behave during the process of decision making, however, the fundamental assumption in both economic interpretations, is that an individual is a rational buyer or agent (Wells et al., 2013). A rational agent is a consumer who acts logically and consistently in all decisions made (Thomas et al., 2011). Consumers are modelled as rational self-interested individuals based on the proposition that individuals seek to maximise expected utility in all consumption of different product brands. The axiom of the utility theory is that all consumers behave in a manner that has a single purpose of maximising self-interest which is to ensure the maximum possible benefits from all product brand consumption.

The economic approach assumes that a rational buyer has perfect or complete information about the supply and demand functions of the market. This means that the consumer has all the information concerning the demand and supply market forces at any given point in time. The perfect market knowledge assumption allows consumers to determine the optimal amount of product to buy at an optimal price point so as to satisfy his needs (Perloff, 2007). The other implicit implication of perfect market information is that consumers know their desires and

needs and are able to decide the best behavioural process to satisfy them. This implies that consumers would have to undertake a number of complex cognitive actions, which include deciding the importance of individual brand characteristics, gather competitive brand information and employ an optimising rational rule to select the best brand (Rustichini, & Siconolfi, 2014).

The other assumption in the economic brand choice model is that a consumer has a budget constraint in the form of a fixed income in the short term, and also has a price challenge to make (Hausman, 2012). The behaviour of the consumer essentially deals with the influence of price and income on the buying pattern of a consumer. In the context of the price-income relationship, a consumer is deemed to behave in a rational manner on every buying decision to satisfy the objective of obtaining ideal value for the money spent. Colander (2008) asserts that the rationality in the price-income relationship regards price as the strongest motivator of brand choice, that is, it determines how much a consumer is willing to spend on different types of products, brands and services.

The assumptions articulated above enable the field of economics to present two slightly different approaches that explain consumer brand choice behaviour and these are, the preference theory and the utility theory. The preference theory is based on the understanding that consumers are different from each other therefore they will prefer different products from each other (Hands, 2013; Hausman, 2012). The differences in preferred products or brands are revealed in the actual buying and consumption of products brands as determined by the different price-quantity combinations in the demand and supply curves.

### **3.10.2. Revealed Preference Approach**

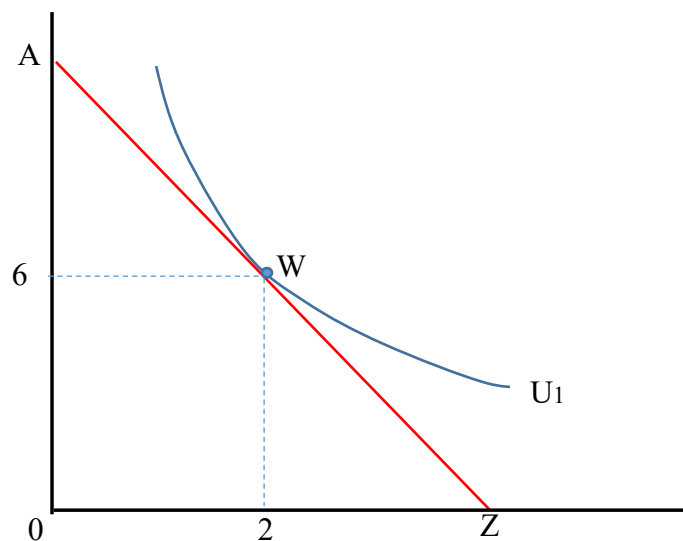
The preference theory to consumer behaviour answers the questions on how consumers search and fulfil their needs within the economic framework of utility maximisation. Revealed preferences are economic illustrations of product demand revealed by a rational agent in the purchase of brands within the income and price constraint (Christense, 2014). The proposition is that consumers reveal their brand preferences through the various product combinations they buy.

Dietrich and List (2013) note that the revealed preference approach makes three important assumptions in explaining consumer brand decision behaviour, and these are:

- i. **Completeness in preferences.** The approach assumes that all product brand bundles or combinations can be compared to each other in terms of the utility they yield to the consumer. The consumer's preferences are deemed to be complete when the consumer is able to differentiate and order products or brand bundles in the evoked set in order of preference. In other words, the consumer it is assumed that the consumer has absolute knowledge of all brands that are in the market, can evaluate them and categorise them into separate clearly distinctive consideration sets (Rustichini, & Siconolfi, 2014). The consumer is viewed as stratifying the brand in the evoked set by ranking them using a rational process based on preferences. In the context of the current study, a consumer may have the following toilet cleaning brands in the evoked set: Jeyes, Domestos, and Toilet Duck. One consumer may then rank these brands using preferences as follows: Domestos, Jeyes and Toilet Duck. Another may have a preference order of: Toilet Duck, Jeyes and Domestos. These different rankings are assumed to be complete and reflect the relative desirability of the options.
- ii. **Transitivity.** The approach assumes that all consumer preferences are transitive which means that the preferences must be consistent. If a consumer prefers Domestos toilet cleaner to Jeyes toilet cleaner, and Domestos toilet cleaner to Toilet Duck, then the consumer will prefer Domestos to toilet Duck. This condition assumes consumers to behave in a product brand choice which exhibits consistence all the time.
- iii. **Maximisation of benefit.** The assumption is based on that consumers seek to maximise their benefits from consumed products, therefore they prefer more of any product to less. It based on the acceptance of the principle of non-satiation. For example, given a choice between one bottle of Toilet Duck toilet cleaner and two bottles of a banded pack of Domestos toilet cleaner, a consumer will prefer the latter, provided that the choices are otherwise identical., This characteristic is called non-satiation and is expressed as "more is preferred to less."

The three assumptions on preference theory can be combined to analyse consumer behaviour through indifference curves which tracks the preferences of a consumer among benefits offered by a brand within an evoked set (Hands, 2013; Perloff, 2007). The ranking and ordering of preferences presents challenges to the consumer, however, these can be theoretically simplified by using preference curves within the budget and income constraint environment. Figure 3.10 presents the brand choice or brand decision process of a consumer by combing the three assumptions of completeness, transitivity and more is preferred to less.

**Figure 3.11: Consumer Optimisation equilibrium**



Source: Perloff (2007).

Figure 3.10 represents an illustration of a consumer who has ranked the brands in the evoked set and achieved optimal satisfaction given the market conditions and budget constraints. The brand evoked set that the consumer chooses is illustrated by point W. At this point the budget line AZ is tangent to the indifference curve U1. It can be recognised that the consumer has various options of different indifferent curves besides U1 which may be U2, U3 or U4 but the critical curve is U1. Among all the consumer brands in the evoked basket which a consumer can afford as determined by the budget line AZ, the product bundle W produces the optimal satisfaction because it is on the highest attainable indifference curve. The product bundle illustrated by point W, represents the point of equilibrium. At the optimum point, W, the marginal rate of product substitution is equivalent to the relative prices of the product brand being bought. The reason for the equilibrium is that the marginal rate of substitution is equal

to the slope of the indifference curve, and simultaneously the relative price of the product brands is equivalent to the slope of income line (Hausman, 2012; Mankiw, 2006).

In the short term, income and prices are fixed but in the long term these two constraints are variable. The economic theory proposes that in the long run, all constraints are variable and affect the points of equilibrium for consumers. The budget or income constraint becomes variable in the long run either increasing or decreasing. If the real disposable incomes of consumers increase in the long run, the effect is a shift in the budget line upwards to the right. The opposite is true when there is a decrease in the real disposable income of people (Colander, 2008). In cases of an increase in real disposable income, the new equilibrium will be on a higher indifference curve since the budget line has been pushed upwards. At the new point, all things being constant, there is an increase in the product quantities bought because, either more consumers are being involved in the product purchases or the same number of consumers are buying more of the same product brand. In short, an increase in real income motivates consumers to consume more of the same product as long the marginal utility remains positive.

### **3.10.3. Utility Approach**

The current study will not interrogate whether utility is cardinal or ordinal, as this is not essential in this research given that the purpose of this thesis literature review is to recognise and acknowledge that the economics field offers an explanation to consumer behaviour through the use of the utility theory. The thesis adopts a consumer utility approach that is based on the mainstream neo-classical approach, where utility is defined in ordinal terms and is viewed as the satisfaction that a consumer derives from consuming a product or service (Mankiw (2006).

The utility theory explains consumer behaviour using the concept of utility, that is, the benefits or levels of satisfaction that a consumer derives from consuming a brand, product or service (Hausman, 2012). The utility approach assumes in the case of preference theory, that consumers gain different levels of satisfaction from brands, therefore they will behave differently from each other.

In the consumers' minds, product brands are consumed for their ability to produce utility that satisfies their needs. Colander (2008) notes that a utility equation illustrates the level of

satisfaction that a consumer receives from buying and using different product brands. The ‘utils’ are units which are used to measure the utility that a consumer derives from brand consumption and one ‘util’ is viewed as being equivalent to one unit of utility. The utility or benefit function (B) of a rational consumer can be functionally represented as:

$$B = VZ$$

Where V and Z represent quantities brands demanded, that is, the two toilet-care cleaning brands

The neo-classical utility economic framework presents individual consumers as spending their income on product brands that provide the optimal utility, either product brand V or Z. The combination between product brand V and Z depends on taste and relative prices of the two product brands.

Neoclassical advances the actual product brand choice as a function of marginal utility. Marginal utility is the utility that a consumer gains from consuming an incremental or marginal unit of a product brand. The theory assumes that a consumer will continue to consume a product brand as long as the marginal utility derived from the last incremental product brand unit is positive (Colander, 2008). Based on the marginal utility premise, at equilibrium, the marginal utility of money is equivalent to the marginal utility of expenditure on the product brand of choice. The consumer's brand choice can be illustrated as below

$$b = u(w) - gk'w$$

In the aforementioned equation b represents the maximum satisfaction that a consumer desires while, w and k, represent the consumption and the price vectors and g is the marginal utility of money. The behaviour of the utility function that a consumer has reveals that a consumers suffers diminishing marginal utility in the consumption of the two product brands, which means that, as the consumer increases the consumption one product brand, the incremental benefit obtained from the last unit being consumed decreases as long there are no substitutionary effects with the alternative product brand (Perloff, 2006:189). The combination of marginal utility and diminishing marginal utility guides and motivates a consumer to choose a product



brand combination that maximises utility. This means that consumer product decision making is defined and guided by utility maximisation within the prevailing price and budget constraint.

The economic approach to consumer behaviour, both the preference and utility approach, can be reconciled to mainstream marketing thought through the definition of consumer behaviour by Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:23), who define consumer behaviour as “the behaviour that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs.” This definition aligns to economic thought in that it recognises consumers as undergoing a ‘search and find process,’ with an ultimate aim of satisfying their needs. The consumer needs are satisfied in an orderly manner whereby the consumer compares different products in the market and then selects or prefers the product with the highest utility to satisfy the need.

It is important to recognise that the above mentioned two approaches explain the same economic behaviour of a consumer from different perspectives, but they are not in conflict as they can be reconciled through the use of consumer buyer trade-off on brand choice.

#### **3.10.4. Marketing Implications of the Economic Consumer Decision Approach**

Perloff (2007) points out that the economic model indicates that in cases where the price of a brand drops, the demand or sales of that product will increase as long as the product with a price drop is a substitute to the another product in the same evoked set. Brand loyalty can grow with increased brand franchise in cases where the increased sales from a price drop do not lead to any cannibalisation of the product sales, whilst the opposite is true.

The crux of the economic model to consumer behaviour is that consumers seek to maximise self-interest however, brand switching costs determine the optimal point for consumer brand loyalty or brand switching. Shi, et al, (2011) conclude that switching costs are the main variable that explains the economic motive. From a consumer behaviour perspective, it can therefore be concluded that switching costs act as regulators in the link between customer satisfaction or utility optimisation and loyalty, which is, continuing to buy the same product or switch brands. This view also places consumers on the different parts of the consumer loyalty-switching continuum.

### **3.11. Heterogeneity and Consumer Brand Choice**

The utility theory has been modified in an attempt to capture more real life factors or heterogeneous factors that influence consumer choice decisions. Christense (2014) defines heterogeneity as the total of all variations that are found inside a household consumption structure and also between the different household consumption structures. The inside consumption household variances are modelled as the non-stationary parameters and the between-household variance is the heterogeneity parameter. In simple terms heterogeneity is the total variance in purchase behaviour among different people.

Heterogeneity in brand choice is rooted in recognising that differences exist across people, households or population. Heterogeneity is a situation that occurs where demand functions exist, such that demand can be disaggregated into segments with distinct demand functions (Christense, 2014). It assumes that each household has a different set of probabilities for selecting each brand from a brand category. The different probabilities result in different brand choices being made by different consumers even in a case where two individuals are choosing from the same consideration set.

The heterogeneous differences are a result of how people perceive attributes of particular brands and also how they assign relative importance to these attributes (Lowengart, 2010). It is the heterogeneity factors that influence consumer decisions to either remain loyal or switch brands. In modelling heterogeneity factors such as taste, preferences, habits, and demographics, one can treat them as the omitted and unmeasurable variables in a household's brand choice process (Blanchard, DeSarbo, Atalay & Harmancioglu, 2012).

Heterogeneity also refers to differences across households in brand preference or market response (Perloff, 2006). It can arise in cases where consumers respond differently to a marketing stimulus, for example, some consumers may be very price sensitive, while others may find price far less important. In the context of this study, some consumers may be price sensitive and chose store brands, while others may choose manufacturer brands despite the price premium tag they carry.

The incorporation of heterogeneous factors in brand choice or consumer brand decision is a means of recognising that consumers are not only different in choices but also that they have different choice of product brand alternatives. This approach acknowledges that differences exist in the underlying preferences that consumers have for alternative brands therefore brand choice decisions will vary among different people. The inclusion of heterogeneous factors allows for a more accurate reflection of the cross-sectional differences that exist across households (Lowengart, 2010).

The mapping of heterogeneity factors represents the household's need to maximise its consumption utility (Christensen, 2014). By incorporating heterogeneity, the analytical process induces a particular pattern of differences in brand preferences across households. The accuracy and fit of the process depends on the accurate mapping of heterogeneity factors such as motivating environment, price promotions, demography, household habits and loyalty. Heterogeneity can be built into consumer brand decision models in different ways, inter alia, through,

- a) models in which heterogeneity is quantified as an internal or external probability factor
- b) models in which heterogeneity is quantified as either being a fixed or variable factor
- c) models in which heterogeneity is modelled a parametric or non-parametric variable.

Economic modelling of consumer choice behaviour that incorporates heterogeneity is usually conducted through the use of Random Utility Theories (RUT). This process allows the researcher to use field data to determine the underlying probability distribution for the unobserved heterogeneity. The RUT models assume that a consumer chooses a brand with the highest utility from a finite choice set of alternatives (Blanchard, et al., 2012). Heterogeneity in consumer choice can also be analysed through the use of statistical models that use scanner data of consumer behaviour. The scanner data includes consumer purchase behaviour over extended time frames and Hands (2013) argues that the individual consumer's brand choices exhibit inertia or persistence over time.

In the context of this study, the issue of consumer inertia or persistence over time can be framed as follows: the probability of a consumer purchasing brand A (Jeyes) at time  $t$ , given

that the consumer was observed through scanner data to buy brand A (Jeyes toilet cleaner) at time  $t-1$ , is greater than the probability that the consumer will be observed to purchase brand B (Toilet Duck toilet cleaner) at time  $t-1$ . The brand choice that is framed from scanned data exhibiting consumer persistence can be explained in two different ways. The first possible explanation according to Dube, Hitsch and Rossi (2010) is that the Jeyes toilet cleaner brand choice at time  $t-1$  motivates the consumer to buy the same brand again at time  $t$ . The motivation according to Osborne (2011:28) may be ‘caused by past experience from using the brand as the consumer would have learned from experience the brand’s performance.’ The repeat purchase which leads to the development of consumer behavioural brand loyalty which is a result of habit persistence, that is, a consumer continues to buy the brand due to acquire brand taste.

The second plausible explanation to consumer persistence in influencing brand decision making is that there is no causal relationship between past or present and future brand choices. In this explanation consumers simply exhibit different preferences for brands. The differences in brand choices are thereby motivated by exogenous factors that are unrelated to consumers’ past purchase behaviour (Christensen, 2014).

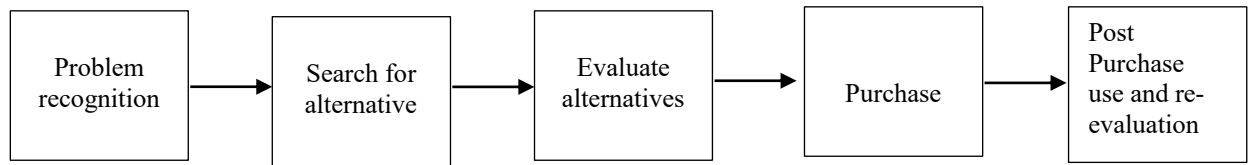
This research study recognises heterogeneity as an important modelling aspect in the understanding of consumer brand choice as it bridges the gaps in neoclassical modelling with socio-psychological models of consumer decision making. The study uses in its structured research questionnaire heterogeneous factors such differences in the perception of brand benefits, changes in the place of dwelling, and changes in lifestyle factors in influencing brand choice. These heterogeneous factors are considered and built into the research instrument so as to investigate and determine their influence on brand choice.

### **3.12. Generic Brand Decision Process**

The field of business management offers another option for understanding how consumers solve problems or frame product brand decisions. Peter and Olson (2010:131) depict the process of problem solving as a “five step sequential yet simultaneously reiterative process which is a continuous stream of interactions among environmental factors, cognitive and affective processes and behavioural actions.” For example, a consumer perceives a problem

because the desired outcomes have not been met. The process of solving a problem is also known as goal directed. In essence the process is as illustrated in Fig 3.12

**Figure 3.12: Generic Model to Consumer Problem Solving**



**Source:** Peter and Olson (2010).

Problem recognition forms the initial stage towards decision making by a consumer. Schiffman and Wisenblit (2015) observed that at the problem recognition stage, consumers recognise that there is a difference between what they observe in the current actual state of affairs and the desired state of affairs. At this stage, consumers frame the issue by including ideas about the desired end goal, and the end goal is shaped by the consumer’s needs or values that satisfy the need/problem. The end goals may be varied resulting in the need to rank the goals in order to choose the goal that offers the optimal satisfaction levels.

Schiffman et al., (2015:369) recognise two consumer need typologies which are the “actual state types” and “desired state types”. In the “actual state type”, consumers realise that they have a problem when the product brand’s performance is below their expectations or does not meet the anticipated desired outcome. For example, a consumer buys a cheap ‘No Name’ store brand to clean her toilet but upon using it, she notices that the product leaves the toilet chamber stained and unclean. This product failure motivates the consumer to find a better cleaning product and then she starts the search. It is at this moment that the consumer is in an ‘actual state’ type stage. The ‘desired state’ type consumer is one whose problem or need is a result for a desire to have a better situation.

The second stage of the Generic decision model involves searching for alternative solutions to the problem or need. At this stage Blythe (2013:321) comments that “consumers or people are involved in a learning process, during which they become aware of alternative products or brands, specific stores, prices of products, terms of sale and customer services.” The process

motivates consumers to consider a number of different options and brands that can solve their problem. Consumers are deemed to be time, energy and cost constrained to explore every possible alternative available to them, therefore consumers group the different product brands into different groups forming possible alternative solutions. These groups are called choice sets or consideration sets or evoked set or brand sets (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015).

The brands that are in the same consideration set usually possess similar product attributes, which means that these products or brands are fairly homogeneous or similar. The general composition of the consideration set differs among consumers depending on the brand choices to be made and consumer need motivations. The consideration set can constitute complementary and/or substitute product brands. Consumers appraise potential brands by considering brand offerings and needs to be satisfied. For example, in the toilet care category, a consumer may have to mentally filter toilet care brands like Domestos, Jeyes, Toilet Duck, Muscle, PnP Green, Shoprite House brand or even Spar House brand. These are filtered from a whole range of brands that are known by the consumers which may cover non-toiletry products. These brands get categorised in various consideration sets such as: eco-friendly set, value for money set, deep cleaning set, fragrance set, etc.

The third stage is the assessment of substitute product brands where customers compare product brands' ability to resolve their problem by using a pre-established evaluation criterion. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007) note that at this stage consumers are theorised to be focusing only on the products that are in the different consideration sets. A consumer narrows his/her selection to one evoked set and then evaluates each brand within the sets in its ability to satisfy the need. The process that a consumer uses to choose a specific consideration set from among others is called the choice criteria. A consumer can select a specific brand that fits a particular need and circumstance. For example, a consumer can then choose the Domestos brand, which choice gets further refined into a format e.g. Domestic liquid, into a size, 750ml, and into a fragrance e.g. Lavender.

The fourth stage in the Generic decision making process has consumers making the actual purchase decision. The purchase is made from the evoked set and all other sets, that is, inert sets are ignored. Schiffman and Wisenblit (2015:371) define inert sets as groups which “consist

of brands that the consumer excludes from purchase consideration because they are unacceptable or seen as inferior". The purchased brand usually has the optimal brand attributes that meet the consumer's functional, sensorial, expressive and emotional needs (Batley 2010). The consumer's final brand choice is driven by various decision rules which may be both compensatory and non-compensatory. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007:154) concludes that the actual buying actions that consumers undertake may be categorised into three types of purchases namely "trial purchases, repeat purchases, and long term commitment purchases."

The fifth, final stage involves post purchase evaluation, at which stage a consumer will have purchased the brand and used it. Consumers are viewed as comparing brand performance against anticipated expectations (Lamb, et al., 2011:438). If the brand's delivery meets the expectations, the consumer will have the need or problem solved and ceases to search for alternatives. However, if the brand fails to solve the problem the consumer starts the search process all over again. Armstrong and Kotler et al., (2009) provide a cautionary insight into the reading of the generic buying model by emphasising that the buying process by an individual starts before the consumers has bought and used the product brand and usually goes on even after the product has been used as the latter involves evaluating the performance of the product prior against expectations. Therefore, one should not strictly confine the buying process to the five stages.

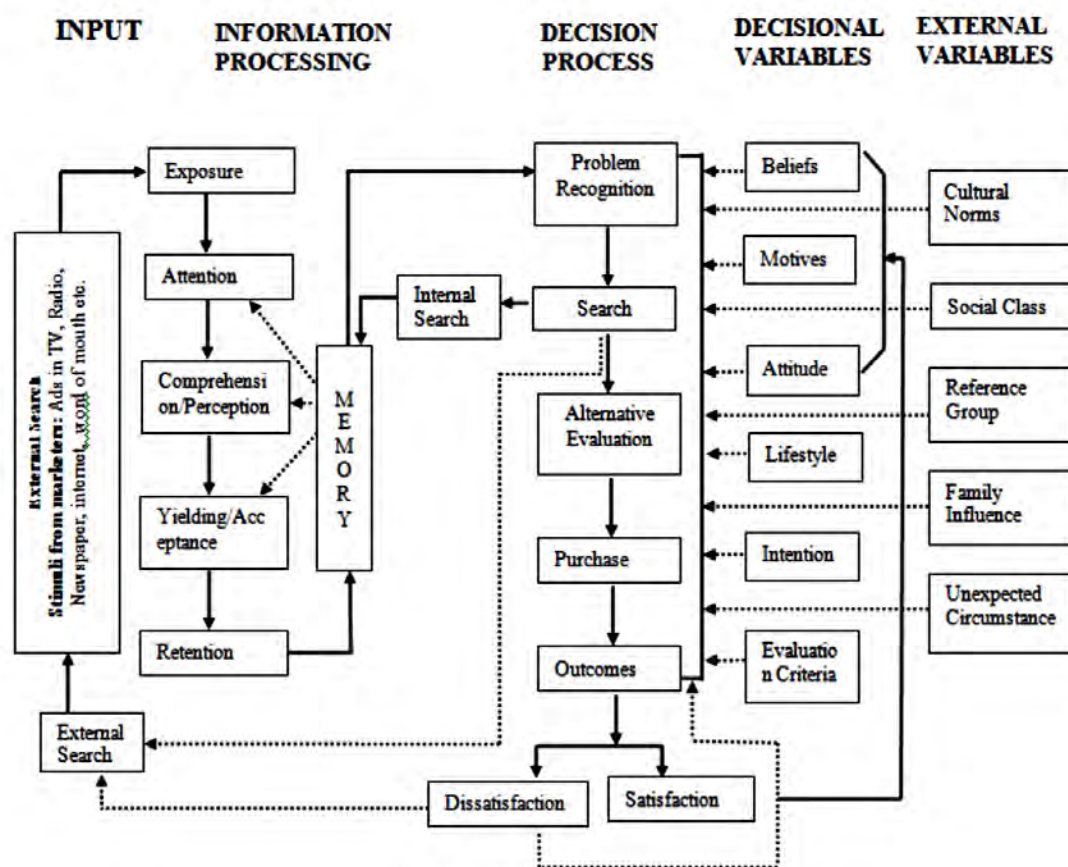
### **3.13. Engel-Blackwell-Kollard Model (EBK) on Consumer Decision Making Process**

The generic (EBK) model has been refined, expanded and applied to marketing in the form of the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model (Schiffman et al., 2007). In the EBK model, various facets of consumer behaviour and motivating factors are considered and analysed in how they influence consumer decision or brand choice behaviour. The EBK model as illustrated in Figure 3.13 demonstrates consumer brand decision making involving rational choices by a rational agent.

The EBK model is anchored on seven points that form the basis of a consumer's decision making process. These are need recognition, followed by information search both internally and externally, the evaluation of alternatives, purchase, post-purchase reflection and finally,

divestment. In reality, this process may not necessarily be linear as some stages may occur concurrently in the consumer's mind.

**Figure 3.13: Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model**



**Source:** Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007

The seven step decision making processes are very similar to the Generic Decision Model. The consumer decision making process in the EBK model is activated by the reception of a stimulus which is subsequently processed in the consumer's mind in conjunction with memories of previous experiences. These memories act as a reflection and comparative bank upon which the consumer compares his current decision (Winer and Dhar, 2011).

The external variables which influence the consumer's decision emanate from either environmental influences or individual differences (Winer et al., 2011). The environmental influences include culture, social class, personal influence, family and situation. Some individual influences that shape the brand choice process include, consumer resource,



motivation and involvement; brand knowledge, attitudes, personality, values and lifestyle. The contributions and perspectives of the EBK model have been considered in the current research and factored in the drafting of the content of research instrument.

Certain external variables from the EBK model that are important to this research study such as culture, reference groups (family), and variable decision factors such as learning, attitudes and lifestyles are discussed next.

### **3.13.1. Culture and Consumer Brand Decision-Making**

Banerjee (2008:368) defines culture as “a set of values, ideas, artefacts and other meaningful symbols that help individuals to communicate, interpret, and evaluate as a member of society.” The effects of culture from this definition can be demonstrated by the type of product brands that consumers choose since some products are more culturally biased than others. The concept of culture is a dynamic process that enables people to cognitively map their beliefs, values, and attitudes, while simultaneously influencing consumer thinking, , actions and exchanges within a group or society (Winer et al., 2011). Culture can therefore be observed to be an important determinant in shaping and projecting consumer behaviour, since human behaviour involves to a greater degree learning (Usunier, et al., 2009).

It can be noted that culture together with its derivative influence of sub-culture, influences how consumers engage with different product types, forms and quantities of products that consumers consume. Jansson-Boyd, (2010:231) refers to subculture as “comparisons of culture which results in culture units” which according to Kotler et al., (2009:165) include “variations in nationalities, religion, racial group and geographic regions, age, values and customs.” In essence, this means that culture is not homogeneous therefore any brand decisions and consumption cannot be culturally homogeneous.

### **3.13.2. Family and Consumer Brand Decision-Making**

Weit, Santos, Sevilla, and Sofer (2013:627) observe that “a family is an important decision-making and consumption unit in the understanding of human behaviour at a group level because the family members have different roles in making brand decisions within the family.” Some family members may initiate demand of a product whilst others contribute product

information and yet others may decide the stores from where to buy the product brands, decide the actual brand, brand style and define the type and level of satisfaction to be derived from the product. It is important to recognise that individuals who influence the purchasing decision in the family vary from one family to another, depending on the family's culture, composition and nature of product. Martinex and Polo (1999) observed that children tend to influence purchase decisions on edible perishable product brands while teenagers can influence purchase decisions on clothing and styles and the parents can influence purchase decisions of durable product brands. The issue of family and family size is captured in the research so as to gain insight into how this may influence toilet-care brand consumption.

### **3.13.3. Attitude and Consumer Brand Decision-Making**

The attitude component in consumer behaviour influences consumer brand choice in that it is driven by the consumer's beliefs and values which in turn influence the actual product choice (Masterson et al., 2014). Escalas, (2009:379) acknowledges that 'a consumer's attitude may serve as a connector between a consumer's background characteristics and brand consumption so that the needs of a consumer are satisfied.' According to Blythe (2013:217) attitude is defined as a "learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner toward a particular brand." This learned process is influential in product selection and usage, thereby creating a diversity of individual brand consumption in the market place.

The concept of attitude may be described as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by a consumer in evaluating a particular brand with some degree of favour or disfavour," (Peter, et al., 2010:356). The psychological component in consumer attitude has a direct impact in influencing the propensity of a consumer to become loyal or to switch brands. In the context of this study, it is assumed that there would be different types of evoked sets of toilet-care cleaning products with some consumers preferring fragrance products whilst others preferring hard cleaning brands.

### **3.13.4. Learning and Consumer Brand Decision-Making**

Learning is a process that an individual acquires and uses as from combining different experiences from the past, motivations and activities (O'Class, et al., 2006). The consequence of learning on consumer product brand choice is to create an altered state of appreciating

product brands resulting in a biased psychological choice towards some brands at the expense of others because learning provides product experience to the consumer. The learning effects and associated experience create a framework within which a consumer makes product brand decisions. In cases where product learning resulted in positive experience, the consumer decision would be biased towards the product relative to others even though the alternative products could be perfect substitutes.

Lamb, et al., (2011) further adds that ‘the process of learning affects values, attitudes, personalities and tastes.’ Learning shapes and accentuates consumer attitudes leading to a biased appreciation of brands. In cases where a particular product brand is perceived to be of inferior class or low status, consumers may have a negative attitude towards it leading to brand switching. However learning can also positively enhance the adoption of a product as it positively shapes product-consumer attitudes.

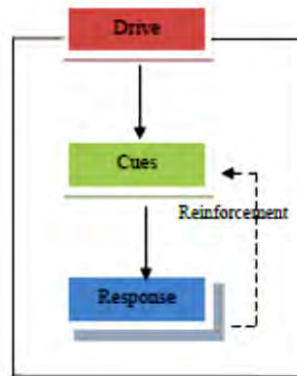
Learning motivates consumers to internalise brand communications and evaluate the brand message relative to their personalities leading to a formation of consumer-brand congruency (Kuenzel, et al., 2010). Where the alignment between learned knowledge about the brand and personality is high, stronger brand identification occurs, leading to increased brand consumption whilst the opposite would be true motivating the consumer to switch brands.

Brand learning can be initiated by consumers reacting to an external stimulus that influences their view of an event (Osborne, 2011) such as a change in the type of toilet system from a bucket system to a water based flushing system. This stimulus motivates consumers to search for and learn about the most appropriate product brands to use in cleaning and caring for the new toilet system. The other ways that consumers learn is through cognitive learning which occurs when consumers learn by imaging a problem in their head, contemplating how to resolve it and then taking practical steps to resolve it (Shi, et al., 2011). Toilet-care products are low involvement products which mean that the learning process is a very simple and uncomplicated process even in the case of cognitive learning.

Schiffman et al., (2007) sum up the learning process as involving four components which are drives, cues, responses and reinforcement. Figure 3.14 presents the learning process as

envisaged by Schiffman et al., (2007). A consumer drive prompts the consumer to seek information about the problem at hand.

**Figure 3.14: The learning process**



**Source:** Schiffman and Kannuk (2007)

Cues serve as a stimulus that gives direction to consumer motives during a need fulfilment process. For example, an advertisement for toilet-care cleaning products showing germs flying and infecting the toilet environment may serve as a cue to consumers, who may suddenly realise that they need to disinfect their toilets with a germ killing toilet-care cleaner such as Domestos to prevent germs and disease. The response from such a cue is to the purchase of the toilet-care cleaning brand to solve the problem. When the brand is purchased and used, the reinforcement occurs if the results are positive, however if the results are negative, there would be no reinforcement.

### **3.13.5. Personality and Consumer Brand Decision-Making**

Kotler et al., (2009:321) view personality as “the inner psychological characteristics that determine and reflect how a person responds to his or her environment.” It can be deduced from this definition that personality is an individual’s arrangement of characteristics which influence how a consumers responds to a stimulus. The behavioural responses when combined with brand personality determine brand choices. Brand personality can be defined as a “set of human characteristics associated to a brand,” (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000:42). The human like characteristics that are alluded to in this definition are anchored in the interaction between a consumer and a brand. The assumption is that a brand has a personality that is reflective of a consumer’s personality and where the two personalities match, the consumer-brand

congruency results in increased brand consumption that may develop into brand loyalty. Parker (2009) proposes that the congruence experienced between the brand and the individual or between brand image, and self-image as the foundational process that creates brand personality. It flows from this view that product brand decisions are heavily influenced by the degree of the brand-personality congruity that consumers experience when they engage with a brand.

In conclusion, it can be noted that the explanations provided by the Generic decision model and the EBK model present a structured framework to the understanding of how consumers make decisions, however it needs to be recognised that there are many other factors and different approaches that consumers may follow. The essence of these models and other consumer decision models as evaluated in this research study is to inform the process of developing a structured approach in investigating the research objectives.

### **3.14. Criticisms of the Rational Consumer Decision Methodologies**

The contribution of the economics has resulted in more refined insights about consumer brand decision-making behaviour however the model has inherent shortfalls which are rooted in the modelling assumptions used to frame consumer behaviour. At the core of the rational approach is the assumption that a consumer seeks to maximise utility. For a consumer to maximise utility, one must start by accurately forecasting all possible outcomes that can be experienced in satisfying one's utility (Kahneman and Thaler, 2006). In reality this is neither true nor possible, as the consumer is faced with limited information about the utility that can be derived from the different brands in the consideration set. The challenge becomes complicated in cases where the individual consumer's estimations are consistently biased, then the concurrent brand choice will fail consistently to attain maximum brand satisfaction or utility.

The view of consumers creating a consideration set and ranking brands or products differently in terms of preferences so as to maximise utility poses another challenge in the understanding of consumer behaviour. Kapeller, Shultz, and Steinerberger (2012:41) argue that "a product or brand may be evaluated in explicit comparison with other products or brands (joint evaluation) or on its own (separate evaluation) thereby, making it is possible that during preference ranking, two product brands may be different when compared explicitly to each other than when evaluated jointly." This argument indicates that it is not necessarily possible for a

consumer to efficiently rank products because the context within which a brand decision is made can influence the outcome.

The rational approach to consumer choice presents a rational being capable of classifying different brands into either substitute and/or complementary products. In so doing, the consumer is able to make different consideration sets and then choose the most optimal product to optimise the utility derived. However, several researchers, inter-alia, Kapeller et al., (2012:49), and Johannessen and Kumar (2008) argue that the assumed consumer process of categorising products into substitute and complimentary goods has not been adequately explained by rational approach proponents.

Kahneman et al., (2006) assert that modern decision theory ignores the distinction between decision utility and experienced utility. The implication of this oversight results in problems of how consumers frame preferences. At the core of the problem is whether preferences are constant with each other and with the propositions of a consumer who behaves in a rational manner. The difficult answer to the aforementioned question lies in whether consumers can meet the necessary condition for utility-optimising brand decisions which are an ability of a rational consumer to make perfect projections of the outcomes on potential brand choices.

The use of choice rules by consumers poses problems in consumer behaviour analysis because it assumes that consumers have rules that they follow when making brand choice decisions (Kahneman et al., 2006). The assumption is that when consumers develop brand choices, they use one of three kinds of decision rules which can be “compensatory, disjunctive, or conjunctive” (Kahneman et al., 2006:232). Under this structural view, the assumption is that it is possible to recover the mix of these rules that are being used by consumers in brand decision making. The difficult with this approach is that it is not easy nor possible to determine the type or kind of decision rule that a consumer is applying when making a decision because the process is happening in the head of the consumer. The process can never be objectively verified and validated except to make assumptions upon assumptions on how the consumer arrived at a particular brand choice. Furthermore in cases when the choice rules do not align with the three decision rules categories, the resultant behavioural insights are worthless and at best limited in their practical use to guide marketers (Crawford and Pendakar, 2012).

Johannessen and Olaisen (2008) provide more criticisms on the rational modelling of consumer behaviour by arguing that consumer behaviour cannot be solely rationally based but needs to incorporate the psychological aspects. The two authors point out a number of psychological limitations pertaining to the utility theorem and these include,

- a) people can act or make brand decisions under the motivation of emotions with little or no reference to rational thinking
- b) people can make brand decisions impulsively without much thought due to an emotional stimulus
- c) people can make brand decisions using prior knowledge and experience which may not necessarily have been informed by logic and rationality
- d) people can make brand decisions out of habit and not rational thinking
- e) people can make decisions from a motivation of some expected positive future outcome if they consume the brand

The shortfalls in the rational approach as modelled by the classical and neoclassical economic theory and its subsequent derivative theories like heterogeneous theories, economic behavioural theories have led to alternative approaches in consumer decision modelling such as the psychological and sociological approaches. The latter approaches recognise rationality but do not anchor consumer behaviour modelling on rational behaviour alone. They consider and incorporate the dynamic nature of human behaviour from a holistic socio-psychological perspective.

### **3.15. Sociological and Psychological Methodologies**

The ascendances of alternative explanations to consumer behaviour have been the result of the one dimensional approach of standard economic theory in modelling consumers as unsociable beings and anchoring all its assumptions on individualism (Johannessen et al., 2008; Crawford and Pndakur, 2012). According to Billot (2011) the assumptions by standard economic theory portray individual consumer behaviour as being unaffected by other individuals' behaviours. In essence, this means that brands are simply a means of utility provision, a position which MacInnis, Park and Priester (2009) dispute, arguing that the relationship between brands and individuals carries both psychological and behavioural relationships.

The brand relationship concept between the brand and consumer is complex and multifaceted involving the entire economic, social and psychological being of the consumer. Berger, Jonah and Ward (2010:557) analysed the social aspect of brand relationship and concluded that “brands may become an active relationship partner for the consumer and provide meanings in a psycho-socio-cultural context.” It is apparent that product brands carry complex social, emotive and normative attributes that consumers seek in satisfying their functional, attitudinal and behavioural needs. The same view is echoed by Catalin et al., (2013:104) who sums the multidimensional permutations of brand relationship. Billot (2009) cites Akerlof (1997) whose work on emerging theory of social interaction indicates that individuals are deeply motivated by social and emotional attributes in making brand choices.. Other researchers (Escalas, et al., 2009; Hornsey, 2012) further propose that the interaction between individuals and social groups is highly symmetrical in that the individuals’ decisions are influenced by the social, economic and psychological environment that the individuals exist in, concurrently the same environment is influenced by the decisions that the individuals’ make.

Lynn and Walker (2013) point out that sociological theories of ‘self,’ such as in the Social Identity Theory (SIT) and Identity Theory, posit that the development of interpersonal social relations is important in the construction of self and role identification. Elbedweihy and Jayawardhena (2014) cite Reed (2002) who proposed that social identity theory “may provide a better understanding of consumers’ psychological linkage to brands” of consumers. The importance of the aforementioned theory to the current study warrants more discussion.

### **3.15.1. Social Identity Theory and Consumer Choice**

The social identity theory is a socio-psychological theory that has been developed to help frame behavioural and cognitive aspects of group behaviour. The definition of what constitutes social identity is not homogeneous due to the different perspectives from which the term originates and how it is applied in marketing. Johnson et al., (2012:252) point out that social identity is a social behaviour that has been extensively used to gain insights into people’s relationships with their organisations. Haslam and Alexander (2004) propose that social identity is a theoretical framework that addresses the relationships among self-concept, group and intergroup relationships. Aguiar and de Francisco (2009:549) cite Fearon (1999) who defined social



identity as “a social category defined by membership rules and or expected behaviours or a socially distinguishing feature that a person takes special pride in or views as unchangeable but socially consequential, or both things at the same time.”

The core assumption in social identity is that belonging to a group assists in the solidification of self-definition. Homburg, Wieseke and Hoyer (2009:39) cite Tajfel (1981) who defined self-definition as “that part of the individual’s self-concept which derives from knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership.” The issue of self, in social identity is deemed to be reflexive, which means that it is capable to self-reflect by analysing its individual and group role behaviour from the past to the present and into the future enabling itself to act as an independent individual yet simultaneously act within a group. The ability of the self to self-differentiate and yet simultaneously self-identify with other people in a group, creates a unique framework in the understanding of how social systems influence brand choice decisions. This means that an individual can make a personalised brand choice decision yet at the same conform to a social group of choice.

Elbedweihy and Jayawardhena (2014) cite the scholarly works by Tajfel and Turner (1979) who proposed that people tend to classify themselves and others as members into various social categories in different complexities. The basic self-definitional categories include daughter, friend, mother, father and more complex definitions in South Africa include previously disadvantaged people, affirmative action groups, etc. These social categories are formed by issues that may arise from social constructs due to influences of culture, society, peer groups and even marketers. Consumer are involved in many different groups which can reflect their identity yet consumers selectively choose to actively participate in specific groupings which are more congruent with their aspirations and social needs. The self-relevant social categories are defined as the consumer’s social identity (Hogg & Reid, 2006; Hornsey, 2012). Consumer’s self-identity can be expressed in marketing terms through brand choice with consumers choosing brands that enable them to ‘self-express’ their identity and personality (Kuenze & Halliday, 2010).

Social categorisation enables individual consumers to cognitively segment, classify and order their social environment, and also provide them with the platform that motivate them to differentiate themselves from others. Hornsey (2012) studied how consumers identify themselves with brands by using idiographic analysis and confirmed a positive correlation between self-definition and brand consumption. Keller (2008) alludes that brands have the capacity to deliver critical self-expressive functions to consumers.

Homburg et al., (2009) assert that social identity theory views individuals as aiming to achieve positive self-esteem by trying to enhance their social identity. This motivates individuals to perform favourable behaviours on behalf of the social category which they identify with. Elbedweihi and Jayawardhena (2014) cite Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher and Wetherell (1987) who introduced two critical terms of in-group and 'out-of group' behaviour to understanding how self-behaves in a group setting. An individual who belongs to a group is said to be in-group and he/she mostly conforms to the group norms and behaviour. According to social identity theory, the individual's behaviour or categorisation is highly symmetrical to the group behaviour in that he/she sees things from a group perspective. Social categorization portrays an individual fulfilling a dual role; firstly it allows individuals to cognitively segment; classify and order their social environment. Secondly, it provides individuals with a means to define themselves and others (van Veelen, Otten, & Hansen, 2013:545).

The Social Identity theory recognises that self-development motivates people to self-categorise themselves into uniquely self-defined groups that expresses their unique identity. Homburg et al., (2009:42) argue that "people strive for positive self-esteem and try to accomplish this by enhancing their social identity". Townsend and Sood (2012) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between product choice and self-esteem in highly aesthetic products. In the experiment, participants' sense of self was either affirmed or disaffirmed. Consumers were asked to choose between products varying in aesthetic and functional value. The results from the study showed that participants whose sense of self was disaffirmed prior to product choice were more likely to choose a highly aesthetic product, indicating that the desire to affirm self.

The assumption in social identity is that group membership contributes to self-development or self-definition. Homburg, et al., (2009) cite Tajfel (1981:225) who defines self-definition as

“that part of the individual’s self-concept which derives from knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership.” The degree of attachment and identification with a particular group influences a consumer’s product choice behaviour as the consumer would try to reconcile ‘self’ with group behaviour yet simultaneously allow ‘self’ to self-express. There are three broad types of reference group to which an individual consumer can identify with which are information groups, utilitarian groups and value expressive groups (Pion, 2014; Chernev, Hamilton & Gal, 2011). The degree of influence from each of these group types will vary, depending on the type of product being consumed.

Escalas and Bettman (2009) conducted a study using the Visual Basic Program and found that participants chose products that were congruent with those of an in-group and avoided products with images congruent with that of an out-of-group. These results suggest that reference groups may influence an individual’s self-brand connection, and subsequently influence consumer brand choice behaviour. The conclusion of this study revealed that social behaviour can be influenced by brand associations derived from one’s own group (in-group) versus groups to which one does not belong (out-of-group).

The theoretical principles of social identity theory can be summed up from various authors such as Elbedweihy and Jayewardene (2014), Johnson, Morgeson and Hekman (2012), as:

- a) consumers consciously desire to uphold and perpetuate good personal images in the society
- b) consumers compare and differentiate themselves according to different groups
- c) there are two types of social groupings in which consumers can belong to and these are called the ‘in-group’ and ‘out-group’
- d) an ‘in-group’ is deemed to be superior to the ‘out-group’ if the self-image benefits from the ‘in-group’ appear to be better than the ‘out-group’ membership benefits

### **3.15.2. Identity Theory and Consumer Choice**

The Identity Theory (ID) is another theoretical approach that investigates and explains how individuals behave in making decisions in different social contexts. The theory has its roots in the field of psychology where it views ‘self’ as fulfilling a role within a group context. The role

fulfilment involves fulfilling individual expectations, synchronising and exchanging benefits with other role players and influencing the social interaction so as to control the means for which the role has responsibility (Klipfel et al., 2014; Shiraz, 2013).

A condensed view from the literature on Identity Theory (ID) indicates there are five key tenets that make up and slightly differentiate it from social identity theory (White & Dahl, 2007; Walker et al., 2014; van Veelen, Otten and Hansen, 2013). The core of ID theory are that:

- a) it focuses more behavioural outcomes within a group;
- b) the role of an individual belonging and performing within a group results in the entrenchment of self-esteem;
- c) it focuses more on exchanges and outcomes that are created by the different members of the group;
- d) it centres more on intragroup structures; and
- e) it separates identity activation from salience.

The key attributes of the Identity Theory serve to highlight the role that individuals fulfil in a group setting when making decisions. It is evident that the theory proposes a far more social approach to decision making, compared to the rational theory. This research study adopts the insights ID theory to build the research constructs on social behaviour that will be empirically tested among the research sample.

### **3.15.3. Social Theory and Consumer behaviour**

The current study recognises the differences and similarities between the Social Identity Theory (SIT) and the Identity Theory (ID), however, for the purpose of this research; the study adopts a combined view of the two approaches to consumer behaviour in the form of a generalised Social Theory. The current research evaluates and draws insights from Social Theory based on the proposition that consumers can satisfy their social and functional needs for assimilation and differentiation through brand consumption from different social contexts (Chan, Berger, & Van Boven, 2012). This can be achieved through a single brand choice which satisfies different needs and motives of the consumer. The brand choice dimensions according to Chan et al., (2012) can include product selection that allows them to communicate desired

social identities (e.g., a brand preferred by an in-group), while also differentiating within the group (e.g. a less popular product from that brand).

The generalised social theory evaluates self enhancement as an antecedent to consumer identification which portrays how consumers purchase product brands and use them to advance their self-esteem. Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) used the Company- Customer- Identity (CCI) concept to propose that that people aim to categorise themselves together prestigious product brands or companies so that they can project a positive social identity and augment their self-esteem by associating themselves with the positive outcomes from the company's image. Prestigious companies usually market prestigious brands and such brands are classified as conspicuous brands because they enable consumers to reflect their desired high social status (He, Li & Harris, 2011). Prestigious brands usually provide functional and symbolic needs of consumers. In respect of this research, the toilet care consumers who have high self-enhancement needs may be seen to be using the latest innovations in their toilet cleaning rituals. The toilet-care brand innovations in the South African context would be the use of Toilet Duck Sticks, multi-layered Mr Muscle 4-in-1 toilet cleaner or complementary in-the-cistern blocks and liquid toilet deodorisers. These products would enhance the self –definitional needs of consumers by enhancing their image to other people who visit their homes.

Alicke and Sedikides (2009) suggest that self-enhancement develops when consumers believe that a brand is of high reputation among different social groupings. The main drivers in the making of a brand to become prestigious involve its functional and social attributes such as image, reputation and perceived identity. The consumption of brands that possess such attributes would be articulated by consumers as a major source of self enhancement because these attributes deliver greater social benefits than other product brands Baek, Kim and Yu (2010)

The generalised Social Theory recognises self-distinctiveness as an antecedent to consumer identity. A consumer group is defined as “a set of individuals who hold a common social identification or view themselves as members of the same social category” (van Vellen et al., 2013:544). This definition finds application in the current research with different social groups creating self-distinctiveness. Households in the RDP (extension 2, 4 and 6) section of Cosmo

City identify themselves as beneficiaries of the government's social development to uplift the poor. Their attitude of entitlement motivates them to periodically strike for increase in free water, electricity and education services. On the other hand households in the affluent sections of Cosmo City (Extension 3, 5 and 7) view themselves as financially well off and do not allow survivalist or informal types business like "spazas" or 'mom and pop' shops in their areas, as they view these as lowering the value of their houses. These "in-group" and 'out-of group' self-distinctiveness reflects the different attitudinal, cognitive and behavioural behaviours of different groups.

The other antecedents to brand choice recognised by social theory in self-identity, include perceived quality, satisfaction and communication. Perceived quality is defined by Porral et al., (2015:103) as "a consumer's perception of the overall quality of the brand but this is not necessarily based on knowledge of the brand's specifications." The implication of this perspective is that consumers are able to estimate the product brand quality through brand cues such as colour, name and images while simultaneously enabling consumers to match the estimated brand quality with the desired personal identity (Labrecque, Krishen and Grzeskowiak, 2011). In a case where there is positive perceived match, consumers will buy the brand and try it out but where there is a perceived mismatch, the consumers will continue to seek a brand that is more congruent to their needs.

The antecedent of perceived brand quality has been found to result in a positive association between store brands and brand loyalty (Beneke, Flynn, Greg & Mukaiwa, 2013). In the framework of this research, consumers are assumed to be able to approximate some quality relationships between a retailer store and its brand such as PnP and its "Go Green" Toilet brand or between Spar store and its Spar toilet cleaner. This link is framed in the research hypothesis and then investigated to find out if consumers remain loyal or switch brands as they change places of dwelling or residence.

Brand satisfaction as another antecedent to consumer identification is derived from an interaction between a brand and a consumer. The consumption experience from a brand that a consumer derives determines the level of satisfaction. Brand satisfaction according to He, et al., (2011:649) can be viewed as "the degree to which a brand's performance meets a consumer's expectations and it influences the degree of consumer dependence on the brand."

Sondoh, Omar, Wahid, Ismail and Haru (2007:88) conclude that a “brand’s benefits such as functional, social, experiential, and appearance positively influences consumer satisfaction.” It can be summed up that consumer’s perception of a brand image and proposed benefits influences consumer-brand identification. Consumers will closely identify with brands that have relevance to their personal needs. The greater the congruency between personal needs and brand benefits the greater the degree of satisfaction and patronage (Sanchezi-Garcia, et al., 2012). For example, the need for deep cleaning a toilet would be satisfied by a brand like Jeyes which has such functional attributes, a need for freshness would be satisfied by Toilet Duck, and germ killing by Domestos. The aforementioned link between brand benefits and brand choice is investigated by the research instrument with the aim to understand the impact of a change in place of dwelling and desired toilet-care cleaning brand benefits.

Kang et al., (2015) view brand resonance as how well a brand’s message permeates the consumers’ minds and lives. Brand resonance may be viewed as the extent to which a person feels about the brand, how the brand resonates or connects with the consumer. Brand resonance as a concept in brand management indicates the association and degree of attachment that a consumer enjoys with a specific brand of choice. In cases of groups, the greater the degree of group identification, the greater will be the emotional bonding among its members which has the potential of an intense brand loyalty as consumers attempt to identify themselves with the group and brand usage becomes the link different group members. In cases of deeply entrenched brand resonance, consumers tend to exhibit a high degree of brand loyalty which is supported by a close affiliation with the brand to an extent that the consumers are willing to actively seek different means to interact with the brand and share their experiences with others.

The generalised Social Identity theory recognises that individuals consume brands to communicate their self-image and to also convey social status (Sutikno (2011)). The concept of self-image in consumer choice is reflected by the choice of products, brands and service chosen by consumers whose images are congruent to the self. Self-congruity can be deemed as simply a process that reflects the compatibility between self and brand or between an individual’s personality and brand personality. Klipfel et al., (2014:134) cite Johar and Sirgy (1991) who define self-congruity as “the match between the product’s value-expressive attributes (product-

user image) and the audience's self-concept." The definition simply seeks to articulate the degree of compatibility or mismatch between a brand and the self.

Kang, Tang and Lee (2015) add that self-congruity is a function of two aspects, that of self-congruity and functional-congruity. In this line of thought, one can propose that the greater the degree of self-congruity, the greater the degree of affective loyalty, that is, emotional preference for a brand which leads to satisfaction, preference and customer cognitive consistency (Coleman and Williams, 2013). Customers are deemed to seek a match between product-user image and their own self-concept. In the context of this study, this relationship can be argued as follows: customers who view themselves as having high social status would tend to choose luxurious toilet-care cleaning products that have rich fragrances as compared to people who deem themselves as having a low social status.

Klipfel, et al., (2014) cite Sirgy (1982) who builds and expands on the concept of self-image and effects on brand choice by identifying four components that drive the self-image and product image similarity. These are:

**Positive self-congruity** – is a self-image- brand image relationship that compares the positive product-image perception and a positive self-image belief. The consumer will seek to maximise the positive value expressive attributes in the brand that match with his/her self-image.

**Positive self-incongruity:** this is a comparison between a positive product-image perception and a negative self-image belief. The consumer will seek to maximise function and value expressive attributes as they enhance self-image.

**Negative self-congruity:** is a comparison between a negative product-image perception and a negative self-image belief. Products and brand that have such a correlation are not included in the consumer's consideration set.

**Negative self-incongruity:** this is a consumer state where the comparison is between the negative product-image perception and a positive self-image belief. In instances like



these, a consumer will seek to minimise the effects or reduce brand consumption as it negatives self-image growth.

The deduction from the aforementioned discussion is that self-brand congruity impacts the attitudes of consumers towards different brands by projecting to others in the society the value of a brand and significance in differentiating oneself from others (Tsai, 2011:5522). A positive brand attitude is expected to occur if the similarity between brand image and the consumer's self-image is congruent leading to greater brand loyalty and higher brand usage. The opposite being true whereby a negative self-congruity results in a mismatch between self-image of a consumer and that of a brand.

The generalised Social Identity approach enables this study to fuse the role of group identity and group categorisations and make it the point of the analysis between social behaviour and brand choice. The basis of identity in the form of role identity also allows the study to recognise that individuals within a household play a specific role in decision making in deciding the kind of brands to buy yet being constrained by group category in the form of a family (Weit et al., 2013). In this regard an individual will define, fulfil and manipulate the family group setup yet simultaneously, try to conform to it so as to maximise their utility. The insights into group behaviour as highlighted in the proceeding paragraphs are critical in this study as it helps highlight the non-utilitarian drivers to brand consumption and brand switch.

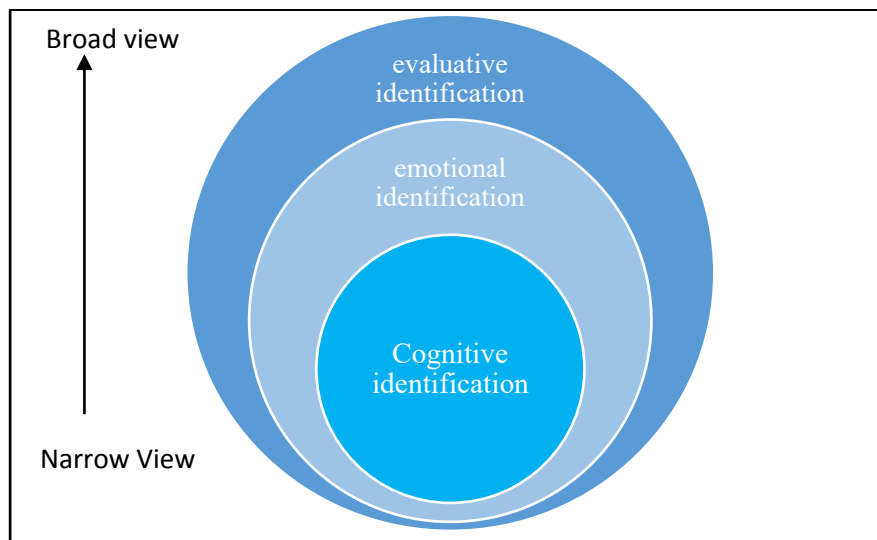
#### **3.15.4. Social Theory and Consumer Decision Making**

The tenets of Social Identity (SI) theory influencing social behaviour have been extended into marketing to investigate and understand individuals or people's relationships with organisations, as in the case of Bhattacharya and Sen (2003), and Catalan et al., (2013), who studied linkages between brand choice as lifestyle expression and consumer behaviour whilst Chernev et al., (2011) examined the consequences of consumer identity and impact of lifestyle change on brand decisions. Lam, Ahearne and Schillewaert (2010, 2012) extended the CCI concept to build the Relative Consumer Brand Identification (CBI) framework.

The extension of social theory into marketing has been achieved by investigating consumer identification from a psychological state to a cognitive state. The transitory investigation as

presented by Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) proposes that companies and brands embody positive, attractive and meaningful social identities that partially fulfil a number of different consumers' key self-definitional needs therefore, consumer identification is much more than a psychological state. These propositions are captured by Elbedweihy et al., (2014) in Figure 3.15 which illustrates the different perspectives to consumer identification as applicable to marketing.

**Figure 3.15: Consumer Identification: Different perspective**



**Source:** Elbedweihy et al., (2014)

The first perspective on social identity recognises the cognitive aspect of consumer identification which can be deemed as a narrow perspective of self-identification (Elbedweihy et al., 2014). It is deemed narrow because it seeks to define the brand –consumer relationship, within the relational context of an organisation and an employee. The stage of cognitive identification when extended to consumer behaviour indicates a state of self-categorization which reflects an individual's awareness of the role that one fulfils in the group set up and its operations. A key assumption underlying the cognitive view is based on the notion that this cognitive identification is different from related emotional and behavioural concepts (Charamine et al., 2013).

The second level in the definition of identification is the emotional identification stage. Emotional identification in consumer identification is epitomised by a strong connection that joins a consumer with a particular brand which has been selected from an evoked set and it

involves deep feelings of affection, and links with the brand. Park et al., (2010) add that at this stage, the consumer has a well-developed brand salience, cognitive and affective bonds which connect a brand to the self. The net result is a closely symmetrical reflection between the brand and self, high brand loyalty and very low brand switching.

The third tier of consumer identification is made up of evaluative identification which can be viewed as the most advanced articulation of consumer identification and would reflect a consumer's perceived state of oneness with a brand. Lam et al., (2010:137) defines this stage of consumer identification as “a stage where the consumer evaluates he psychological oneness with the brand is valuable to him or her individually and socially.”

In essence, consumer brand identity explores the attitudinal and behavioural drivers which motivate consumers to categorise themselves with a brand resulting in the patronage of the selected brand. The primary motivating factor to such consumer behaviour is the recognition that consumers are social beings who seek to affirm their individual uniqueness in the society and associated groupings (Elbedweihy et al., 2014). The consequent of the social affiliation and differentiation need mandates consumers to consume brands a unique act of expressing self while simultaneously differentiating self from other groups.

Elbedweihy and Jayewardene (2014:211) sum up the consumer brand identity (CBI) perspective by proposing that “the consumer’s social identity can be observed through the consumer’s self-definitional needs of “self –continuity, self-enhancement and self-distinctiveness”. Self-continuity as aforementioned can be regarded as an antecedent of consumer identification which motivates consumers to sustain stability, consistence and continuity of inter-personal relations within and out-side group settings. The propositions of self-congruence posit that consumers selectively consume and possess brands for the simple reason, namely, of sustaining their self-image or entrenching self-esteem (Nam, Ekinci, Whyatt, 2011). This allows consumers to assimilate and process information quickly that preserves and maintains their identity even during the process of social mobility. For example, when consumers are confronted by an identity threat such as a change in the type and place of residence, consumers will quickly assess and process the threat in way that preserves and perpetuates self-continuity.

In the context of this research, when consumers' brand identity is disrupted by changes in the type and form of dwelling, with fundamentally different facilities, they enter into some rebalancing process of social mobility, social creativity and functional creativity to preserve their self-identity (Lam et al., 2010). This processing and adaptation to new conditions may force consumers to either functionally or socially re-evaluate the type, form and functionality of current toilet-care product brands leading to either entrenched brand loyalty or brand switching. The brands that are no longer relevant to ensure self-continuity are replaced (brand-switching) by new ones. Brand switching in this context is proposed to be motivated by a need to preserve self-continuity which aims at safeguarding the individual's self-concept (Klipfel, et al., 2014).

Self-continuity can also be exhibited by consumers engaging in brand consumption that perpetuates their values and norms. In this process consumers display an identity –congruent behaviour which Lam, et al., (2010) define as a behaviour that is consistent with the norms and values of the chosen identity.

This research proposes that the self-image or self-view that a person has of herself or himself influences the brands that they purchase, resulting in enhanced or diminished self-brand congruity. The research's proposition is that people in the RDP or freehold house section of Cosmo City (Ext 2, 4 and 6) view themselves as having achieved a certain improved status, therefore, they will buy and use relatively high quality toilet-care products. Previously they were using the 'bucket' toilet systems as they were living in the informal settlements, but now they use "water-based" flushing toilet systems. The change in their sanitary environment would motivate them to use relatively better quality product brands, whilst the rest of the study area population would continue to use high quality toilet care products (as before), as they continue to preserve their self-identity from their previous homes prior to moving into Cosmo City.

### **3.16. Lifestyle and Consumer Behaviour**

The contribution of social theory to the understanding of consumer behaviour has also been through the social-psychological construct of lifestyle (Rao, Shariff, Shafi & Hasim, 2014). Lifestyle research when applied to consumer marketing refers to the manner in which product brands are used by consumers on a day to day basis through the examination of how a consumer

spends his money, time and efforts in pursuit with of self-interest (Rao, et al., 2014). Each individual's lifestyle reflects a person's values, life vision, aesthetic style and life goal (Vyncke, 2002). It can be assumed that the individual's consumption behaviour can be predicted from an understanding of how he/she represents his world to himself, if the details of his life style system are known (Krishnan, 2011).

Lifestyle profiles of consumers are formed through a combination of basic demographic insights which incorporates income, age, gender, education, occupation with other consumer activities, interests and opinions statements (Katigari and Monsef, 2015). It can be argued that the demographic information on its own is inadequate to present comprehensive portrait of consumers behaviour, however the incorporation of psychographics' information provides a better understanding of the wants and needs of the consumers (Krishnan, 2011). The resultant profiles create different typologies of consumers or psychographic profiles and consumer segments that marketers can use to study various types of consumer behaviour such as brand choice, product adoption, and response to marketing promotions, brand decisions, store loyalty personal inspirations and attitudes (Rao et al., 2014). Psychographic profiles provide different kinds of consumer information ranging from general information to specific information such as detailed information about brand switching in the toilet-care by consumers who have changed their place and type of dwelling.

Lifestyle patterns reveal a person's "activities, interests, and opinions" (AIO's) as presented in Table 3.2, and what opinions they have about themselves (Krishnan, 2011). Kotler et al., (2009:189) expresses the same thought on lifestyles as he explains that lifestyle is a "person's pattern of living in the world as expressed in activities, interests and opinions." The human aspects that can be classified as activities are manifested in actions such as entertainment, work, hobbies, social events, vacation, clubs, community, shopping, sports whilst aspects that fall under interest include among others events or topics such as family, home, job, community, recreation, fashion, food, media, achievements, etc. Opinions are defined as descriptive beliefs of oneself, social issues, politics, business, economics, education, products, future, culture, etc. The definition by Blackwell et al., (2006) of lifestyle links lifestyle with social behaviour especially in the form of self-concept.

**Table 3.2: AIO Model of Consumer Lifestyle**

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

Source: Solomon et al., 2007

### **3.16.1. Lifestyle and Brand Choice**

Brand communication is a powerful tool that projects the functionality of brands in the market, and consumers search for brands that present meaning and value proposition to them. Marketers have long realised that brands have the ability to convey crucial information that can be interpreted in a number of various ways by different consumers (Catalin et al., 2010). The ability of brands to act as information conduits motivates consumers to consume brands that aligned to their personality and lifestyle.

The consumption of brands that reflect specific consumer lifestyles leads to the growth of unique consumer definitions and self-concepts (Katigari et al., 2011). Consumers tend to choose brands that allow or enable them to ‘self-express’ and differentiate themselves from other people and the act of choosing a particular brand means that an individual is reaffirming their own and other people's perception about his desired identity (Nam et al., 2011). This is a critical deduction as it reveals that consumers do not only purchase product brands for their functional utility but also for their social needs, in a bid to portray their lifestyle. In general the

lifestyle concept assumes that consumers analyse how a brands relate to their life goals, interest, values and use them to 'self-express' their identity to the 'out-of group' members of the society.

The relationship between lifestyle and brand choice is depicted by the choice of brands that consumers make in relation to how the brand impacts consumer's lifestyle. Consumers will prefer brands that "fit" into their lifestyle and disregard brands that do not reinforce their self-image in a positive manner (Catalin et al 2014). Chernev et al., (2011) suggests that the need for self-expression by consumers is infinite because consumers are always seeking to fulfil their needs, and will be continue to consume the product brand until all their needs have been met in a desirable manner. The idea of "self-signalling" as a driver of people's decisions is consistent with the notion that by revealing their preferences, consumers derive self-diagnostic utility from choice, allowing them to discover or define their own preferences (Chernev et al., 2011). This indicates that consumers are conscious of the type of their lifestyle and would actively engage brands that enhance, promote and communicate it to others. It can be concluded therefore that lifestyle fulfils an important moderating effect on brand choice decisions and this is captured in the research questionnaire.

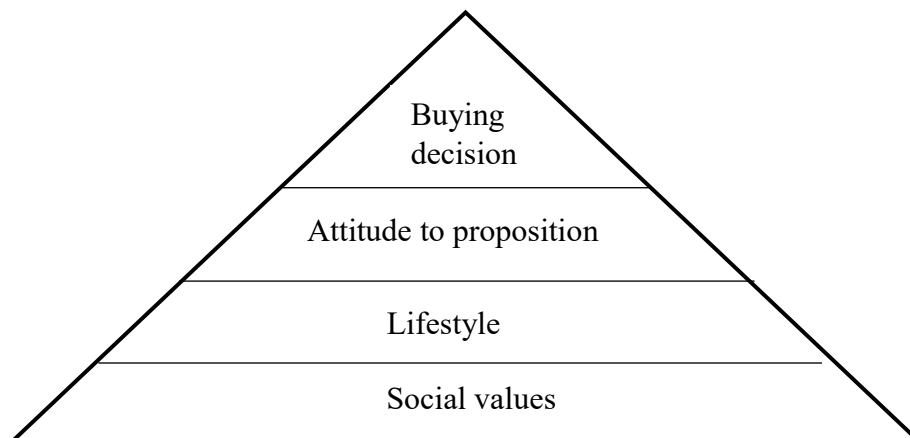
A study by Catalin et al., (2014:106) indicates that "brands serve as an instrument for expressing certain preferences regarding lifestyle in circumstances where identity satiation is strong." The conclusions are in line with those of McGovern and Moon, (2007:58) who also found a "positive and significant relationship between lifestyle and brand choice." Krishnan, (2014) used the lifestyle tool to test different types of family segments and conclude that the family oriented cluster segment has members who are active in seeking information about different product brands. These consumers tend to purchase more frequently, visit a variety of stores and exhibitions to compare the product, style, quality, price before they make their final choice.

Lifestyle and brand choice are closely related through self-expressive functionality of brands. Consumers consume brands that are highly reflective of their lifestyle through a brand choice process called conspicuous brand consumption. This is a term used to describe the acquisition of products mainly for the purpose of attaining or maintaining social status (Chernev et al., 2011). Conspicuous consumption involves extravagant spending on brands for the purpose of

self-expression by displaying income or wealth, thereby communicating a certain consumer status to society. This involves the consumption of prestigious brands so as to project a position of wealth, sophistication or knowledge to others. The reasons may be many and varied, but what is obvious in conspicuous brand consumption is that brands are chosen and consumed for the sole purpose of communicating and projecting a specific social status to others.

The concept of lifestyle and its relationship with consumer brand choice behaviour is illustrated in Figure 3.16. Kaze et al., (2011) propose a model that incorporates lifestyle and social behaviour in consumer brand choice where various consumer psychographics are depicted. Kaze et al., (2011) indicate that in reality the different consumer psychographics are intertwined but for the purposes of developing purchasing model it's easier to model them in a hierarchy.

**Figure 3.16: Consumer Purchasing Decision Process**



**Source:** Kaze et al., (2011)

The initial stage in the consumer purchasing decision model involves the role of social values in influencing brand choice. Kaze et al., (2011) argues that lifestyles patterns are fashioned and shaped by the primary beliefs and values of the society from which the consumers live and participate in through different social groups. It can be proposed that the social values of an individual have an influence in moderating and directing brand choice behaviour that can be biased towards certain brands at the exclusion of others (Pandey & Pandey, 2013). For example, environmentally conscious people believe that society would be better off if its preserved through the use of ozone friendly products hence their bias towards biodegradable



toilet-care product brands that have less harmful chemicals. This kind of social bias ensures that the product brands that are consumed provide both functional benefits or utility and social benefits that are anticipated by consumers (Schiffman, et al., 2015).

Brand symbols have been observed to offer consumers an avenue to engage brands in a more meaningful manner which allows them to make more informed brand choice decisions. To this end, Jansson-Body (2010:59) proposed that “individuals not only define themselves in terms of possessions, but also define others based on their possessions.” The aspect of self definition by possessions is usually expressed through conspicuous consumption (Labrecque et al., 2011). The lifestyle methodology to consumer brand choice proposes that we can tell the kind of brand decisions from the lifestyle that one leads.

Vyncke (2002) observes the manner in which brand communications are received and interpreted in making brand decisions is heavily influenced by the lifestyle of consumers. The field of marketing has used the lifestyle concept to understand consumer behaviour through the use of psychographics studies. Psychographics is a term that is used to identify, define and segment different consumer profiles so as to study their behaviour (Jansson-Boyd, 2010). Psychographics involves a combination study of consumer demographics and psychology. The application of psychographic analysis in consumer behaviour assist in the creation of all-inclusive consumer profiles yielding richer insights on consumer thinking patterns and actions.

Rao et al., (2014) sum up the contribution of psychographics in consumer market research as having been used primarily for the purposes of market segmentation that has resulted in:

- a) Identification and classification of target markets. Psychographic frameworks offer comprehensive insights that help in identifying and explaining consumer buying and consumption patterns because the approach incorporates many different measurement variables. Psychographic studies also help in understanding consumer behaviour in the market place, and how specific segments of consumers interact with brands and products. In the context of this research, the examination is on how Cosmo City residents (consumers) have been interacting with toilet-care brands since relocating to

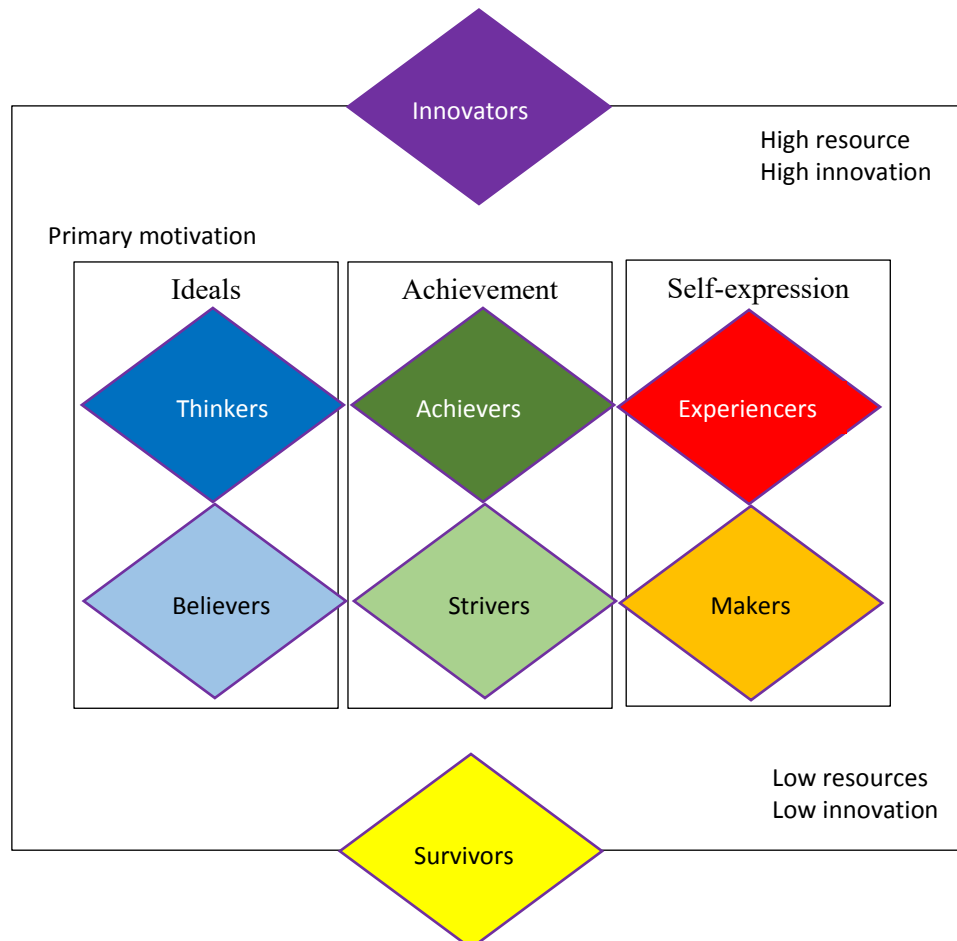
Cosmo City with the aim of understanding how a disruptive external factor has influenced their brand choice.

- b) Holistic explanations on consumer behaviour. Psychographic research advances cutting edge approaches to analysing market behaviour of different consumer segments. These insights encompass brand switching and brand loyalty drivers, brand attitudes, etc
- c) Psychographic approaches enable the deployment of strategic marketing thinking both at planning and execution phases of brand management. The contribution of psychographic insights comes in the form of guiding marketers in the planning of product development and launches, in-store placement and communication of the brand message and lastly in the effective management of the brand's competitive value proposition.
- d) Introduction of new and innovative products to the market. Psychographics improves early product adoption and diffusion in the market as the new products are relatively in sync with the target market and product rejection and failure are minimised.
- e) Minimisation of risk on new products and business ventures. Risk minimisation and management is improved when psychographics are included in the early stages of product testing and development as this brings better alignment between the new products and target consumer market. Essentially the result is a better consumer-brand congruency.

There are a number of different approaches in the use of psychographics to study consumer behaviour and these include among others, Attitude, Interest and Opinions model (AIO), the Value and Lifestyle (VALS) model and Living Standards Measure model (LSM). Vyncke, (2002) notes that the AIO approach guides in the development of important lifestyle typologies by using the technique of cluster analysis. The VALS model presented in Figure 3.17 classifies people into nine different segments which are then researched through approximately 34 questions. The questions that constitute the VALS approach stretch from general questions that probe consumer attitudes, to specific demographic and behavioural questions that seek to extract more specific consumer patterns. Blackwell et al., (2006) adds that in the VALS

approach, “consumers buy products and services and seek experiences that fulfill their characteristic preferences and give a shape, substance, and satisfaction to their lives.”

**Figure 3.17: VALS (value and lifestyles) framework**



**Source:** Roger, Blackwell, Miniard (2006)

Vyncke (2002) cites Gunter and Furnham (1992) who pointed out that irrespective of the approach or methodology used to profile consumer lifestyle, there are three levels of profiling that should be adhered to and these are:

- a) Product brand profiling. This approach to lifestyle segmentation focuses on segmenting consumers using product attributes. Consumers are segmented according to how they engage different product type and/or how they use them. Consequently their purchase behavior related to product brand specification is used to create refined product brand consumer segments. The product specific method when contextualised to this

research would have consumer segments which may include: green label or environmental friendly toilet-care product brands, scale removal toilet-care consumer segment, fragranced toilet-care consumer segment etc

- b) General segmentation approach which creates consumers segments from general consumer patterns or commonly observable characteristics such as geographical location, demographic variable like age, gender, etc
- c) Psychological segmentation methods which classifies consumers according to their psychological characteristics such as lifestyle or personality traits.

The current research will utilise the LSM Lifestyle methodology to study consumer behaviour because part of the study is based on the theoretical model to examine the impact of social mobility in consumers as they deal with an external disruptive force in the form of a change in dwelling place. The insights from the LSM were modelled into the structured questionnaire so as to adequately assess how a change in lifestyle influences social mobility leading to brand switching or increased brand loyalty.

LSMS surveys tend to use small samples, usually in the order of 2,000 to 5,000 households (Grosh and Glewwe, 1998). Living standards measure (LSM) according to South African Advertising Foundation (SAAF 2015) can be viewed as a market segmentation tool that segments individual or markets based on socio-economic status. The model in the South African context was developed by the South African Advertising Foundation which is a non-profit organisation that profiles changes in the South African populations' socio-economic status. The South African LSM model as depicted in Table 3.3 has a set of 29 questions and a ten point classification scale ranging from LSM Group 1-10 with each group representing a different socio-economic group. The lowest LSM group is Group 1 representing people or individuals with the lowest status, whilst the highest LSM group is 10, which refers to those of highest status. The LSM model uses variables such as possession of goods, access to services and facilities, various media types and a range of demographics.

**Table 3.3: SAARF Universal Living Standards Measure (LSM)**

Variable number	Attribute
1	Hot running water
2	Refrigerator of combined fridge/freezer
3	Microwave
4	Flush toilet in/outside house
5	No domestic workers or household helpers in household
6	Video Cassette Player/recorder
7	Vacuum cleaner/ floor polisher
8	No cell phones in household
9	Traditional hut
10	Washing machine
11	Personal computer
12	Electric stove
13	Television set
14	Tumble dryer
15	Home telephone
16	0 or 1 radio set in household
17	Hi-fi/ music centre
18	Rural (excluding Western Cape and Gauteng rural)
19	Built-in kitchen sink
20	Home security service
21	Deep freezer
22	Water- running water in the household
23	Pay TV subscription
24	Dishwashing machine
25	Electricity
26	Sewing machine
27	Gauteng
28	Western Cape
29	Motor vehicles in the households

**Source:** SAARF 2015

The current study's main interest in the LSM proposition lies in items 4 and 22 which investigate whether a household has a water based flushing toilet system and piped running water. These variables are central to this research because they enable the researcher to

investigate the ‘before and after’ movement of a household with respect to toilet-care product brand usage. Respondents were asked in the survey questionnaire to indicate their previous toilet system.. It’s assumed in the research that households who previously had flushing toilet systems using running water would have been using some kind of toilet-care cleaning products, whilst those using non-flushing toilets would have not been using any toilet-care cleaning products as they would have been using public ‘bucket’ toilets or the veld. The reaserch then cross references the two LSM variables with questions on the type and form of toilet-care product brand usage, to get deeper insight on the changes in using toilet-care product brands post the ‘social distructive factor’ being studied in this research.

### **3.17. Conclusions**

This chapter presented the literature reviewed aimed at creating a balanced overview of theories and previous research findings that underpin; shape and guide this study. The review provided structured theoretical insight into the study’s intentions to address the research objectives. The reviewed literature also presents a platform to frame the research methodology and appraisal of the research findings. The chapter highlighted key theories that propose that consumer decision making is by and large influenced by rational or objective reasons, however, it is important to temper the rational approach with softer socio-psychological contributions which indicate that consumers are social beings who can make brand decisions based on social motives.

This research is motivated by the conclusions from the literature review that steer research to adopt a consumer brand choice approach that combines both functional and non-functional motivations, and also to investigate consumer decision-making outside normal or stable market conditions. In light of this, the next chapter presents the theoretical framework to the study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **4. Introduction**

The theoretical outline of this research study is motivated by the contributions of various researchers who have recognised that consumer behaviour cannot be solely explained by rational economic theory. Scholars such as Bhattacharya et al., (2003), Ahearn, Bhattacharya and Gruen (2005), Lam et al., (2010), Johnson et al., (2012), and Elbedweihy et al., (2014), have recognised the importance of understanding consumer behaviour by incorporating a social approach to marketing. In their studies, the aforementioned researchers treated social identity as a possible factor to explain consumer behaviour during both stable and unstable market conditions. The aforementioned authors' contributions provide the platform for this research, to extend the social identity perspective in explaining consumer behaviour during “disruptive out-of-market” conditions, such as a change in place and type of dwelling. The research analyses the impact of this “social out-of-market disruption” on consumer behaviour during product brand choice, by focusing on the toilet care product brand category.

#### **4.1. The Consumer Brand Identification (CBI) Theoretical Framework**

The concept of consumer brand identification (CBI) is important in consumer behaviour analysis as it helps to explain the reasons that motivate consumers to selectively consume some products at the exclusion of other product brands (Shirazi et al., 2013). The CBI concept and its application to consumer behaviour is not entirely new as previous studies have been conducted in this regard. This research makes use of and builds on existing research findings on CBI from academics such as Ahearne et al., (2005) who discovered that CBI can lead to higher product utilisation and positive personal communication or promotion of the brand's benefits. Elbedweihy, et al., (2014) also noted the close connection between CBI and brand preferences, and Lam et al., (2010) observed social mobility in CBI when consumers' identity is under threat. The aforementioned researches indicate that consumer brand identification has evolved over the decades from a narrow cognitive perspective to a multidimensional (cognitive and attitudinal) perspective.

Lam et al., (2010:130) defined CBI as “a customer's psychological state of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her belongingness with a brand”, whilst Escalas and Bettman (2009:379)

view CBI as “the extent to which a brand is incorporated into one’s self-concept through the development of cognitive connection with the brand, valuing this connection with the brand, and the emotional attachment to the brand. The aforementioned two definitions are appropriate to this study as they focus on the cognitive connection with the brand, and also on social mobility. The strength of these definitions lies in their incorporation of all three dimensions of CBI defined from a social perspective, which are cognitive CBI, evaluative CBI and affective CBI.

Consumer brand identification as a framework for studying consumer behaviour can be essential in that can be used to investigate and explain whether consumers remain loyal or switch brands when their identity is under threat. in the aforementioned context, brand identification is portrayed as the act of an individual choosing brands that reflect his/her social identity with the brand being the projector of the consumer’s identity (Rubio, Villasenor & Oubin, 2015).

The identity threat phenomenon can occur in cases such as the entry of a radically different competitive brand (Lam et al., 2010), a change in normal conditions or due to an external disruption as per proposition of this research. These identity threats motivate consumers to respond differently by either protecting or adjusting or maintaining their identity relative to the brand and “in-or-out-of” group relationships.

Figure 4.1 is a modified variation of the Relative CBI model suggested by Lam et al., (2010). The original model had two perspectives, one which focused on consumer behaviour under normal conditions, and another which focused on consumer behaviour under “not so normal or abnormal” conditions, following a disruptive market condition like the introduction of an innovative brand. Lam et al., (2010) argued “the introduction of a radically new brand causes customers of current brands to reconsider their existing relationships with those brands along these two dimensions before deciding whether to switch”. The two dimensions are functional-utitarian brand evaluation and the social-identity comparisons.

A functional brand comparison between the current and the new brand creates a threat that makes consumers respond by functionally comparing the benefits and costs of the brand (Lam



et al., 2010). In a case where the new brand's net benefits are lower than the current brand's, consumers will remain loyal to it. However, a functional comparison that results in net benefits favouring the new brand, consumers will undertake brand switching. If the new brand is deemed to yield better functional utility, then brand switching occurs. This results in a semi-permanent alteration of the consumption pattern for the household.

It is posited that the first action taken by consumers experiencing a threat to their identity is a functional comparison using the brand's intrinsic factors such as its core functional or delivery capability (Lam et al 2010). This consumer behaviour according to Kapeller et al., (2012) is in line with rational behaviour espoused by the economics and classical marketing approaches to consumer behaviour. The economic approach views consumers as utility maximisers, therefore when consumers are faced with a market threat or disruption, they will seek to find equilibrium by choosing the brand that maximises their benefits or utility (Baye & Prince 2013; Kahneman & Thaler, 2006). In the context of this research, the external threat in the form of a radical change in the place and type of dwelling are assumed to prompt consumers to re-assess the different toilet-care product brands in terms of their efficacy and efficiency to address the new toilet-care challenges they face in their new homes in Cosmo City.

The second evaluation process according to Lam et al., (2010) model involves social identity comparisons between a brand and consumers' needs in the face of a threat. Social identity comparisons according to Lam et al., (2010; 2012) occur as a consequence of social mobility. In a sense social mobility occurs as a function of social changes either at an individual and/or group level. Social mobility is generally conceived as the process by which an individual makes decisive actions to redefine their group status by either integrating themselves with the group or dissociating themselves from it (White & Dahl, 2007). In the context of this study, a threat posed by a radical change in the place of dwelling is reflected by a change in sanitary systems, for example a move from a 'bucket' toilet system to an "in-house' water flushing toilet, motivates consumers to seek ways to rebalance their identity. Their previous identity is threatened by the new amenities which challenge the social order of their lives, socio-cultural routines and the type of product brands consumed. In light of these changes, consumers would engage in social creative and social mobility to re-establish or create new social identities. The impact of social mobility is posited in the study to be more pronounced in households moving

from a lower-status group such as from an Informal Settlement to a higher-status such as a RDP house (in Cosmo City), than for households moving from free standing houses to Cosmo City, as there is limited disruption for the aforementioned.

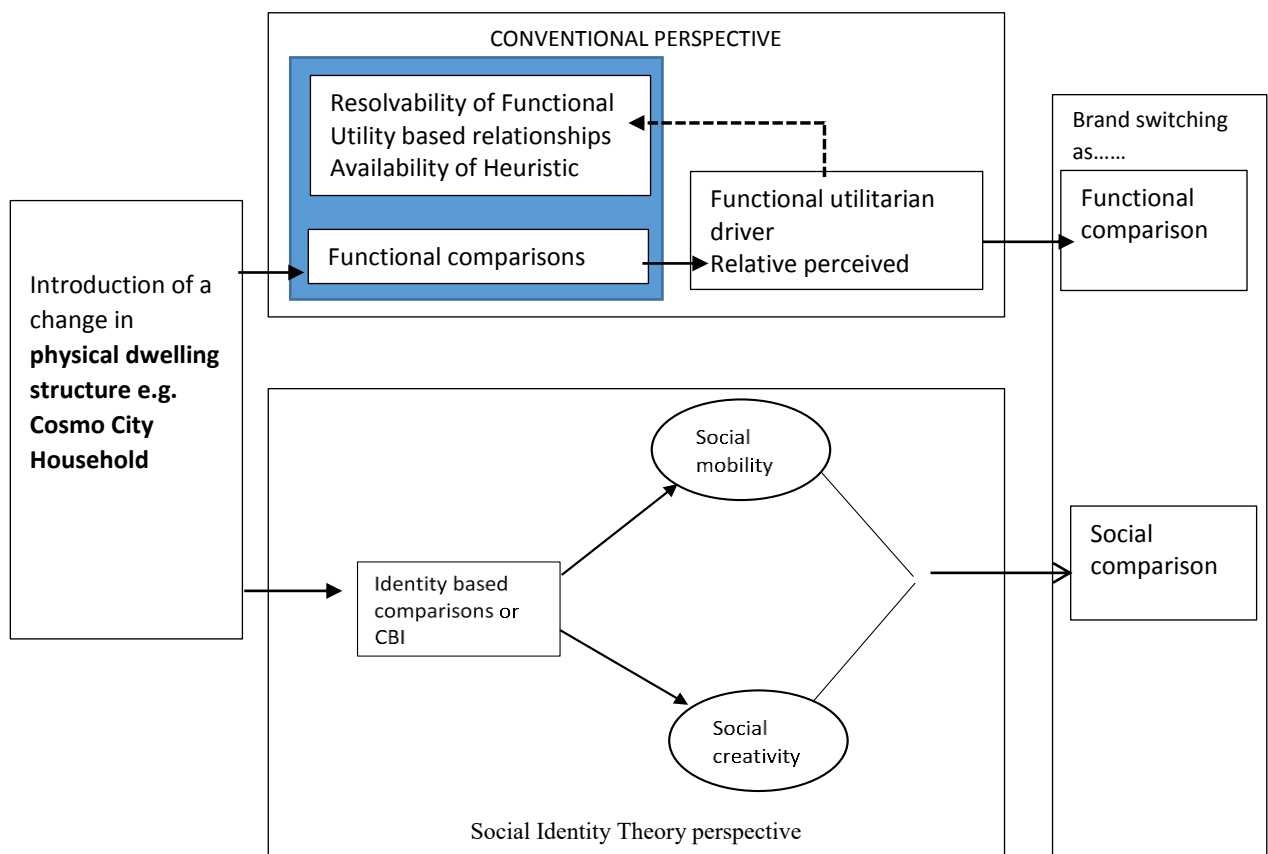
Lam et al., (2010) observe that consumers deal with the new identity threat that affects the consumer-brand relationship through a combination of social mobility and social creativity. Social creativity according to Elbedweihy and Jayewardene (2014) who cite Tajfel and Turner (1979) describes the individual's actions of manipulating the social environment in their favour so as to progress and project a distinctive image to the rest of the groups in society. The two social processes of social mobility and social creativity motivate consumers to evaluation a brand's ability to fulfil the consumer's needs by considering socio-psychological factors and not only functional utility (Tuskej, Golob & Podnar, 2011).

This research proposes that the relocation to a radically new place of dwelling disrupts the household's product brand consumption pattern, thus motivating them to engage in functional and social-identity brand comparisons. This assumption is based on the consideration that relative supposed product brand value is a more accurate forecaster of consumer behaviour in terms of the brand 'loyalty-switching' spectrum, than just the perceived value (Homburg et al., 2009). The relative perceived value of new products required to clean and maintain the toilet systems in Cosmo City is higher than the previous brands, therefore it's posited that consumers will undertake brand switching as they relocate to Cosmo City. Consumers would be motivated to undertake product brand switching because the nature of product application and its social setting has changed.

This research posits that households are likely to switch to toilet cleaning product brands that have a relatively higher perceived value in comparison to those used previously. For example, a household that lived in a "shack/informal settlement" and used unbranded toilet-care products, would switch to a higher gentler product like Domestos, that is compatible with water based toilet systems. The brand switching behaviour exhibited by these former "shack dwellers" now living in houses with flushing toilets would be in line with functional comparisons, however it would also be influenced by considerations of social mobility and social creativity.

The introduction of a disruptive factor in the form of a structural change in physical dwellings is used in the research conceptual framework to assess its impact on toilet-care product brand choice and switching behaviour. The literature on social theory points out that people often purchase and use products that are used by their reference groups so as to improve their social standing (Johnson, et al., 2012). The basis of this migration affiliation is based on the understanding that brands convey symbolic meanings to ‘in-group’ and ‘out-group’ members (Chan, et al., 2012), enable consumers to fulfil their needs and reveal their identity (Chernev et al., 2011), and that brands connect people to one another (Stokburger-Sauer, 2010). These insights are synthesised and analysed under the external disruptive factor of household change in the research investigation. Figure 4.1 depicts the CBI processes that introduce the social disruption as a change in the place of a physical dwelling.

**Figure 4.1: Consumer Brand Identification Conceptual Framework**



**Source:** Adapted from Lam et al., (2010; 2012)

The disruption (in this study) is different from the views of previous researchers like Lam et al., (2010) who focus on market related disruptions like the introduction of an innovative product. The disruption is external to the competitive product market, but has a direct and fundamental impact on the “consumer-brand” relationship. In this disruption, the research posits that consumers will assess the external factor disruption along functional and social dimensions. What makes this approach unique is that in South Africa and in most developing countries, governments undertake massive redeployment of households from poor Informal Settlements to Formal affluent residential areas. These disruptions have a direct impact on consumer-brand relationships, and are complex, dynamic movements which are worthy of research and documenting for theoretical and practical knowledge application.

In the modification and application of Lam et al., (2010) CBI framework, this research investigates how changes in Cosmo City residents’ household status have influenced their “self-brand” congruency and brand choice. The research centres on how a specific type of market disruption which is - the introduction of an external disruption in the form of a change in the physical place of dwelling, affects the consumer -brand relationship. This study posits that the relocation to a radically new place of dwelling initiates a disruption in the consumption (of toilet-care product brands), motivating consumers to reconsider their existing brand relationships. These reconsiderations are evaluated along functional and social dimensions resulting in either brand switching or brand loyalty.

The current study recognises the role of different antecedents to consumer identification in product-brand consumption, such as self-continuity, self-enhancement and self-development, amongst others. In light of this recognition, the study adopts the view that the relative perceived value (Lam et al., 2010) and CBI are important economic and socio-psychological drivers that can predict consumer behaviour under both normal and abnormal market conditions. The research also builds on the CBI contributions by Lam et al., (2010) and the CCI contributions by Bhattacharya and Sen (2003). This approach allows the study to investigate consumption behavioural changes in the usage of toilet-care product brands among different Cosmo City households, both before and after changing their place of residence. The proposed conceptual CBI framing also allows the research to view CBI as a psychological state of mind and not a process (Elbedweihy & Jayewardene (2014), and Lam et al., (2012; 2010).

In light of the above conceptual framework, this research aims to test three hypotheses. Each will be briefly presented as derived from the literature already discussed.

#### **4.2. The Relationship between the Desired Brand benefits and Brand Switching**

The study proposes that the introduction of a social disruption in the form of a change in the place and type of dwelling motivates the household to re-evaluate its product-brand relationship. The re-evaluation is influenced by the change in the housing infrastructure which radically alters the use and relevance of the current toilet-care cleaning product brand. The new household infrastructure changes the way the households perceive the relevance of the current brand, relative to its use in the new situation. The change in the current product brand's perceived value motivates consumers to undergo some kind of social creativity and social mobility. The adjustment leads consumers to reassess the current brand's functional and social relevance. This study therefore posits that the re-evaluation process motivates consumers to undertake brand switching, as the social disruption is very powerful, radically altering the use, functionality and social relevance of the current brand. This disruption and its impact is postulated as hypothesis H1, which proposes that the introduction of a social disruption (physical dwelling) leads to brand switching when the relative perceived value of the current brand is lower than the impact of the external social disruption. The hypothesis is formulated as follows:

**H1:** There is a positive relationship between the current brand's benefits and brand switching following a social disruption.

#### **4.3. The Relationship between Social Disruption and Brand Switching**

In context of this study, it is assumed that when consumers' self-identity is disrupted by changes in their place and type of dwelling, they undertake a "rebalancing" process to preserve their self-identity (Kang, Tang & Lee, 2015). This processing and adaptation to new conditions motivates consumers to either functionally or socially re-evaluate the type, form and functionality of their current toilet-care product brands. The brands that are no longer relevant to ensure self-continuity are replaced through brand-switching, by new ones. This kind of behaviour is summed by Klipfel, Barclay and Bockorny (2014:132) who cite Sirgy (1982) as

follows: “self-concept is of value to the individual and behaviour will be directed toward the protection and enhancement of self-concept.”

The relationship between a change in place and type of dwelling and brand switching is framed in hypothesis H2 as:

**H2:** There is a positive relationship between a change in the place and type of residential dwelling (social change) and brand switching behavior.

#### **4.4. The Relationship between Lifestyle and Brand Switching**

The introduction of a radical change in the place and type of dwelling is fundamental and disruptive, even when compared to ‘in-market’ changes like innovation, because this change has a disruptive impact on the household and consumer lifestyle. This kind of disruption poses an identity threat as it breaks all forms of lifestyle congruency. Lifestyle congruency is defined by Nam, Ekinici and Whyatt (2011:1010) as “the extent to which a brand supports the consumer’s lifestyle.” Consumers display loyalty to brands that identify and support their lifestyle. In the case of a social disruption like the one under study, the “lifestyle-brand” congruency gets fractured and consumers are forced to undertake some kind of restorative process to maintain self-continuity, and this may result in brand switching. It is therefore proposed that improved living conditions or lifestyle changes brought about by the disruptive ‘out –of-market’ factor (change in place and type of dwelling), motivates households to undertake social creativity and social mobility that leads them to switch brands. Thus, hypothesis (H3) is stated as follows:

**H3:** There is a significantly positive relationship between lifestyle and brand switching behavior following a social disruption.

#### **4.5. The Relationship between Brand Benefits and Lifestyle change**

The research study proposed that consumers altered their brand consumption repertoires following a lifestyle change. The lifestyle change in the current research is framed as being triggered by a social change. The relationship is investigated by holding brand benefits as a predictor of lifestyle. This line of thought is proposed by various authors such as Nam, Ekinici

and Whyatt (2011:1011) and Klipfel, Barclay and Bockorny (2014:133). In light of the aforementioned, and in order to explore the aforementioned relationship further, it is hypothesized as follows:

H4: There is a positive relationship between brand benefits sought and lifestyle change.

#### **4.6. The Relationship between Social disruption and Lifestyle change**

Social disruption is also investigated as predictor of lifestyle change in this research. The assumption is that a change in social settings triggers a change in lifestyle and may result in brand switching. Considering that in this study social change is regarded as a predictor of lifestyle change, this assumed relationship is investigated further by formulating the direction of the relationship and its strength. This is framed in the H5 hypothesis below:

H5: There is a positive relationship between social disruption and lifestyle change.

#### **4.7. Conclusion**

This chapter outlined the theoretical framework of the research laying a foundation for the research methodology to be followed to conduct the study. The emphasis has been on specifying the parameters of the research and also to compare the proposed approach relative to existing frameworks. The chapter has framed the investigative approach to brand choice in the context of a *social disruption*, as opposed to 'in-market' disruptions. This approach seeks to provide added insight into how consumers behave from a social identity perspective when faced by an 'out-of market' threat. The adaption of Lam et al.'s, (2010) model resulted in three hypotheses being developed. The following chapter introduces and expands on the approach used in conducting the research to collect the primary data from the research sample in order to test the hypotheses.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **5. Introduction**

The chapter explains the research methodology of this study. The populations surveyed comprised household located in Cosmo City, Johannesburg, South Africa. The research views the household unit as an aggregate utility of individuals that constitute the household (Hands, 2013; Zhang, Kuwano, Lee & Fujiwara, 2013). The research aims to gain insight into household consumer behaviour, and also weighs heavily on theoretical deductions in order to analyse and draw conclusions on the research objectives.

#### **5.1. Research Design**

The quality of a research process is greatly influenced by the research design, and the concept of a research design is very complex and dynamic, making it difficult to have a universally accepted definition of what it constitutes (Cooper and Schindler, 2010). However, there are some common attributes of a research design that are generally accepted. The research design is defined by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2013:39) as “a plan or a set of guidelines and instructions that enable the researcher to determine the research methodology and to address the research problem.” In its simplest form, a research design according to Aaker, Kumar, Leone and Day (2013:63) is “a detailed blueprint to guide a research study towards its objectives.’

The definition by Saunders et al., (2013) and Aaker et al., (2013) in practical terms mean that a researcher has to clearly define a step by step methodology that has to be followed, so that the research outcome can effectively address the research problem. The purpose of a research design as revealed in literature is to guide the research process so that the process can produce compelling evidence to test the hypotheses. Bernard (2014) adds that the core function of a research design is to ensure that the research evidence and interpretation of results enables the researcher to test the research study’s three hypotheses.

The effectiveness of a research design is heavily influenced by its ability to deal with a logical problem and not a logistical problem (Yin, 2014). This means that research design identifies, focuses and addresses the research problem and not the logistics involved in solving the



problem. The research design articulates issues such as sampling, methodology, data collection and analysis in a bid to assess the research study's problem, questions and hypothesis. These activities are aimed at enabling the researcher to unambiguously test the study hypotheses either by upholding or refuting it. Aaker, et al., (2013) conclude that the most critical decision to be made in research design involves choosing the most appropriate and relevant research approach because the choice influences to great degree the collection of data and its analysis. A flawed research approach has the potential of producing flawed conclusions, hence researchers need to take extra precautions in the selecting the most appropriate approach.

The research design process can be broken into two broad groups, namely positive and interpretive (Babie, 2013). A positive research design is commonly used to test theory, whilst an interpretive approach is for theory building. The first approach is the positive approach which aims to objectively study the research phenomena. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:135) assert that "the positive design is grounded in reality, less on abstract issues and thereby making it more scientific." The research issues are investigated and recorded from a realistic analysis of cause and effect relationships. Intricate observations of causal relationships are investigated and documented in a scientific manner, allowing other researchers to replicate the process and make similar conclusions. Common examples of a positive design include controlled experiments in a laboratory, field experiments and field surveys.

The second approach is the interpretive research process which focuses on subjective interpretations of a social phenomenon (Bernard (2014)). The observations are based on a subjective basis as they are recorded from the perspective of the subject. The researcher's role and input are critical in this process as they guide and shape the research outcomes. Punch (2013) notes that the interpretative processes require high levels of adherence to ethical standards to reduce subjectivity and personal bias. The researcher is expected in all instances to remain objective, aware of possible bias and take the necessary actions to minimise compromising the research.

The activities of the research design offer a number of different options which a researcher can adopt in researching a phenomenon. The design options include experimental studies, case studies, field survey studies, focus groups, action research and ethnography. The current research makes use of a field survey to investigate consumer behaviour post an external "out-

of-market” disruption like a radical change in a consumer’s place and type of dwelling. Burns and Bush (2014:176) define a field survey as “a process of acquiring information like characteristics, opinions, attitudes and experiences on a group of people.” The field survey which was administered through a structured questionnaire was opted for after considering factors such as the research objectives, time, cost, and logistics of reaching the respondents.

Leedy and Ormrod (2013:189) add that “surveys are studies which are designed to determine the incidence, frequency, as well as the distribution of certain characteristics in a population.” The views of Leedy et al., (2013) and Burns et al., (2014) are incorporated in the research instrument so as to ask questions to the target population about their product brand choice behaviour and then examine relationships between a change in place and type of dwelling and desired product benefits, lifestyle change and brand switching.

The survey methodology was also adopted as it allowed the researcher to combine two complementary research tools, namely, a questionnaire and structured interviews. Ghauri (2010:118) notes that “research surveys usually involve a combination of two procedures such as questionnaires and interviews.” Aaker et al., (2013:187) add that “there are three basic survey methods which are personal interviews, telephone interviews and self-administered questionnaires.” The use of the questionnaire and structured interviews aimed at enhancing the quality of data collection, reduce response time to between 20-25 minutes and increase response rate. The questionnaire was self-administered where appropriate and at other times conducted through a structured interview.

The survey process incorporated the need to deal with varying levels of literacy and attitudes towards field surveys among the sample population. The research questions were modified to ensure that the reading and writing skills of the population which are important salient considerations in research design could be adequately addressed (Aaker’s et al., 2013:116). The presentation of the questionnaire in English posed challenges during pilot testing to a large section of the research sample. To resolve this in the research process, the questionnaire was translated into isiZulu, a local language which had been observed to be the most popular language during the pilot study.

The survey methodology which is questionnaire based, was chosen as the best option to handle the issues of language, literacy, cost and ethical issues. This approach optimised the data gathering, as it was able to capture and deal with a large and varied number of variables.

Despite the various advantages of using the field survey method, there were weaknesses that the approach posed and these had to be adequately addressed. One of the main weaknesses in survey design was its poor internal validity which is due to weak cause-effect relationships (Leedy et al., 2013). This weakness is attributed to the way in which the surveys are conducted as they are mostly exploratory in their approach. This makes it difficult for one to link the cause and effect of different variables under study. As such, they suffer from bias coming from subjects under study, and thus may lack objectivity (Bush 2013).

Churchill and Iacobucci (2010:58) posit that “experimental studies are another form of research design that can be used to test cause and effect variables by validating or rejecting a hypothesis”. A hypothesis according to Churchill et al., (2010:60) is a “statement that specifies how two or more measurable variables are related”. Experimental studies are usually used in controlled test environments. The variables are separated into two, one being the control variable and the other being the effect or uncontrolled variable (Bush, 2013). The causal variable is separated from the effect variable so that the effect of the causal variable can be measured. For example, does using a flushing toilet system cause a change in the product/brand choice behaviour of an individual?

A review of research designs convinced the researcher that, the field survey is most appropriate, since it is framed in a way that it enabled the study to achieve the standard scientific research requirements or attributes such as internal, external, and construct validity (Bernoussi and Mouchiroud, 2008). The incorporation and achievement of these requirements enabled the research to be objective and the findings to be generalised.

### **5.1.1. Internal validity**

The concept of validity denotes the degree to which an item or measurement satisfactorily embodies the underlying construct which it has been designed to measure (Leedy, et al., 2013) Saunders et. al., 2013). In the context of the current research, validity means that the structure

and content of the questionnaire can accurately measure the consumer's brand choice behaviour that households follow when their consumption patterns are disrupted by an external factor like a change in the place and type of dwelling place. In this regard, the research study instrument in the form of a structured questionnaire contained questions which dealt with product/brand choice, before and after relocating to a new residential area, namely, Cosmo City. These questions were intended to gain insights into changes in product-brand choice following a change in the place and type of dwelling, hence the dual framing of questions that is, asking about product usage behaviour change, before and after relocation.

The concept of validity can be granulated further into internal validity. Leedy et al., (2013) propose that internal validity refers to “the ability of a questionnaire to measure internal consistency of the questions with regards to the construct that is being investigated.” Internal validity can also be viewed as a measure of whether a dependent variable is affected by the independent variable (Punch, 2013). It is a causal relationship aimed at ascertaining whether a change in the dependent variable is a result of a change in the independent variable, and not by variables extraneous to the research context. There are various ways by which the internal validity of a research can be improved. Yin (2014) and Punch (2013) argue that the various options that improve internal validity include, increasing the ability to manipulate or control the independent variable (cause) and also improving the degree of observing the effect (reaction to the dependent variable).

The internal validity of the current study was improved by segmenting the causal variable which is the place and type of dwelling. The study was able to clearly identify different segments of residents or types of houses (causal variable) in Cosmo City, relative to their previous dwelling structure and place. The three segments were: Freehold social RDP houses (Extension 2, 4 & 6), Bonded Houses (Extension 6, 8, 9 & 10) and Bonded Houses (Extension 3, 5 & 7). In this process, the researcher was able to directly compare previous place and structure of dwelling with the current ones, per research segment (type of dwelling), and then relate it to the product- brand choice.

### **5.1.2. External validity**

The literature on research methodology highlights that a research instrument needs to have some level of acceptable external validity for it to be accepted as being free of bias. Zikmund et al., (2013:96) defines external validity as “a measure of the ability of the study’s results to be generalised.” The results which can be generalised, mean that it can be extrapolated and extended to be true for the entire population under study. External validity is also known as population validity. The researcher attempted to improve the external validity by using a large sample size (Babie, 2013:167). The sample size was determined using statistical calculations to determine the optimal representative sample size for the research population.

### **5.1.3. Construct validity**

The term construct validity is articulated as “a property that is offered to explain some aspect of human behaviour, such as mechanical ability, intelligence, or introversion,” (Bush, 2013:87). It provides for the correct operational measures for the constructs being studied and can be measured using factor analysis. Some researchers, Zikmund et al., (2013) and Yin, (2014) indicate that construct validity can be improved through continuous reviewing of research reports, assessing and establishing a chain of research evidence or through the use of various sources of research evidence. In line with these insights of improving construct validity, the current research study combined the interview approach and the structured questionnaires approach in order to improve construct validity.

Construct validity is also concerned with the degree to which a test measures the construct it is designed to measure (Kimberlin & Wintersin, 2008). In this study the three constructs are: brand benefits, change in the place and type of dwelling, and lifestyle, which variables are hypothesized to influence toilet-care product brand choice and switching behaviour among different LSM households in Cosmo City. Babie (2013) argues for the need to sequentially evaluate construct validity, as including a theoretical evaluation of the underlying construct being measured and then practically evaluating the adequacy of the test in measuring the construct under investigation. Both these aspects were incorporated in this research through the use of exploratory factor analysis, and then practically, during the pilot study. The benefit of factor analysis was to test factors that underlie datasets by finding correlations between variables or questionnaire items.

#### **5.1.4. Statistical validity**

Statistical validity measures the degree to which conclusions derived from the study using statistical procedures are valid or conform to the cut off confidence levels (Bush 2013). The current research opted for a 95% confidence level in its computation of the sample size. Statistical validity seeks to assess whether the right or correct statistical tools are applied to analyse the primary data, draw conclusions, and validate the hypothesis as postulated in the research the study. Its application in this research is to ensure that the right inferential statistical and descriptive analysis is conducted accurately and effectively. Statistical validity also assesses whether the right sample size and respective distributions were used to analyse the data. Statistical validity also fulfils a crucial role in data analysis as a high degree of validity in statistical data leads to higher results quality and reliability (Zikmund et al., 2013).

#### **5.1.5. Improving research validity**

The current study recognises the different types of validity and has considered them in the research design process. A combination of various controls were built into the research process and instruments to improve the research's validity including aspects such as pilot testing the questionnaire, refining the structure of research questions, attributes, and also translating the questionnaire into IsiZulu (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2011). The pre-testing of the initial questionnaire revealed the need to simplify some key research terms and wording. The pilot test also revealed some constructs which respondents could not understand or relate to. These were modified or changed to ensure that the research process yields better internal and content validity. It also emerged from the pilot study that there was a need to translate the questionnaire into a local African language (isiZulu), to accommodate respondents that could not relate to the study constructs which were in English.

The study also used random sampling to select households that formed the sample of study. The randomised selection allowed the study to attain greater external validity (Bush, 2014). This was achieved as a result of the representative sample being free of selection bias. In so doing, the results had the potential of being generalised.

### **5.1.6. Reliability**

Research reliability is a critical aspect that is intended to ensure that the research process has as few or no systematic and random errors, as possible. The test for internal reliability in a research instrument deals with the extent to which the research instrument yields the same results in repeated trials (Zikmund et al., 2013). This means that the research process and data gathering tools when independently applied to similar research conditions should be able to produce similar results. Reliability also deals with the tendency toward consistency of results from a measuring instrument when applied repeatedly (Bush, 2014).

Aaker et al., (2013) conclude that reliability tests can be grouped into two categories, namely measuring results stability over time and internal consistency. The reliability of results over time can be achieved through repeating the same test on the same respondents at two or more different points in time, and then correlating the results. This approach was not used in this research due to time and cost constraints. The internal consistency approach to measuring reliability was adopted and incorporated in the current research because it is cost effective and more practical to integrate into the research than the repeated test method.

The research recognised that reliability is influenced by a number of factors, both endogenous and exogenous to the research process. Several researchers (Bernard 2014; Ghauri et al., 2010) outline factors which may affect the reliability of a research process, and these include respondent error, the bias from the observer and /or the respondent. Participant or respondent error occurs when the data collected is erroneously provided by the respondent in the study. This may occur due to exaggeration of the results, underplaying the effects of the study phenomena or omission. Participant bias occurs when the participant provides answers to a research question in such a manner that there is personal bias in the response. The opposite effect is observer bias, where the observer who is collecting the data allows personal interest or preferences to sway the study results. The results in both cases become subjective and less objective. These biases skew the results and make the outcome unreliable.

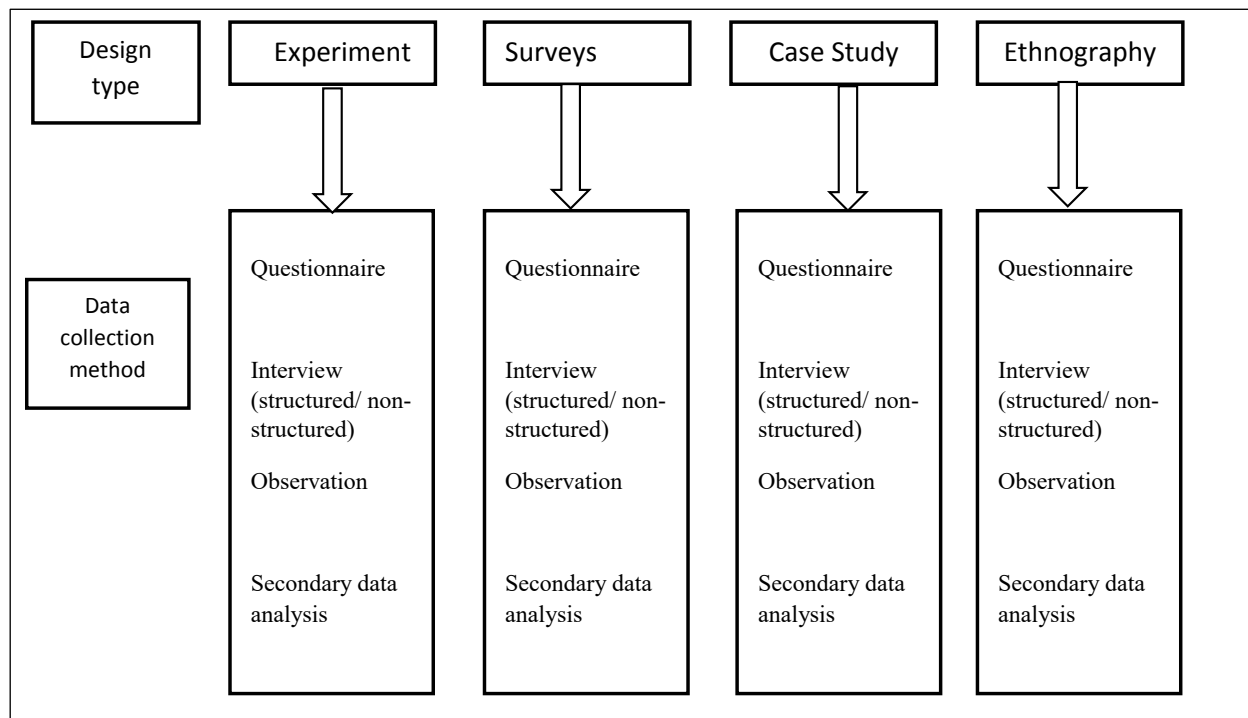
The literature on research reliability also recommends the use of the Cronbach alpha test. For example, if a questionnaire yields a 0.8 Cronbach alpha result, it is considered to be reliable and that a high Cronbach alpha usually signifies high uni-dimensionality (Brymann & Bell,

2011). In order for a questionnaire to be deemed reliable, an individual item or a set of some items should produce the same result as the entire questionnaire. However, Ghauri et al., (2010) cautions that a high alpha value is a necessary condition, however this is not sufficient for a research design to be deemed reliable.

## 5.2. Research Method

The process of creating a research method involves designing how the research data is collected from the sample population under study. There are different methods that can be used to collect research data are presented in Table 5.1, include questionnaires, interviews, direct observations and document analysis.

**TABLE 5.1 Research and Methods**



Source: Yin (2014)

### 5.2.1. Questionnaires

Ghauri et al., (2010) points out that the process of questionnaire design categorises questions into two basic groups which are close-ended and open-ended questions. Closed-ended questions are questions for which a researcher provides a suitable list of responses (e.g. Yes / No). This type of questioning produces mainly quantitative data. Open-ended questions are



questions where the researcher doesn't provide respondents a set of answers to choose from. Rather, respondents are requested or prompted to reply "in their own words". Brymann and Bell (2011:137) recommend that in a practical research process, it is advisable to use both sets of questions as they are complementary and produce deeper insights. The current research used mainly close-ended questions as it aimed at gathering consumer behavioural information that could be quantifiable and analysed statistically for casual relationships between brand choice and change in the place and type of dwelling.

A research questionnaire can be completed in one of two basic ways. Firstly, respondents can be requested to complete a questionnaire in the absence of a researcher. Respondents usually get a copy of the questionnaire from the researcher which may be hand delivered, by post, e-mailed or web based (Bush, 2013). Respondents then individually go through the questionnaire answering the questions. This approach was adopted in the current research and used on respondents who had high literacy levels and were willing to answer questions independently of an interviewer. These respondents were mostly from homes in the more affluent areas of Cosmo City, Extension 3, 5, 7, 8, and 10.

The alternative process involved respondents completing the questionnaire in the presence of a researcher. The questionnaire was completed verbally whereby respondents responded orally to the questions and the responses were captured by the researcher on the questionnaire. This variation is also known as structured interview and was widely used to collect data from those respondents who resided in the RDP (Extension 2, 4 and 6) sections of Cosmo City. The literacy levels of residents from the aforementioned houses were very low and the isiZulu version of the questionnaire was used in a structured interview. This approach helped to optimise the collection of field data, the rate and quality of responses.

The questionnaire method was adopted relative to other methods because of the following benefits:

- a) Questionnaires allowed the researcher to access many people at a relatively low cost per contact. This was mostly achieved by use of email and hand delivered questionnaires to households in Cosmo City Extension 3, 5, 7, 8, and 10 where the literacy levels were higher than that of residents in the RDP section.

- b) Questionnaires make it relatively easy to reach people who are spread across a wide geographical area. Cosmo City is a vast area, which would make it very expensive and also requiring extended time to physically reach all respondents. The questionnaire approach helped to reduce both cost and time in data gathering as a combination of emailed and interview process was used.
- c) Face to face questionnaire administration makes it easier to identify the appropriate person to complete the questionnaire. The face to face interviews were particularly advantageous in low cost and RDP housing surveys, where participation and responses would have been very low had the questionnaire been posted or emailed. Interviews helped overcome the very low literacy levels, and very high apathy levels due to misunderstanding and lack of appreciation of the value of the research.

The process of data collection using a questionnaire has its own challenges as noted by Bush (2013), Brymann and Bell (2011), and Saunders et al., (2013). These challenges which were identified and mitigated against included the undermentioned.

- a) Response rates can be low especially on posted questionnaires. This challenge was mitigated by a follow up email two days and five days after the original emailed questionnaire was sent. These email reminders and telephonic follow ups assisted in improving the response rate.

The challenge with self-administered questionnaires is that there is little control over who completes an emailed questionnaire, which can lead to bias. It is possible that anyone within the household can complete the questionnaire and not the intended respondent. This makes it difficult to know the accuracy and relevance of the responses obtained. The lack of control on self-administered questionnaires also leads to the returning of incomplete or soiled questionnaires making it difficult to use the data collected.

- b) Face to face questionnaires require the use of trained interviewers. This limitation was recognised and budgeted for, as the face to face questionnaire was to be administered in areas where literacy levels were low. The research assistants who

conducted the interviews were selected provided they had completed matric, were able to read and write both English and isiZulu so as to quickly understand and assimilate the training material and actual field interview process. Training was provided by the primary researcher before the assistance went out.

- c) Face to face questionnaire completion is time consuming for respondents, costly and labour intensive, compared to other methods. The research mitigated the costs and time by training interviewers to translate information accurately from isiZulu to English. They were also trained to pre-answer some basic questions based on observation. These questions included the location of the residence, race of the household, etc. This helped reduce the interview time and total number of days of interviews.

### **5.2.2. Interviews**

Interviews are tools that are used by researchers to gather data from the sample population, and they are more flexible than a questionnaire. Heding et al., (2010) assert that the main objective of an interview is to accurately capture the respondent's responses and thought patterns in relation to the subject matter being researched. A qualitative research interview seeks to cover both factual and meaningful level attributes in a research process. However, it is usually difficult to interview on a meaningful level as interactions require high levels of skill from the interviewer. A structured interview is usually structured and questions that are asked of respondents are worded and ordered the same from one interview to another (Bush 2013). An interview process that uses questions that are worded the same across interviews is called a standardised interview. The process of interview standardisation and scheduling leads to improved levels of consistency in data collection and also reduces bias (Brymann & Bell, 2011).

Interviews can be conducted using two types of approaches namely, informal or conversational interviews and general interviews Heding et al., (2010). Informal or conversational interviews do not use predetermined questions and questions are open and constructed as the interview unfolds. This makes the process very flexible and adaptable as possible allowing the respondent to respond from his/her view point without being prompted or coerced. The informal interview

process was appraised and deemed inappropriate for the current research as it would not yield the intended results for the research.

General guided interviews use a predetermined questionnaire to guide the interview flow. The approach is planned to warrant that the standard information is collected from each respondent (Burns, 2014). This provides more focus than the conversational approach, but still allows for a degree of freedom and adaptability, in getting the information from the interviewee. The guided interview was recognised as appropriate for the current study. It was incorporated into the main research process of using a questionnaire, where structured interviews would guide respondents' response and also ensure consistence in questions across all respondents.

### **5.2.3. Direct observations**

The process of data collection using direct observation involves the researcher being directly involved in the observation and recording of data from the research subjects (Burns et al., 2013). The process occurs in a live environment where the researcher and research subject are in contact. The process is advantageous in that it is 'live', making results immediately available to the researcher. The researcher can adjust the circumstances and situation during observation if the intended results are not forthcoming. This makes it a very versatile data collection method. Its disadvantage, as noted by Bush (2013:136) is that "the researcher can interfere with the subject thereby introduce bias in data collection." The bias can contaminate the results either through researcher or respondent bias. The method is expensive and requires a heavy investment in time from the researcher. This method was deemed inappropriate for this study because there was no need to observe how households engage with toilet-care product brands.

### **5.2.4. Document analysis**

Document analysis is sometimes known as secondary data collection, and it uses previously published documents to obtain and collect data for a research study (Babie, 2013). The data is usually collected from past publications and records, then it is analysed and the results obtained. Document analysis is an effective method where past research is readily available on a large scale. For example, population census results are readily available and can provide secondary data to social research on population behaviour. The population census results make it unnecessary for one to go out and research again population variables as the available data

can be re-analysed to specific research requirements. This data collection method was discounted in this research because there are no secondary data sources available that are aligned to the study's requirements and objectives. However, secondary data was used as input on Chapter 2 involving an overview into the South African toilet –care product and housing market. The use of this data was to provide context to the research and not provide primary research information. The most appropriate data source was primary data collection as it provides live and relevant data for the study.

### **5.3. Research Population**

A population in research is defined by Ghauri et al., (2010) as a group of people, items or units under investigation. This is a universe of units or people from which the sample is selected. In the context of the current research, the population is a made up of households in Cosmo City, which is a cosmopolitan suburb developed to inter-alia, to socially uplift poor people who previously lived in the informal settlements. The housing layout is divided according to individual's affordability (income) whereby, Extensions 2, 4 and 6 are low income households dependant on social grants of between R700 – R1500 a month. Extensions 0, 6, 8, 9 and 10 are middle income households, and Extensions 3, 5, and 7 are high income households (DoHS, 2014a). The segmentation process also factored in the social background of the previously disadvantaged people. These segmentation parameters provided simple segmentation structures that the study used to draw the sample from.

### **5.4. Sampling Method**

Leedy et al., (2013:206) alludes that a sample is a limited portion of a research study population whose characteristics are considered to gain insights or behavioural patterns about the whole population. In case of the current study, a sample involves only the randomly stratified selected households in Cosmo City. A sample population that is nominated needs to adequately represent the population across a number of vital research characteristics such as respondents geographic, demographics, and politics so that the results can be free of bias and be capable of being generalised for the entire population (Ghauri et al., 2010).

The sample that was chosen for the study is deemed to be a fair and balanced representation of all the Cosmo City households, as it covers all the three research segments of RDP houses, Low Income Bonded Houses and High Income Bonded Houses. The RDP houses in Extensions

2, 4 and 6 are occupied by respondents who previously lived in informal settlements in Appendix 5a. The respondents did not have running water (taps) nor water-based flushing toilets, and no proper sanitation. They used communal public toilets that were either a ‘bucket’ system or pit latrine. As such, their toilet-care product brand consumption was very basic.

The households in the Low Cost Bonded Houses segment in extensions 6, 8, 9 and 10, and also High Income Bonded houses in extensions 3, 5 and 7 are composed of people who were previously ‘well off’ and were living in Town Houses or Flats before moving to Cosmo City. Their previous houses were similar to or the same as the ones they live in currently at Cosmo City in that they had water based toilet systems, running water and proper sanitation. The sanitation levels in the new homes did not radically change, therefore it is assumed that their product brand consumption behaviour would not radically change. The differences among the three segments are important to the study in that they provide different insights into the impact of a change in the place and type of dwelling on brand choice. The research anticipates that there would be significant differences in product choice inter alia, desired product benefits, lifestyle change, product brand type, form, quantity used and frequency of use, depending on the of change in the toilet system as measured by access to running (tap) water, and access to “in-house” flushing toilet.

#### **5.4.1. Sample size**

The central objective of sampling and sample size is to enable the research study to make sound and logical deductions and conclusions about the population from the sample. Schiffman et al., (2015) and Leedy et al., (2013) provide critical insights into the determination of the sample and sample size and they contend that a sample size must factor in the following issues:

- i. Time- time required to collect and analyse data needs to be optimised;
- ii. Costs- sample size must economise costs involved in researching the population;
- iii. Accessibility- the sample needs to be accessible; and
- iv. Accuracy and reliability of population data.

Researchers such as Leedy et al., (2013), and Saunders et al., (2009), conclude that the above factors influence the size of the sample population. In the case of the current study, all the

above factors were considered in conjunction with the envisaged analysis of the data using quantitative inferential statistics.

Several researchers, Burns and Bush (2014) and Cooper and Schindler (2010) also offer guiding principles to sample size determination, which principles were taken into consideration: These include:

- i. If the population is greatly varied, then the recommendation is that the sample needs to be large as this will improve the accuracy of results
- ii. In a cases when there is a need to gain greater accuracy, , then the sample must be large;
- iii. A large sample gives a smaller margin of error;
- iv. The confidence level required is inversely related to sample size; and
- v. The sample size is directly correlated to the sub group interest size.

The aforementioned recommendations and guidelines were evaluated and used to guide the calculation of the research sample size as follows:

Household population in Cosmo City = 10 000; Margin of error = 5%; Level of confidence = 95%; Standard deviation = .5. Therefore: 95% – Z; Score = 1.96

Sample size determination:  $\text{Sample size} = (Z\text{-score})^2 * \text{Std. Dev} * (1\text{-StdDev}) / (\text{margin of error})^2$

Therefore, the following numbers were inserted into the formula to calculate the sample size with a 95% confidence level 0.5 standard deviation and a margin of error (confidence interval) of +/- 5%.

$$((1.96)^2 \times .5(.5)) / (.05)^2$$

$$3.8416 \times .25 / .0025$$

$$.9604 / .0025$$

$$384.16$$

**384 respondents**

The sample size was then applied to the different ‘socio-income’ segments of Cosmo City so as to ascertain the actual number of per unit. The resultant allocation was done using a simple proportional representation of 38% on RDP houses, 31% on Low Cost Bonded Houses and

31% on High Income Bonded Houses which was informed by the distribution of different household segment types in Cosmo City. The allocation is reflected in Table 5.2

**Table 5.2: Research Sample Representation**

<b>Household Area</b>	<b>Number of units</b>
Free social RDP houses Ext 2,4 &6	144
Low Income Bonded Houses- Ext 6,8,9 &10	120
High Income Bonded Houses - Ext 3,5 & 7	120
<b>Total</b>	<b>384</b>

#### **5.4.2. Sample Type**

The sample was chosen from Cosmo City households using a random sampling technique. Brymann and Bell (2011) observe that there are two methods in population sampling which are probability and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, a sample is chosen randomly and each subject in the population has the equivalent opportunity of being chosen. Zikmund et al., (2013) assert that the benefit of probability sampling is that all respondents from a research population stand an equal chance of being selected into the sample population. The probability process greatly reduces bias from the sampling method and makes the results more objective and generalizable.

The alternative approach to sample selection is the non-probability process. Bush et al., (2014) point out that the sample is chosen randomly, thereby making participants not to be representative. This makes it impossible to carry out a legitimate inference about the population. Several researchers such as Aaker et al., (2013) and Churchill et al., (2010) allude to various non-probability approaches such as convenience sampling, snowball sampling and quota sampling.

This study employed a probability sampling approach so as to reduce bias and improve the quality of the sample that represents the population. The researcher considered the recommendations of Aaker et al., (2013:342), on the four probability sampling considerations, which are, target population, sampling method, sample size and non-response rate issues. Once these recommendations were appraised, the researcher opted for a stratified random sampling



process, since stratified sampling process enables the dissection of a sample frame into a number of different sub-sets which possess distinctively common characteristics (Bernard, 2014). The different sections of Cosmo City were divided according to the socio-income grouping as per the DoHS profiling (DoHS, 2014b). The DoHS allocated RDP houses which comprised 2 bedrooms and a lounge, free of charge to people who were living in informal settlements. This group forms LSM 2-4 and is found in Extensions 2, 4 and 6. LSM 4-7 are residents located in Extensions 0, 6, 8, 9 and 10, in the semi-bonded houses. Extensions 3, 5, and 7 households made up LSM 7-10, and these people occupy freehold bonded houses (South African Institute of Race Relations, 2012).

### **5.4.3. Pilot study**

The preliminary survey or pilot study was conducted from January to February 2015. The pilot questionnaire contained a battery of questions designed to test the ability of the questionnaire to capture accurately the intended data for research. The primary aim was to check the questionnaire's reliability. The questions were designed and aligned to the main research question and objectives, so that statistical inferences could be made that would enable the testing of the three research hypotheses.

The pilot test involved 60 households from the three household segments of RDP, Low Income Households and High Income Households. The 60 questionnaires were allocated equally to all the three segments with 40 questionnaires for the RDP and Low Income Bonded Houses being completed via a face to face interview, whilst the other 20 questionnaires for the High Income Bonded Houses were self-administered. The pilot study was conducted through face-to-face interviews by the researcher and an assistant. The research team met each household and conducted a 20-30 minute interview using the structured questionnaire. Respondents were assured of their privacy and confidentiality in relation to the response they provided in accordance with the ethical guidelines mentioned in Chapter 1.

The data that was collected was tested using the SPSS V17 package and the results produced acceptable Cronbach alpha results for all three constructs. The alpha values were all above 0.7, however there were some questions that had to be modified to improve their internal consistency. The data did not yield too many out of context responses but there were challenges

in the ability of respondents to comprehend and accurately respond to some terminologies used in the questionnaire. This challenge caused the interview process to be longer and a bit frustrating to the respondents.

The pilot study also revealed that there were limitations in the literacy levels among many households in the RDP segment whose respondents originally came from the informal settlement. The fieldworker had to interpret the questionnaire from English into the local isiZulu language, so as to bridge this gap and create rapport, improve response rate and participation. There were also challenges in the RDP segment's responses as most did not have detailed understanding of the finer differences in product forms, for example, the differences between an 'In-the-Cistern (ITC) and 'In-the-Bowl (ITB) product. To overcome this shortfall, the researcher had to spend considerable time explaining differences in terms of how the two products are used in the toilet.

In the High Income Bonded Houses the questionnaire was e-mailed or hand delivered to prospective respondents. The respondents were given the questionnaire to read and respond at leisure, but to return it within three days. The objective was to test the reliability and level of accuracy in completing the questionnaire. The responses from these self-administered questionnaire was very positive with minor issues around the clarity of specific term used to describe some research constructs like lifestyle, product benefits and the classification of previous type and place of dwelling or residence . Some respondents wanted a differentiation between living in a flat and a townhouse and cluster home, which the researcher recognised as being not critically important, since all that was needed was an indication of the type of previous residence type. In the final questionnaire this issue was addressed.

The insights from the pilot study were used to resolve issues that were identified to be a challenge to the accuracy, effectiveness and efficiency administration of the questionnaire. The wording of the questionnaire was improved using simpler terms that would provide greater clarity on the questions and also improve the quality of responses from the respondents. In some instances the English language proved to be a barrier to the understanding of questions since it failed to illicit the intended response. This led to the translation of the questionnaire

into the isiZulu language. Respondents who could not understand and comprehend the questionnaire in English could then use the isiZulu version.

### **5.5. Unit of Analysis**

The unit of analysis in this research is the household which contains elements that the research investigates to obtain data that can enable testing of the research hypotheses. An element is defined “as a unit in a defined target population about which the researcher is gathering data” (Leedy et al., 2013:89).

### **5.6. Research Instrument**

The study used a structured questionnaire (Appendix 4) to gather data about the research sample from Cosmo City households. The questionnaire approach was adopted because it was the most practical way to reach a large number of respondents which could be analysed statistically and produce acceptable research (Babie, 2013). Questionnaires also enabled efficient data collection from the primary source making them more accurate. This approach was also deemed cost and time effective, since the study had limited financial and manpower resources to reach the sample population.

#### **5.6.1. Demographics**

Questions 1-5 of the questionnaire (Appendix 4) deal with questions which require the demographic data of the households. For example, these include race, household location, employment, and household structure. These questions are critical for independent verification and filtering of households into the correct research segments. These questions were also asked with the intention of obtaining deeper insight of various household profiles. These insights aided in placing the results in context as they defined the nature and characteristic of qualifying households and balanced the stratified sample selection.

#### **5.6.2. Brand Switching**

Questions 6-11 (Appendix 4) dealt with brand choice/switching. The questions were designed to explore changes in product brand consumption behaviour among the sample households after they relocated to Cosmo City. The questions were structured in a way that captured product brand choice behaviour before moving to Cosmo City. This behaviour was then

compared to the new brand choice behaviour since moving to Cosmo City or current brand choice behaviour. The product brand switching questions focused on the type, product format, frequency and quantities of toilet cleaning product used by the sample households in the three broad brand classes, namely, private labels, manufacturer labels and informal labels.

### **5.6.3. Change in Place and Type of Dwelling**

Questions 12-16 dealt with changes in type and place of dwelling or residence and its impact on toilet-care product brand choice. The questions investigated changes in the household's sanitary product usage relative to the change in place and type of dwelling. Respondents were requested to appraise their previous places of dwelling with reference to access of piped (tap) water and the type of toilet cleaning product brands used. Questions were asked so as to be able to compare the previous toilet structure and with the current ones, so as to evaluate the impact of the change in the toilet structure and toilet-care product brand usage. These questions were useful in analysing the relationships between a physical change in the place and type of dwelling and product brand switching behaviour.

### **5.6.4. Desired Brand Benefits**

Questions 17 and 18 were designed to investigate the desired product brand benefits that households were seeking when they purchased toilet-care products. The questions were structured to capture product brand choice behaviour pre- and post – relocation to Cosmo City of. Respondents were requested to respond to sets of questions that probed both the functional and emotional benefits sought in toilet-care products. The responses from the respondents were obtained using a Likert scale, where respondents were required to express their level of agreement or disagreement with each question on a specified scale on a scale of 1 to 5, where 5-point measurement which ranged from 5- “strongly agree”, “agree”, “neutral”, “disagree” and 1- “strongly disagree”. The insights into the desired brand benefits were central to understanding product brand switching behaviour resulting from an external disruption in the form of a change in the place and type of dwelling.

### **5.6.5. Interval scale**

The questionnaire used in this research incorporated nominal and ordinal scales. The use of nominal scales enabled respondents to provide basic descriptors about themselves and their

behaviour, whilst ordinal scales allowed respondents to express the relative magnitudes between the responses to the questions. The interval scale chosen for the study incorporated scale interval equality, also known as Thurstone scales, that is, the distance between 1 and 2 equals the distance between 2 and 3, 3 and 4, and so on. Bernard (2014) indicates that a Likert scale is the best tool to represent interval scale in research. A Likert scale requires respondents to indicate the extent to which they either agree or disagree with a series of statements about the subject,” (Bush 2013:342). Aaker et al., (2013:233) added that the Likert scale is also called the summated scale because the scores on individual items are summed to produce a total score for the respondents. A Likert scale was used in this study firstly, by articulating the item part of the scale which is a statement about a factor being investigated.

The research incorporated the evaluative part of the Likert scale which is a list of responses that are predetermined as per the questionnaire. The evaluative component used was a 5-point measurement which ranged from 5 “strongly agree”, “agree”, “neutral”, “disagree” and 1 “strongly disagree”. In other questions, a five-point scale was modified appropriately to suit the question and included responses like: Very difficult, Difficult, Neutral Easy, Easy, and Very Easy. The Likert scale as operationalised in the current research is illustrated by a sample question which reads:

*Indicate the degree of difficulty to the following statements with regards to cleaning your toilet.....*

Using toilet cleaning products in...	Very difficult	Difficult	Neutral	Easy	Very easy
17.1 ... my <i>previous</i> home was...					
17.2.... my <i>current</i> home in Cosmo City is.					

The interval measurement scales have been used in the study to aid in the statistical analysis. Other measurements include the calculation of the arithmetic mean as a measure of central tendency and the standard deviation as a yardstick of dispersion, t-tests, F-tests and other parametric tests as recommended by Churchill et al., (2010).

## **5.7. Data Analysis**

### **5.7.1. Quantitative Analysis**

The data was analysed using quantitative statistical methods. A quantitative approach according to Saunders et al., (2013:134) is a “highly structured research approach that involves the quantification of concepts in order to do measurements and conduct evaluations.” Brymann et al., (2010) adds that quantitative research uses formal questions with determined response options. The structured approach that uses formal questions with predetermined response options was achieved in this research by the use of a structured questionnaire, which was divided into four sections so as to elicit adequate relevant responses that would test the research hypotheses.

Quantitative analysis allows a researcher to gain in-depth insights into factor relationships (Burns et al., 2014). This benefit is central to the current research as the research seeks to quantify and measure relationship strengths between an external disruptive factor and product-brand choice behaviour. Such an insight would allow the researcher to test the three research hypotheses.

### **5.7.2. Correlation Analysis**

The SPSS V17 software was chosen because it enables factor relationships and patterns to be easily interpreted and understood. The data collected was analysed using inferential statistical analysis which included significance testing and hypothesis testing. Significance testing involved testing strengths of association between two variables. It is statistically calculated using regression analysis and correlation coefficients (Bernard, 2014). The current research makes use of Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient, ANOVA tests, and alpha and p-values. Descriptive statistical analysis involving measures of central tendency such as mean, and standard deviation were also calculated from the data, so as to gain more insight on consumer behaviour in Cosmo City.

Levene’s Tests for homogeneity of variance in the data sets were conducted to determine whether there were significant differences between change in the place of dwelling and brand switching, and also brand benefits and brand switching. The p-value is described as being statistically significant if its value is less than a specified threshold value and, in the context of

this research study, the p-value less than 0.0005 was determined as significant for testing H1 and H2, and 0.05 for the H3.

### **5.8. Research De-limitations**

The study is limited to the households located in Cosmo City, Johannesburg South Africa. The area is a fair representation of the post-apartheid Johannesburg household structure (DoHS, 2014a). The study acknowledges the following de-limitations:

- i. The research only pertains to South African toilet-care product brands.
- ii. The market is only categorized into a three tier brand study- informal brands, private label and manufacturer brands.
- iii. The research study excludes point of purchase brand choice behavior.

### **5.9. Conclusions**

The chapter discussed the research design and methodology that are used in the study. It was explained why the case study approach was preferred over other research design options. It was considered more relevant as it provided a better fit for the purposes of testing the three hypotheses on consumer behaviour in the light of a disruptive ‘out – of – market’ factor being introduced.

The use of a structured questionnaire to survey a randomly stratified sample of household was deemed the most effective tool for data collection. This instrument provided both qualitative and quantitative data that was analysed to test the three hypotheses. The questionnaire covered all the essential research constructs needed to validate or refute the hypotheses.

Chapter five provides the results of the study. The data collected was subjected to various quantitative statistical methods. The SPSS V17 analytical software was used to compute and analyse the data, and the results were then presented graphically and quantitatively using inferential statistics. Summary conclusions from both the quantitative and qualitative results as are then drawn and presented in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **RESEARCH FINDINGS**

#### **6. Introduction**

The chapter presents the research findings using descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. The main objective of this study was to investigate the impact of a social change on consumer purchasing behaviour, more specifically on brand switching amongst households who were relocated to a planned residential settlement. The chapter begins by presenting the various demographic data using frequency distribution tables, graphs, and thereafter, descriptive statistics are presented which include means, standard deviation and sample variances. Thereafter, the findings obtained through the use of inferential statistical analysis such as Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Person's correlation coefficient tests and logistic regression are presented.

#### **6.1. Findings**

Table 6.1 reflects that the overall response rate was 92%, with 86% of the questionnaires being usable.

**Table 6.1: Summary of Response**

	<b>Total number</b>	<b>Percent age (%)</b>
Number of questionnaires distributed	384	100%
Number of questionnaires returned	353	92%
Number of usable questionnaires	332	86%

#### **6.2. Validity of the Research Instrument**

In order to establish construct validity of the research instruments, factor analysis (Hair, Robert & Ortinau, 2006:59) was conducted, initially using Principal Axis Factoring, in order to establish whether underlying factors existed. The Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) measure was used to determine the effectiveness of factor analysis, and since as per Table 6.2, the KMO and Barlett's test are fairly close to the possible maximum value of 1, this indicated that factor analysis was indeed a meaningful and effective analysis (Malhotra, 1993).



**Table 6.2: Validity of the Research Instrument**

<b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.857
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6345.007
	Df	351
	Sig.	.000

The output of the Exploratory Factor Analysis procedure using the Principal Axis extraction method in Table 6.3 reflects that only three factors accounted for about 60% of the variance among the factors.

**Table 6.3: Factor Analysis**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.972	29.527	29.527	7.507	27.804	27.804	4.677	17.321	17.321
2	4.454	16.495	46.022	4.052	15.006	42.81	4.641	17.188	34.508
3	2.913	10.788	56.81	2.394	8.867	51.677	4.636	17.169	51.677
4	1.691	6.264	63.074						
5	1.214	4.495	67.57						
6	1.051	3.891	71.461						
7	0.819	3.032	74.493						
8	0.72	2.668	77.161						
9	0.7	2.591	79.752						
10	0.594	2.199	81.951						
11	0.581	2.151	84.102						
12	0.533	1.972	86.074						
13	0.463	1.714	87.788						
14	0.401	1.486	89.274						
15	0.363	1.343	90.617						
16	0.35	1.297	91.914						
17	0.326	1.207	93.122						
18	0.304	1.126	94.248						
19	0.279	1.032	95.28						
20	0.257	0.951	96.231						
21	0.205	0.758	96.989						
22	0.181	0.672	97.661						
23	0.179	0.664	98.325						
24	0.156	0.578	98.903						
25	0.125	0.461	99.364						
26	0.099	0.367	99.731						
27	0.073	0.269	100						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table 6.4 confirms the items that through Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization and after six rotations, the items converged (loaded) on the three factors, and Factor 1 was labelled Brand Benefits; Factor 2 was labelled Social Disruption, and Factor 3 was labelled as Lifestyle Change.

**Table 6.4: Rotated Factor Analysis**

	Factor		
	Brand Benefits	Dwelling place change	Lifestyle change
18.1 Cleans effectively: gives a deep clean with less scrubbing	0.727		
18.2 Smells clean and fresh	0.848		
18.3 Has a long lasting fragrance	0.623		
18.4 Has a fragrance that matches my room spray			
18.5 Removes stains in the chamber	0.585		
18.6 Removes bad smell (odour) in the chamber	0.636		
18.7 Does not damage the environment	0.537		
18.8 Gives good value for money	0.671		
18.9 Is a socially acceptable product to use	0.786		
18.1 Is readily available when I go to buy it	0.741		
19.1 ...smells better		0.69	
19.2 ...cleans better		0.704	
19.3 ...is cheaper		0.79	
19.4 ...is recommended by friends/family		0.632	
19.5 ...gives me more status		0.73	
19.6 ...is more suited to the type of toilet I have			
19.7 ...is on promotion and therefore costs less than usual		0.708	
19.8 ...matches my personality		0.789	
19.9 ...matches my new lifestyle		0.743	
20.1 Now I participate in more social events and activities than before			0.639
20.2 There are better job opportunities here			0.7
20.3 The toilet systems in Cosmo have improved my health and wellbeing			0.626
20.4 Moving into Cosmo city has improved my social status in society			0.542
20.5 My family and I are more confident about a better future			0.64
20.6 I am happy to spend more time in my home than before			0.653
20.7 I feel that my family and I have achieved a better life			0.637
20.8 My life is more comfortable as I have more space/rooms than before			0.636

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

### 6.3. Reliability of the Research Instrument

Reliability was measured by determining the Cronbach Alpha coefficient, which according to Warrens (2015:127) is “an estimate of the reliability of a test score if the items are essentially tau-equivalent”. The Cronbach alpha coefficients presented in Table 6.5 reveal that the research instrument used to measure the three research constructs produced an overall alpha value which exceeded 0.7, which is the generally acceptable level (Bhattacharjee, 2012), the implication of such a result is that the research instrument has high internal consistency and reliability. These results are in line with others from similar studies, such as those reported by Beneke et al., (2013) whose product benefit instrument’s alpha was 0.86, Krishnan (2011), whose lifestyle instrument’s coefficient was 0.76, and Katigari et al., (2015) whose lifestyle cohesion instrument produced a coefficient of 0.75.

**Table 6.5: Reliability of the Research Instrument**

Instrument of measure	Number of items	Cronbach’s Alpha
Brand benefits	9	0.874
Change in place and type of dwelling	8	0.896
Lifestyle change	8	0.875

### 6.4. Demographic data

The demographic data of the respondents was central to this study as it provided a context to the study in terms of the respondents’ profiles (Burns, 2014). The key demographic variables which consumers were asked to respond to included: race, family structure, home ownership type, and sources of household income. These variables were cross referenced with the changes in consumption of toilet-care product brands, brand benefit changes, and lifestyle changes. With respect to the race of the respondents, Table 6.6 reflects that the overwhelming majority (99.7%) of the respondents are blacks.

**Table 6.6: Race profile**

	Frequency	Percent
Black	331	99.7
Coloured	1	0.3
White	0	0
Indian	0	0
Total	332	100

Table 6.7 which reflect the family size of respondents, indicates that the most common family size is 1-4 members.

**Table 6.7: Family Size of Respondents**

	Frequency	Percent
1 – 4	238	71.7
5 – 6	87	26.2
More than 6	7	2.1
	332	100

With respect to home ownership, Table 6.8 reflects that the majority (79.5%) of respondents owned the houses they currently live in, of which the finding is in line with the reported national home ownership figures of 78.3% (Statistics South Africa, 2014).

**Table 6.8: Home Ownership of Respondents**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	264	79.5
No	68	20.5
Total	332	100

Table 6.9 reflects the different sources of income of the respondents, indicates that the overwhelming majority (82.5%) of the respondents receive their income from formal employment. The aforementioned is in line with that reported in the Gauteng Province’s formal employment figure of 77.8% (Statistics South Africa, 2014).

**Table 6.9: Sources of Income**

	Frequency	Percent
Formal employment	274	82.5
Informal employment	46	13.9
Social grant	12	3.6
Total	332	100

## 6.5.Descriptive statistics

The descriptive results of the survey which are presented in the following paragraphs include, brand switching relative to the change in the place and type of dwelling, product benefit changes, and lifestyle changes.

### 6.5.1. Brand Types and Brand Switching

From Table 6.10, it may be inferred that the majority (73.5%) of the respondents ‘agreed’ that they switched toilet-care product brands since moving to their new residences in Cosmo City.

**Table 6.10: Product Switching Profile**

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	244	73.5
No	88	26.5
Total	332	100

A binominal test was conducted between the respondents who switched brands, and those who remained loyal to a particular (their previous) brand, so as to determine whether there was a significant difference in the proportion of respondents who responded ‘yes’, compared to those who said ‘no’. The results presented in Table 6.11 indicate that a significant proportion of respondents changed or switched toilet-care cleaning product brands after relocating to Cosmo City, because the p-value is significant as it is less than 0.0005 (Babie, 2013).

**Table 6.11: Brand Switching: Binominal Test Results**

		Category	N	Observed Prop.	Test Prop.	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
6. Have you changed toilet cleaning brands or products since moving to Cosmo City?	Group 1	No	88	0.27	0.5	.000 <sup>a</sup>
	Group 2	Yes	244	0.73		
	Total		332	1		

a. Based on Z Approximation.

### 6.5.2. Private vs. Manufacturer Brands

Table 6.12 reflects the mean scores of the respondents' use of different types of toilet-care product brands by respondents, namely, private labels or store brands, unbranded products manufactured by informal traders, and national brands, following their relocation to Cosmo City. The results indicate that more households used “store” brands since moving to Cosmo City.

**Table 6.12: Product Brand Switching**

	Mean	Std. Deviation
7.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner	2.65	1.523
7.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos	2.46	1.422
7.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel	1.74	0.943
8.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner	3.44	1.277
8.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos	3.15	1.361
8.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel	2.38	1.273

### 6.5.3. Product format

In this study, toilet-care cleaning products were categorized into three formats namely, liquids, “In-the- Bowl” products (ITBs) and “In- the-Cistern” products (ITCs). Table 6.13 indicates that of the three aforementioned product formats, “liquid” products are used significantly more than the others; and ring blocks are used significantly more than cistern blocks.

**Table 6.13: Usage by Product Brand Format**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
10.1. Liquids in bottles	4.45	0.723	328
10.2. Ring blocks	2.29	1.064	328
10.3. Cistern blocks	2.16	1.062	328

#### 6.5.4. Reasons for Switching Brands

Table 6.14 indicates that brand switching was motivated mostly by promotional activities at the time of purchase, whilst compatibility with the type of toilet system was the least important reason for switching brands.

**Table 6.14: Factors Motivation Brand Switching**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
19.1 ...smells better	244	3.95	0.53	0.034
19.2 ...cleans better	244	3.93	0.577	0.037
19.3 ...is cheaper	244	3.94	0.673	0.043
19.4 ...is recommended by friends/family	244	3.87	0.638	0.041
19.5 ...gives me more status	244	3.96	0.73	0.047
19.6 ...is more suited to the type of toilet I have	244	3.58	0.689	0.044
19.7 ...is on promotion and therefore costs less than usual	244	4.04	0.687	0.044
19.8 ...matches my personality	244	3.93	0.583	0.037
19.9 ...matches my new lifestyle	244	3.98	0.57	0.036

#### 6.6. Benefits of Switching Brands

The respondents were asked to rank and score various brand benefits which influenced their toilet-care brand choice behaviour since they relocated to Cosmo City. It can be observed from Table 6.15, that the “strength” of toilet-care fragrance and ability to remove odour are the most important factors, whilst the least important factor was fragrance laddering, that is, matching the toilet-care product’s cleaning fragrance with a deodorising room spray.



**Table 6.15: Benefits of Switching Brands**

	<b>It is important that my toilet cleaner...</b>	<b>Mean score</b>
18.3	Has a long lasting fragrance	4.32
18.6	Removes bad smell (ardour) in the chamber	4.32
18.8	Gives good value for money	4.24
18.1	Is readily available when I go to buy it	4.21
18.2	Smells clean and fresh	4.17
18.9	Is a socially acceptable product to use	4.17
18.1	Cleans effectively: gives a deep clean with less scrubbing	4.15
18.7	Does not damage the environment	3.66
18.5	Removes stains in the chamber	3.61
18.4	Has a fragrance that matches my room spray	3.52

### **6.7. Change in the Type of Residence and Brand Switching Behaviour**

The analysis of the results with respect to the impact of the change in the type and place of dwelling or residence on brand choice behaviour required a re-ranking of the movement from previous types of residences to the current ones. The re-ranking was conducted in order to capture the impact of the change more specifically on brand switching by respondents from different residential areas, such as, from Informal Settlements to Cosmo City; Townhouse/Flat to Cosmo City; Stand-a-alone house to Cosmo City, and Backroom to Cosmo City. The impact of this change was achieved by using the following scale: 1 = most change and 12 = least change. In the re-ranking process, it was assumed that the greatest impact would be on households that relocated from Informal Settlements to High Cost Bonded houses, because of the magnitude of the change in the quality of housing and sanitary infrastructure. On the contrary, the least impact of the change was assumed to be on households that relocated from a Stand-alone unit to an RDP house, because there is minimal change in sanitary infrastructure. The ranking of the reclassified house type is presented in Table 6.16.

**Table 6.16: Rank Change in Residential Type**

Before	After	Rank
<b>Informal settlement</b>	RDP house – Extension 2, 4 & 6	3
	Low cost bonded house- Extension 0, 8, 9 & 10	2
	High cost bonded houses – Extension 3, 5 and 7	1
<b>Townhouse or flat</b>	RDP house – Extension 2, 4 & 6	9
	Low cost bonded house- Extension 0, 8, 9 & 10	8
	High cost bonded houses – Extension 3, 5 and 7	7
<b>Stand-alone house</b>	RDP house – Extension 2, 4 & 6	12
	Low cost bonded house- Extension 0, 8, 9 & 10	11
	High cost bonded houses – Extension 3, 5 and 7	10
<b>Backyard room</b>	RDP house – Extension 2, 4 & 6	6
	Low cost bonded house- Extension 0, 8, 9 & 10	5
	High cost bonded houses – Extension 3, 5 and 7	4

The results of the re-ranked data are presented in Table 6.17. The respondents that chose ‘other’ as an option were grouped under “12”.

**Table 6.17: Change in the type of residence**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	4	1.2	1.3	1.3
	2	13	3.9	4.1	5.3
	3	110	33.1	34.4	39.7
	4	4	1.2	1.3	40.9
	5	14	4.2	4.4	45.3
	6	16	4.8	5	50.3
	7	52	15.7	16.3	66.6
	8	50	15.1	15.6	82.2
	9	11	3.3	3.4	85.6
	10	27	8.1	8.4	94.1
	11	14	4.2	4.4	98.4
	12	5	1.5	1.6	100
	Total	320	96.4	100	
Missing	System	12	3.6		
Total		332	100		

The re-ranked place and types of dwelling in Table 6.17 were subjected to an ANOVA test, to determine whether there was a significant difference in behaviour between respondents who switched brands, compared to those who did not. The average score for respondents who switched brands was 5.42 (n=233, sd = 2.785) and for respondents who remained loyal to former brands was 7.18 (n=87, sd =2.734). The conclusion that can be drawn from these results in conjunction with the Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Table 6.18), is that an average change in the place and type of dwelling was significantly different (Welch (1, 156.780) = 25.952, p<.0005) for households that switched brands, compared to those who did not. The results of the Welch and ANOVA tests confirmed that households will switch brands if the degree of social change is greater than the perceived strength of the current brand (Lam et al., 2010).

**Table 6.18 House Type Change vs. Brand Loyalty/Switching**

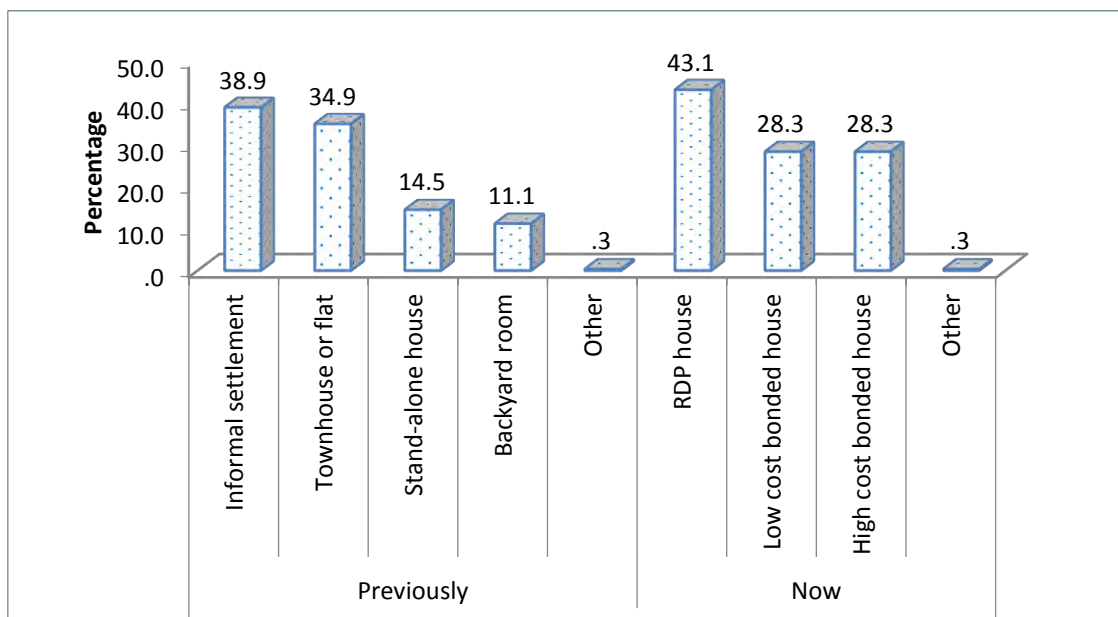
Rank change in housing				
	Statistic <sup>a</sup>	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	25.952	1	156.780	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

### 6.7.1. Change in Type of Residence

Figure 6.1 indicates that the majority (38.9%) of the respondents indicated that they previously lived in Informal Settlements, and the majority (43.1%) now live in RDP houses.

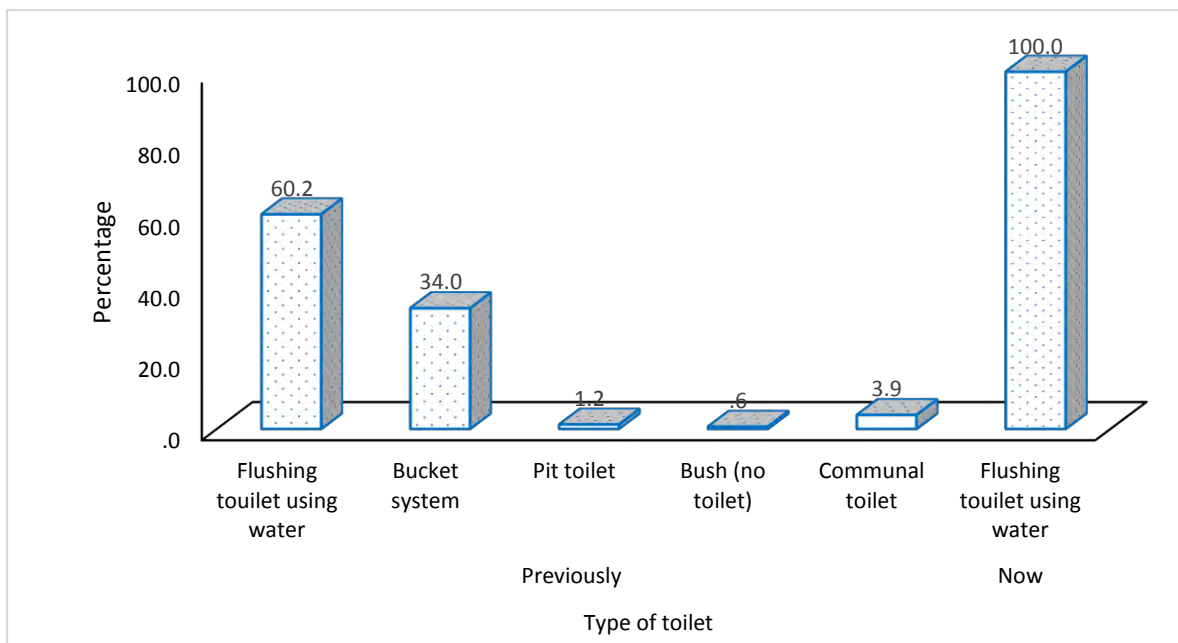
**Figure 6.1: Changes in the Profile of the Place of Residence**



### 6.7.2. Change in Toilet Type

The study was guided by the LSM lifestyle measurement tool to focus on the changes in household sanitary infrastructure as an indicative measure to track the impact of a change in place and type of dwelling on brand choice. It was explicitly assumed that the change from a non-flushing toilet to a water based flushing system, would motivate brand switching. In this context, respondents were asked to make a comparative response by indicating the type of toilet system that they used before moving to Cosmo City, relative to their current ones. The results in Figure 6.2 indicate that the majority (60.2%) of the respondents previously used ‘flushing’ toilets. The figure is lower than the Gauteng provincial figure of 86.6% (Statistics South Africa, 2014).

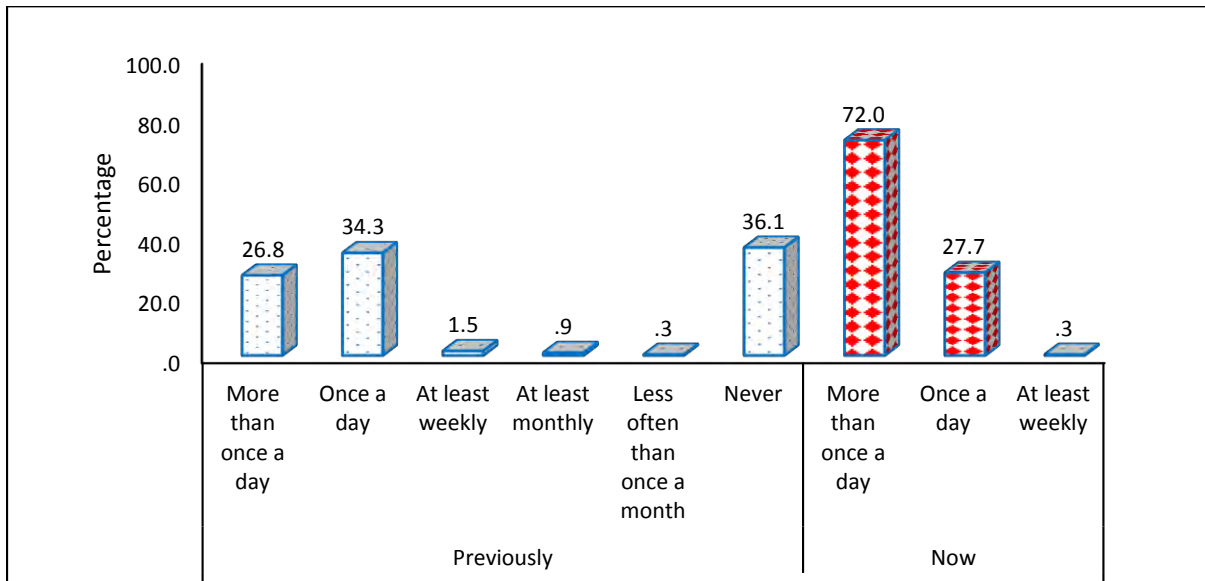
**Figure 6.2: Changes in Type of Toilet**



### 6.7.3. Change in Toilet Cleaning Behaviour

The study proposed that a change in the type of toilet system (from a non-flushing to water a based flushing system) would trigger ‘behavioural’ changes in the way respondents used toilet-care products to clean their toilets. Based on this assumption, Figure 6.3 profiles the cleaning behaviour of respondents before and after relocating to Cosmo City. The results indicate that prior to moving to Cosmo City, most (36.1%) respondents never cleaned their toilets as they lived in Informal Settlements where they used a ‘bucket’ toilet system.

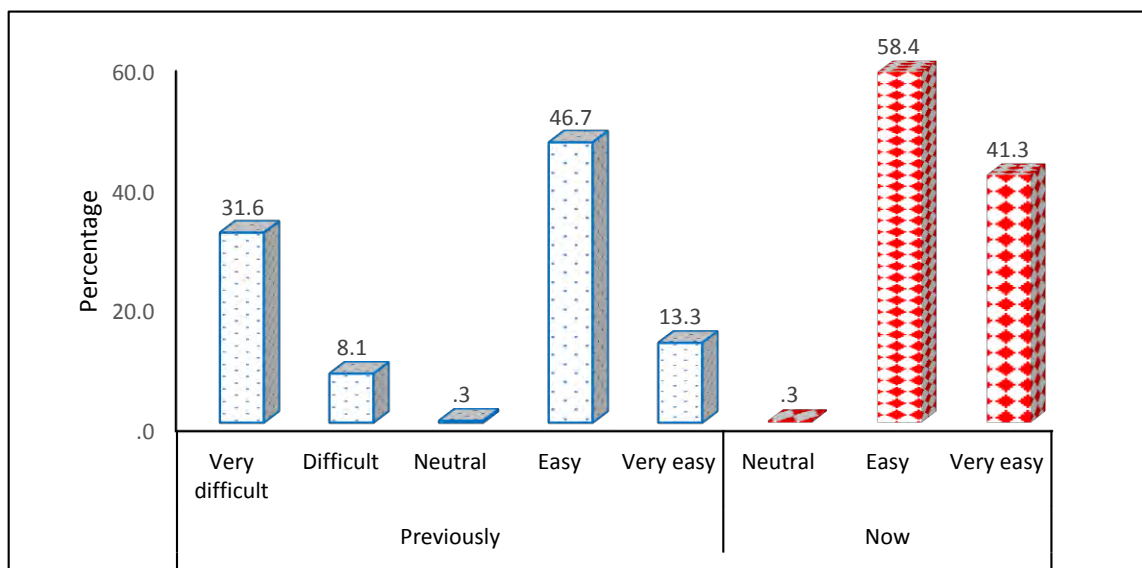
**Figure 6.3: Changes in Toilet Cleaning Behaviour**



**6.7.4. Ease of Cleaning**

The ‘ease’ of cleaning toilets was intended to determine how easy or difficult it was to clean the toilet, by choosing options on a five-point Likert scale with (5) representing flush toilets being very easy and (1) representing bucket toilet system being very difficult. The results in Figure 6.4 indicate that the majority (49.7%) of the respondents indicated that they had difficulty in cleaning their toilets prior to relocating to Cosmo City, compared to the current system, which the overwhelming majority regard as being very easy (99.7%).

**Figure 6.4: Change in the Ease of Toilet Cleaning**



## 6.8. Lifestyle Changes

The Cronbach's alpha test was conducted to determine the factors (Table 6.19) which measured lifestyle change to ascertain whether these factors were consistent in their measure of lifestyle change. An alpha value of 0.875 was obtained, which indicates that, if combined into a single construct, this instrument is a reliable measure for lifestyle change. The results in Table 6.16 indicate that respondents 'agree' that the most important lifestyle factor is the 'improvement in space or room size'.

**Table 6.19: Analysis of Means of the Lifestyle Items**

Lifestyle Descriptors		Mean
20.8	My life is more comfortable as I have more space/rooms than before	4.06
20.7	I feel that my family and I have achieved a better life	4.05
20.6	I am happy to spend more time in my home than before	3.97
20.4	Moving into Cosmo City has improved my social status in society	3.71
20.5	My family and I are more confident about a better future	3.68
20.1	Now I participate in more social events and activities than before	3.16
20.3	The toilet systems in Cosmo have improved my health and wellbeing	3.14
20.2	There are better job opportunities here	2.87

Logistic Regression analysis was used to test if 'brand benefits' significantly predict 'lifestyle'. The results indicate that this (predictor) variable explains 19.5% of the variance ( $R^2 = .195$ ,  $F(1,330) = 79.701$ ,  $p < .0005$ ). It was thus concluded that 'brand benefits' significantly predict 'lifestyle' ( $\beta = .595$ ,  $p < .0005$ ).

**Table 20: Social Change as a Predictor of Lifestyle Change**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21.84	1	21.84	79.701	.000 <sup>a</sup>
	Residual	90.428	330	0.274		
	Total	112.268	331			

a. Predictors: (Constant), BRAND BENEFITS

b. Dependent Variable: LIFESTYLE

## 6.9. Results of Inferential Statistic Analysis

Inferential statistics analysis was conducted to establish whether the sample's results held true for the population, and also to decide whether differences in the results would indicate the existence of a relationship between the variables (Burns, 2014). The inferential tests used in this study included the T-Test, Pearson's correlation coefficient, and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

### 6.9.1. Brand Switching

The T-test results in Table 6.21 reflect the participants who responded "yes" to brand switching, and the factors which motivated them. The conclusion that can be drawn from these results is that there is significant agreement that all nine factors are significant ( $p < .0005$  in all cases) reasons for switching product brands.

**Table 6.21: Reasons for Switching Brands**

	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
19.1 ...smells better	27.892	243	0	0.947
19.2 ...cleans better	25.289	243	0	0.934
19.3 ...is cheaper	21.782	243	0	0.939
19.4 ....is recommended by friends/family	21.357	243	0	0.873
19.5 ...gives me more status	20.513	243	0	0.959
19.6 ...is more suited to the type of toilet I have	13.194	243	0	0.582
19.7 ...is on promotion and therefore costs less than usual	23.578	243	0	1.037
19.8 ...matches my personality	24.805	243	0	0.926
19.9 ...matches my new lifestyle	26.852	243	0	0.98

### 6.9.2. Product Format -Brand Switching

Table 6.22 presents the results of the paired sample T-Test analysis which indicate that there was a significant increase ( $p < .0005$  in all cases), in the usage of all toilet-care cleaning product types, formats and containers by respondents after moving to Cosmo City. The average quantity of each type of toilet cleaning product purchased by the participants increased

significantly since they relocated to Cosmo City ( $p < .0005$  in each case). The conclusion that can be drawn is that since in all nine pairs, the  $p$ -values are less than  $.0005$ , a significant relationship exists between product format and brand switching (Bush, 2013).

**Table 6.22: Change in Residence and Brand Switching**

		Paired Differences					
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	7.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner - 8.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner	-0.788	1.497	0.082	-9.562	329	0.000
Pair 2	7.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos - 8.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos	-0.693	1.153	0.064	-10.903	328	0.000
Pair 3	7.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel - 8.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel	-0.638	1.492	0.082	-7.761	328	0.000
Pair 4	9.1 liquids in bottles - 10.1 liquids in bottles	-1.118	1.655	0.091	-12.285	330	0.000
Pair 5	9.2 ring blocks - 10.2 ring blocks	-0.598	0.943	0.052	-11.475	327	0.000
Pair 6	9.3 cistern blocks - 10.3 cistern blocks	-0.509	0.958	0.053	-9.627	327	0.000
Pair 7	11.1 Liquid in bottles - 12.1 Liquids in bottles	-0.906	0.894	0.049	-18.38	328	0.000
Pair 8	11.2 Ring blocks - 12.2 Ring blocks	-0.39	0.659	0.036	-10.723	327	0.000
Pair 9	11.3 Cistern blocks - 12.3 Cistern blocks	-0.36	0.6	0.033	-10.867	327	0.000



### 6.9.3. Brand Switching by Participants who Relocated from an Informal Settlement to Cosmo City

Table 6.23 presents the T-Test results of product brand changes by respondents who previously lived in Informal Settlements. The results indicate that the “retailer” brand ( $t(128) = -14.697$ ,  $p < .0005$ ), was used more, since the participants moved to Cosmo City, followed by “unbranded” products manufactured by informal traders ( $t(128) = -10.809$ ,  $p < .0005$ ), and then manufacturer or “national” brands ( $t(128) = -10.532$ ,  $p < .0005$ ). In all three product types, the results indicate that the p-values are less than .0005, implying that there is a significant relationship between the change in the place and type of dwelling and the brand.

**Table 6.23: Brand Switching: Relocation from an Informal Settlement to Cosmo City**

Paired difference		Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	7.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner & 8.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner	-1.953	1.51	-14.697	128	0.000
Pair 2	7.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos & 8.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos	-1.194	1.287	-10.532	128	0.000
Pair 3	7.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel & 8.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel	-1.69	1.776	-10.809	128	0.000
Pair 4	9.1 liquids in bottles & 10.1 liquids in bottles	-2.667	1.568	-19.317	128	0.000
Pair 5	9.2 ring blocks & 10.2 ring blocks	-0.62	0.97	-7.263	128	0.000
Pair 6	9.3 cistern blocks & 10.3 cistern blocks	-0.527	1.031	-5.805	128	0.000
Pair 7	11.1 Liquid in bottles & 12.1 Liquids in bottles	-1.566	0.837	-21.247	128	0.000
Pair 8	11.2 Ring blocks & 12.2 Ring blocks	-0.364	0.695	-5.952	128	0.000
Pair 9	11.3 Cistern blocks & 12.3 Cistern blocks	-0.326	0.627	-5.897	128	0.000

Table 6.23 also indicates the results on the *product format*, which results show that liquid toilet-care products ( $t(128) = -19.317, p < .0005$ ) are used significantly more by the participants since they moved to Cosmo City, followed by ITB toilet-care products ( $t(128) = -7.263, p < .0005$ ), and lastly by ITC toilet-care products ( $t(128) = -5.805, p < .0005$ ). The p-values are less than .0005 for all three *product formats*, indicating that there is a significant relationship in the brand choice behaviour of respondents based on their prior and current place of residence, that is, from an Informal Settlement to Cosmo City.

Table 6.23 presents the results of changes in the product quantities used. The results indicate that liquid toilet care products ( $t(128) = -21.247, p < .0005$ ) were used more by respondents since moving from the Informal Settlements to Cosmo City, followed by ITBs ( $t(128) = -5.952, p < .0005$ ), and lastly ITCs, ( $t(128) = -5.897, p < .0005$ ).

From the above results, it is evident that, in all three paired product categories, the p-values are less than 0.0005, indicating that there is a statistical significance in the type, format and quantity of toilet-care products used, and a change in residential type (moving from Informal Settlements and to Cosmo City).

#### **6.9.4. Brand Switching by Participants who relocated from a Townhouse to Cosmo City**

Table 6.24 presents the results from respondents who previously lived in a Townhouse or a flat and moved to Cosmo City. The *brand type* results indicate that national toilet-care brands ( $t(113) = -4.631, p < .0005$ ) were used more often, after the participants moved to Cosmo City. The p-value is less than .0005, indicating a significant result, however the p-values on retailer brands ( $p = .561$ ), and on Unbranded products manufactured by informal traders ( $p = .510$ ), are greater than .0005, indicating no significance.

Table 6.24 which also presents the results of product brand *format* usage, indicates that there is greater use of ITBs ( $t(113) = -7.379, p < .0005$ ), followed by ITCs ( $t(113) = -6.004, p < .0005$ ) respectively. In both cases, the p-values are less than 0.0005 indicating that there is a significant relationship between the move from a Townhouse to Cosmo City and brand usage.

**Table 6.24: Brand Switching: Relocation from a Townhouse to Cosmo City**

		Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	7.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner - 8.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner	-0.043	0.799	-0.584	114	0.561
Pair 2	7.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos - 8.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos	-0.351	0.809	-4.631	113	0.000
Pair 3	7.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel - 8.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel	0.044	0.709	0.661	113	0.51
Pair 4	9.1 liquids in bottles - 10.1 liquids in bottles	-0.043	0.581	-0.799	115	0.426
Pair 5	9.2 ring blocks - 10.2 ring blocks	-0.711	1.028	-7.379	113	0.000
Pair 6	9.3 cistern blocks - 10.3 cistern blocks	-0.579	1.03	-6.004	113	0.000
Pair 7	11.1 Liquid in bottles - 12.1 Liquids in bottles	-0.443	0.678	-7.016	114	0.000
Pair 8	11.2 Ring blocks - 12.2 Ring blocks	-0.465	0.598	-8.306	113	0.000
Pair 9	11.3 Cistern blocks - 12.3 Cistern blocks	-0.412	0.607	-7.253	113	0.000

It is further evident from Table 6.24 that with regard to the changes in toilet-care product *quantity* usage, liquid toilet-cleaning products are used more, ( $t(114) = -7.016, p < .0005$ ), followed by ITBs, ( $t(113) = -8.306, p < .0005$ ) and ITCs, ( $t(113) = -7.253, p < .0005$ ). The  $p$ -values are less than .0005, indicating a significant relationship between the changes in brands, and relocating from a Townhouse to Cosmo City.

### 6.9.5. Brand Switching since Relocating from a Stand-alone House to Cosmo City

The results in Table 6.25 indicate the changes in the product *brand type* used by respondents who relocated from stand-alone houses to Cosmo City. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant change in the type of product brands used, because the p-values of Retailer Brands, National Brands and Unbranded products manufactured by informal traders were .0404, 0.054 and .0767 respectively, which values are greater than .0005.

**Table 6.25: Brand Switching: Relocating from a Stand-alone House to Cosmo City**

		Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	7.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner - 8.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner	0.104	0.857	0.843	47	0.404
Pair 2	7.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos - 8.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos	-0.313	1.095	-1.978	47	0.054
Pair 3	7.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel - 8.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel	0.021	0.483	0.299	47	0.767
Pair 4	9.1 liquids in bottles - 10.1 liquids in bottles	-0.229	0.555	-2.861	47	0.006
Pair 5	9.2 ring blocks - 10.2 ring blocks	-0.292	0.651	-3.104	47	0.003
Pair 6	9.3 cistern blocks - 10.3 cistern blocks	-0.313	0.624	-3.469	47	0.001
Pair 7	11.1 Liquid in bottles - 12.1 Liquids in bottles	-0.563	0.501	-7.774	47	0.000
Pair 8	11.2 Ring blocks - 12.2 Ring blocks	-0.313	0.719	-3.01	47	0.004
Pair 9	11.3 Cistern blocks - 12.3 Cistern blocks	-0.375	0.489	-5.31	47	0.000

The results on the product brand format used indicate that the frequency of use of ITBs' ( $t(47) = -3.469, p < .0005$ ) increased, however "liquids" and ITC product formats have p-values that are greater than .0005, indicating that there was no significant change in the respondents' product brand usage frequency, both before and after moving to Cosmo City.

With reference to the quantity of products used, Table 6.23 indicates that liquid toilet-care cleaning product brands are used more, ( $t(47) = -7.774, p < .0005$ ); followed by ITBs ( $t(47) = -3.010, p < .0005$ ); ITCs ( $t(47) = -5.310, p < .0005$ ). In all three product formats, the p-values are less than 0.0005, indicating a significant change in the quantities used.

#### **6.9.6. Brand Switching since Relocating from a Backroom to Cosmo City**

Table 6.26 presents the results of households who previously resided in backyard rooms and relocated to Cosmo City. The results indicate that there was no significant change in the choice of product brand types, because the p-values of retailer brands ( $p = 0.264$ ), and Unbranded products manufactured by informal traders ( $p = 0.689$ ), were all greater than .0005. However, the National Brands were used more ( $t(37) = -2.992, p < .0005$ ), following a change in place and type of dwelling, more especially, from a Backroom to Cosmo City.

In terms of the product format, frequency of use of ITBs and ITCs increased significantly, ( $t(37) = -4.136, p < .0005$ ); ( $t(37) = -3.683, p < .0005$ ). The use of the liquid format of toilet cleaning products did not reflect significant changes, since the p-value is .067, which is greater than .0005. However, respondents who previously lived in “Backrooms” indicated that they experienced a significant increase in the quantities of liquid toilet cleaning products used, ( $t(37) = -4.548, p < .0005$ ), followed by ITBs ( $t(37) = -3.375, p < .0005$ ). The p-values of the two product’s quantities are less than 0.0005, indicating a significant relationship between the move from a Backroom to Cosmo City, and the quantity of toilet-care products used. It is also evident from the aforementioned that there is no statistical significance in the quantity of ITC product brands used before and after moving to Cosmo City.

**Table 6.26: Brand Switching: Relocation from a Backroom to Cosmo City**

		Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	7.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner - 8.1 Retailer toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner	-0.216	1.158	-1.136	36	0.264
Pair 2	7.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos - 8.2 National branded products e.g. Domestos	-0.514	1.044	-2.992	36	0.005
Pair 3	7.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel - 8.3 Informal market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel	0.054	0.815	0.404	36	0.689
Pair 4	9.1 liquids in bottles - 10.1 liquids in bottles	-0.27	0.871	-1.888	36	0.067
Pair 5	9.2 ring blocks - 10.2 ring blocks	-0.568	0.835	-4.136	36	0.000
Pair 6	9.3 cistern blocks - 10.3 cistern blocks	-0.486	0.804	-3.683	36	0.001
Pair 7	11.1 Liquid in bottles - 12.1 Liquids in bottles	-0.486	0.651	-4.548	36	0.000
Pair 8	11.2 Ring blocks - 12.2 Ring blocks	-0.351	0.633	-3.375	36	0.002
Pair 9	11.3 Cistern blocks - 12.3 Cistern blocks	-0.297	0.618	-2.928	36	0.006

### 6.9.7. Changes in Toilet Cleaning Behaviour

The study investigated the frequency of cleaning toilets on a 'two time' framework, one prior and two after moving to Cosmo City. The objective was to determine whether there was a significant change in toilet cleaning behaviour between two points in time, as this may explain behavioural changes in relation to a cleaning regime. The results in Table 6.27 indicate that there was a significant increase ( $p < .0005$ ), in toilet cleaning frequency after moving to Cosmo City, and also that there was a significant improvement ( $p < .0005$ ) in the ease with which toilets are cleaned.

**Table 6.27: Changes in Toilet Cleaning Behaviour**

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	16.1 My previous toilet was cleaned ...& 16.2 My current toilet is cleaned...	1.937	2.239	0.123	15.76	331	0.000
Pair 2	17.1 ... my previous home was...& 17.2 ... my current home in Cosmo City is	-1.392	1.772	0.097	-14.31	331	0.000

### 6.10. Change of Residence and Lifestyle

The Pearson's correlation test was applied to determine the relationship between a change in the place of residence and lifestyle. The results in Table 6.28 indicate that there is a significant correlation ( $r = -.278$ ,  $p < .0005$ ) between the social disruption (change in place of residence) and lifestyle. In determining the correlation between a change in the place of residence and lifestyle, a p value of 0.000 was obtained, which is less than 0.01, indicating a statistically significant influence. This finding means that a change in the place of residence and lifestyle are significantly correlated, with respondents expecting that a change in the place of residence is accompanied by improvements in lifestyle quality.

**Table 6.28: Change in Place of Residence and Lifestyle**

		Social Disruption	Lifestyle
Social Disruption	Pearson Correlation	1	-.278**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0
	N	329	329
Lifestyle change	Pearson Correlation	-.278**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	
	N	329	332

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Anova test was conducted on the relationship between social change and lifestyle and the results are presented in Table 6.29. Furthermore, regression analysis was used to test if ‘social disruption’ significantly predicts ‘lifestyle change’. The results indicate that this predictor variable explains 7.7% of the variance ( $R^2 = .770$   $F(1,330) = 27.380$ ,  $p < .0005$ ). Thus it is concluded that ‘brand benefits’ significantly predict ‘lifestyle’ ( $\beta = .595$ ,  $p < .0005$ ).

Table 6.29 : Social Change as a Predictor of Lifestyle Change

ANOVA <sup>b</sup>						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.602	1	8.602	27.38	.000 <sup>a</sup>
	Residual	102.739	327	0.314		
	Total	111.341	328			
a. Predictors: (Constant), SOCIAL DISRUPTION						
b. Dependent Variable: LIFESTYLE						

### 6.11. Product Brand Benefits

A one-sample T-Test was conducted to determine if any significant agreement or disagreement existed among the respondents with regard to the factors which are important when considering toilet cleaning products by testing the average score against the neutral score of 3. The results in Table 6.30 indicate that there is significant agreement ( $p < .0005$  in all cases) among the respondents that all the factors are important when considering a toilet cleaning product.



**Table 6.30: Brand Benefits Influencing Brand Choice Decision**

<b>One-Sample Test</b>				
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
18.1 Cleans effectively: gives a deep clean with less scrubbing	42.595	331	0.000	1.148
18.2 Smells clean and fresh	47.377	331	0.000	1.172
18.3 Has a long lasting fragrance	39.929	331	0.000	1.322
18.4 Has a fragrance that matches my room spray	11.469	331	0.000	0.521
18.5 Removes stains in the chamber	13.371	331	0.000	0.605
18.6 Removes bad smell (odour) in the chamber	41.269	331	0.000	1.316
18.7 Does not damage the environment	14.87	331	0.000	0.663
18.8 Gives good value for money	40.586	331	0.000	1.244
18.9 Is a socially acceptable product to use	43.784	331	0.000	1.166
18.1 Is readily available when I go to buy it	43.516	331	0.000	1.208

Independent sample T-Tests (Table 6.30) were also conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in the importance of the nine product benefits between the two respondents who switched brands and those who did not. The results indicate that respondents who did not switch brands or remained loyal to the current brand, agree significantly more ( $p < .0005$ ) than those who switched brands, that all nine factors are important in choosing a toilet-care cleaning product. It is evident from the results that the top three reasons, namely, effectiveness in cleaning, clean and fresh smell, stain and bad odour removal, are all functional benefits (Aitchison, 2010), whilst environmental friendliness, value for money, and socially acceptability and available at time of purchase, are non-functional benefits.

**Table 6.31: Brand Benefits Influencing Brand Switching**

		t-Test for Equality of Means			
		F	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
18.1 Cleans effectively: gives a deep clean with less scrubbing	Equal variances assumed	13.93	-2.818	330	0.005
	Equal variances not assumed		-2.779	149.947	0.006
18.2 Smells clean and fresh	Equal variances assumed	20.759	-2.757	330	0.006
	Equal variances not assumed		-2.549	134.534	0.012
18.3 Has a long lasting fragrance	Equal variances assumed	5.3	-1.578	330	0.116
	Equal variances not assumed		-1.521	144.097	0.13
18.4 Has a fragrance that matches my room spray	Equal variances assumed	5.258	-1.831	330	0.068
	Equal variances not assumed		-1.686	133.638	0.094
18.5 Removes stains in the chamber	Equal variances assumed	0.025	-3.962	330	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed		-3.847	145.894	0.000
18.6 Removes bad smell (odour) in the chamber	Equal variances assumed	4.907	-2.627	330	0.009
	Equal variances not assumed		-2.545	145.33	0.012
18.7 Does not damage the environment	Equal variances assumed	1.418	-3.053	330	0.002
	Equal variances not assumed		-2.849	136.527	0.005
18.8 Gives good value for money	Equal variances assumed	8.288	-3.05	330	0.002
	Equal variances not assumed		-3.028	151.83	0.003
18.9 Is a socially acceptable product to use	Equal variances assumed	9.324	-2.433	330	0.016
	Equal variances not assumed		-2.385	148.381	0.018
18.1 Is readily available when I go to buy it	Equal variances assumed	7.802	-2.658	330	0.008
	Equal variances not assumed		-2.674	155.658	0.008

### 6.12. Testing of Hypotheses

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the three hypotheses postulated in this study, and the results are presented in Table 6.32. Regression analysis “relates a single criterion variable with one or more dependant variables, while one or more dependant variables are held constant 1. Regression calculates the frequency distribution of the variables, (Ghauri 2010).

The dependent variable (DV) in the study was brand switching whilst the independent variables were:

- Lifestyle change (q20.1 – 20.8 as a composite measure)
- Brand benefits (q18.1 – 18.10 as a composite measure)
- Social disruption (change from old to new q13 – q14)

**Table 6.32: Regression Analysis Results**

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Result
Brand Benefits	1.709	.389	19.282	1	.000	5.525	Supported
Lifestyle	-.601	.272	4.881	1	.027	.548	Not supported
Social Disruption	.200	.050	16.008	1	.000	1.221	supported
Constant	-7.101	1.422	24.935	1	.000	.001	

**H1:** There is a positive relationship between the consumers’ perception of the current brand’s benefits and brand switching following a social disruption.

The results in Table 6.30 indicate that respondents who switched brands are more likely to indicate that product brand benefits are important ( $\beta = 1.709$ ,  $p=.0000$ ) in influencing their brand switching behaviour, compared to respondents who remained loyal to the current brand. The p-value of 0.000 for households who switched brands is less than 0.0005, indicating that the result is significant, thereby supporting H1. The respondents agree that if the relative benefits of the current toilet-care product brands are lower than the impact of the social change, as represented by a change in toilet system, brand switching will occur, since people seek new product brands that can satisfy the new toilet cleaning needs (Elbedweihy et al., 2014; Ericsson et al., 2012).

The second hypothesis was stated as follows:

**H2:** There is a positive relationship between a change in the consumers’ place and type of residential dwelling (social change) and their brand switching behavior.

The results in Table 6.30 support H2, since the respondents who switched brands indicated that they are more likely to switch brands after a social change. The results are significant as indicated by the test results ( $\beta = .200$ ),  $p=.0000$ ), and the p-value, which is less than .0005. The households agree that a change in sanitary infrastructure, that is, a change in the toilet system, is accompanied by brand switching, in the type and form of toilet-care product brands.

The third hypothesis was stated as follows:

**H3:** There is a positive relationship between consumers' lifestyle and their brand switching behavior following a social disruption.

Regression analysis was conducted using lifestyle as an independent variable and brand switching behaviour as a dependent variable, and the results do not support the hypothesis (H3), since there was no significant evidence as reflected in the test results, ( $\beta = -.601$ ,  $p=.027$ ), and the p-value is greater than .0005. In essence, the participants who switched brands following a change in place and type of residential dwelling did not agree that a change in their lifestyle motivated brand switching. The most plausible explanation could be that toilet-care products are low-involvement routine products in the consumer's consumption repertoire (Nikic 2012).

The fourth hypothesis was stated as follows:

**H4:** There is a positive relationship between brand benefits and lifestyle change.

Regression analysis was conducted using lifestyle as the dependent variable and brand benefits as the predictor. The results support the hypothesis as it because predictor variable explains 19.5% of the variance ( $R^2 = .195$ ,  $F(1,330) = 79.701$ ,  $p<.0005$ ). Therefore it was concluded that 'brand benefits' significantly predicts 'lifestyle change' ( $\beta = .595$ ,  $p<.0005$ ) in the research study.

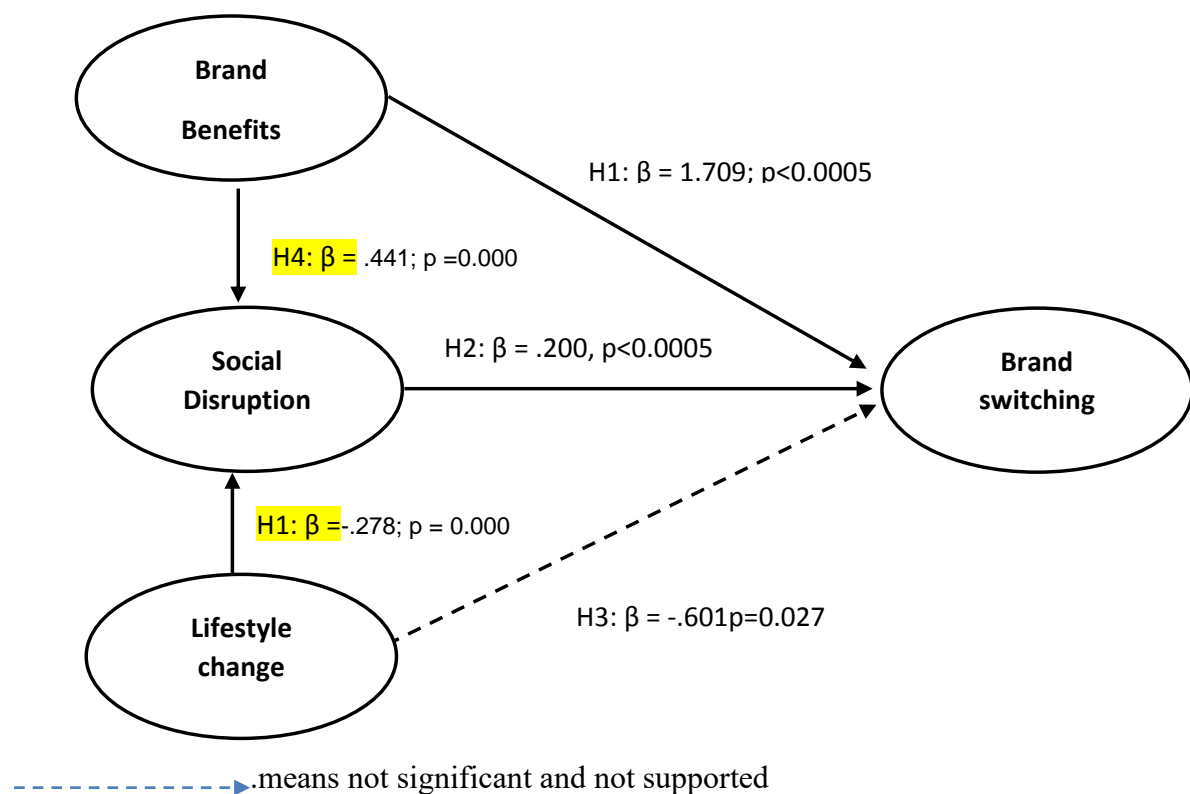
The fifth hypotheses as framed as follows:

**H5:** There is a positive relationship between social disruption and lifestyle change

The embedded objective of the research was to investigate the relationship between a change in place and type of residence and brand switching. An inherent relationship was assumed to exist between a change in place and type of residence and lifestyle. A change in lifestyle resulting from a social change due to a change in place and type of residence would influence brand switching. Therefore the study tested the relationship between social disruption and lifestyle with lifestyle being the dependent variable and social change being the constant or predictor. The results from the regression analysis technique supported the hypotheses because the predictor variable explained 7.7% of the variance ( $R^2 = .770$   $F(1,330) = 27.380$ ,  $p < .0005$ ). It was concluded from the research study 'brand benefits' significantly predicts 'lifestyle' ( $\beta = .595$ ,  $p < .0005$ ).

The overall results of the study are summed up in the model reflected in Figure 6.5

**Figure 6.5: Brand Switching Construct Confirmation**



### 6.13. Conclusion

The objective of this chapter was to present the results of the study. The data collected from the respondents using a structured questionnaire was analysed with the aid of the computer

programme SPSS - Version 17. The overall results indicate a general consensus among consumers (respondents) on the effects and impact of a change in the type of residence on their brand choice. It is interesting to note that across all three, low income RDP housing, Low Cost Bonded Housing, and High Income Bonded housing segments, brand benefits play a significant role in brand switching, though a change in lifestyle was not significant to prompt brand switching. Private label brands are viewed as being the favourite brand of choice, followed by national brands, and then Unbranded products manufactured by informal traders. The adoption and frequency of use of private brands have grown across all three housing segments, with respondents being motivated by the perceived value element. Finally, it can be deduced from the research results that a change in the place of dwelling also motivates brand switching, because the impact of a social change is stronger than the perceived brand benefits of the current brand. The following chapter presents a discussion and interpretation of the results findings.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### 7. Introduction

This chapter discusses the research findings in relation to the literature discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. The main objective of the study was to determine the impact of an external ‘disruptive force’ in the form of a social change (change in place and type of dwelling), on product brand choice behaviour, specifically brand switching. The chapter starts by evaluating the findings generally covering the research objectives and then focuses on each hypothesis, as these hypotheses serve as the basis for drawing conclusions and recommendations for future studies.

#### 7.1. Discussion of the Findings

##### 7.1.1. Influence of Product Benefits on Toilet-care Product Brand Choice

The findings on the importance of the nine brand benefits were significant ( $p < 0.0005$ ), which is consistent with other researchers, inter-alia, Beneke et al., (2015), Matthews et al., (2014), Blut et al., (2014), all of whom concur that brand benefits have a direct impact on brand switching behavior, as the brand benefits fail to satisfy the consumer’s desired needs. The overall findings with respect to the relationship between a change in the place and type of dwelling and brand choice support the Relative CBI Framework of Lam et al., (2010). These results concur with the Relative CBI model (Lam et al., 2010) which argue that consumers use functional brand benefit attributes to compare the current brand’s benefits with the new brand, which in is the result of the disruption, being a radical change in place and type of dwelling. In cases where the disruption is stronger than the brand benefits offered by current brands, brand switching occurs being motivated by both of functional utility maximization and social mobility (Lam et al., 2012). The findings are also in line with those of Solomon et al., (2012), and Chang and Dibb (2012), who suggest that consumers weigh up the perceived benefits and costs of making a certain product acquisition and switch towards brands with higher perceived benefits and lowers costs.

The study used a social disruptive factor in the form of a radical change in the place of dwelling and type of sanitary facilities, to investigate its relationship with brand switching, and the findings indicate that the majority (38.9%) of the respondents changed their “type of residence” from Informal Settlements to Formal RDP housing in Cosmo City, resulting in 39.7% of the

participants indicating having switched from “non-flushing” toilets to “water-based” flushing toilets. The change to “flushing” toilets resulted in the increased frequency of toilet cleaning, with the vast majority (72%) of respondents indicating that they clean their toilets more than once a day.

The increased access to water-based flushing toilets influenced their brand switching behavior, with the vast majority (73.5%) of respondents indicating having switched toilet-care cleaning product brands after moving to Cosmo City. This means that consumers switched toilet-care cleaning product brands and began using new product brands which were more compatible with the current “water-based” toilets. The binominal and T-Test results indicate that brand switching was significant ( $p < 0.0005$ ) following a change in the type of residence, because the p-value is less than 0.0005 (Babie, 2013). These findings confirm the proposition by Lam et al., (2012) that in cases where the external disruptive force is stronger than the current brand’s benefits, consumers will switch brands.

The findings also concur with White and Dahl (2007) who observed that social mobility, which is an attempt to dissociate ‘oneself’ from a group, can motivate consumers to discard old brands and adopt new ones, as they redefine their status. The effects of social mobility presented by Elbedweihi et al., (2014), Lam et al., (2012, 2010), and White et al., (2007), are significantly affirmed in the findings reported from the data obtained from respondents who previously lived in informal settlements and subsequently relocated to Cosmo City.

There were variations between respondents who switched brands and those who did not, with regards to the desired brand benefits. The findings indicate that respondents who did not switch brands agree more than those who did switch, that functional brand benefits such as the effectiveness of cleaning, clean and fresh fragrance, removes stains and bad odour, are important in brand choice decision. The respondents who did not switch brands remained loyal or committed (Ericson et al., 2012) to the current brands, despite the social disruption, implying that they were highly satisfied (Mathew et al., 2014, Solomon et al., 2013, Hollebeek, 2011), and the current brand benefits were stronger than the social disruption (Nanyek-Thiel et al., 2013; Perloff 2007).



Research on consumer behaviour using relative CBI modelling has extended brand choice investigations to include social and psychological factors (Kaswengi and Diallo 2015; Catalin et al., 2013; Lam et al., 2010). These developments go beyond traditional explanations of rational brand choice (Dellaert and Haubl, 2012; Marchant, Prescott & Jackson, 2011), which views consumers as choosing brands from a set of products that is either competitive or complementary. Relative CBI models have been used to explain how social mobility and social creativity (Elbedweihy et al., 2014; Lam et al., 2012; 2010), can influence brand choice during conditions of an internal disruptive market change such as the introduction of a radically innovative brand. The conclusion from various CBI studies (Edwards, 2005) is that consumers use functional product brand comparisons, however social comparisons become critical when brand benefits of the current brand are perceived to be less than that of the new brand, leading to brand switching.

The multiple regression path coefficients ( $\beta = 1.709$ ,  $p < .0005$ ) on brand benefits and brand switching demonstrate positive and significant effects of changes in the desired brand benefits following a social disruption. This finding is consistent with earlier empirical studies by (Blut et al., 2014, Elbedweihy et al., 2014; Lam et al., 2010).

### **7.1.2. Influence of the change in the place of residence on Toilet-care Product Brand Choice**

An overview of the toilet-care product category identified three types of toilet-care products, namely, informal (unbranded products manufactured by informal traders) products, retailer brands, and national brands. This study explored the relationship between a change in the place of residence and type of product/brands used. The social theory propositions by (Aguilar and de Francisco, 2014; Lynn et al., 2013; Johnson, et al., 2012) use social mobility, social change and consumer satisfaction based on beliefs, desires and values that satisfy a consumer's self-identity (Hedstrom, 2006), as constructs to explain brand switching following a social disruption, whilst the rational decision theory (Schiffman et al., 2015, Baye et al., 2013, Kearne & Wasi 2012) uses functional utility.

The findings indicate that 38.2% of the respondents changed from “non-flushing” to “flushing” toilets. This change influenced the type (and brand) of toilet cleaning products purchased, since

respondents who did not previously use any toilet cleaning products because of the nature of the toilets which were either “bucket, pit or bush’ toilets. To this extent, it became evident that there was significantly more usage ( $p < .0005$ ) of all three types of toilet-care product brands, but private label brands are used more than national brands and informal (unbranded) products. This result confirms previous findings where for example, Whelan and Davies (2006) found that in low involvement product brand categories, including house cleaning products, private labels are bought more often than in high involvement products, because private label brands offer a new experience at limited risk (Jaafar, Lalp, & Naba, 2012). The respondents also indicated that ‘value for money’ significantly influenced brand switching decision, which is line with the findings of Shukla et al., (2013), and Beneke (2010), who concluded that private label buyers focus on price and value consciousness.

To summarise, the observations from the ANOVA tests indicate that there is a significant difference in the choice of retailer toilet-care product brands ( $F(2, N=328) = 70.325, p < .0005$ ), and national brands. Retailer toilet-care product brands are used significantly more than national brands, which are in turn more popular than “unbranded” products manufactured by informal traders. The findings on the popularity of Private Brands over National Brands concurs with those of Kaytaz and Gul (2014), Hampson and McGoldrick (2013) who ascertained that, economic disruptions are directly related to switching to private label brands. The findings are also in line with those of Beneke et al., (2013), Martos-Partal et al., (2011), Aitchison, (2010), Kumar and Steenkamp, (2007) who all concluded that private brands offer a better price–quality relationship than national brands, leading to switching in favour of private brands. The observations by Olson (2012) that private label brands can trigger brand switching by offering competitive brand alternatives to manufacturer brands at lower prices are supported by this study results. The findings also support Porral et al., (2015), who suggest that private label brands offer competitive quality products that motivate brand switching.

The segmented findings based on the previous place of dwelling indicates that there was a greater usage ( $p < .0005$ ) of national brands by Townhouse and Backroom respondents, whilst there were no significant changes ( $p > .0005$ ) in Informal and Retailer brand usage by the same respondents. Based on the social identity theory, the findings support the conclusions by Lam et al., (2010:130) on social mobility, motivating switching to higher status brands. Catalin, et

al., (2013) concluded that switching to higher status brands also fulfils the socio-psychological needs of consumers.

### **7.1.3. Influence of Lifestyle on Toilet-care Product-Brand Choice**

Lifestyle has a great impact on consumer behaviour and brand preferences (Catalin et al., 2013), and consumers can use brands as a relevant means of self-expression (McGovern and Moon, 2007), especially in cases where brands are convergent with an individual consumer's perceived ideal identity. Households often choose certain products, services and activities over others because they are associated with a certain lifestyle (Krishnan, 2011; Chernev et al., 2011).

Lifestyle consumer behaviour based on the above arguments was used to investigate the influence of lifestyle changes on toilet-care product brand choice. The study examined the relationship between a social disruption (change in the place of residence) and lifestyle, using Pearson's correlation tests, and the results confirmed that there was a significant correlation ( $r = -.278$ ,  $p < .0005$ ) between the aforementioned variables. This finding implies that marketers and researchers have to factor the impact of social disruptions on consumer behaviour.

The two LSM variables that were investigated were: flushing toilet in/outside the house and running water. The proposition was that a change in these two variables would trigger a reclassification of a household's socio-economic status. In this research, 39.2% of the respondents experienced a change in the two variables "flushing toilet and access to in-house running water" as they moved from Informal Settlements to formal housing in Cosmo City. The changes in these variables would move the affected respondents from LSM 2 to LSM 3, according to the LSM classification.






The results from logistic regression analysis indicate that there is no significant difference ( $\beta = -.601$ ,  $p = .027$ ) between households that switched brands and those that did not, meaning that households that switched brands are less likely to change their lifestyle following a social disruption. The significant values ( $p = 0.27$ ) in the association test confirmed that there was no significant association ( $p > 0.0005$ ) between lifestyle and toilet-care product brand switching.

Hence, the purchasing behaviour of individuals are independent of the changes to their residential status.

The findings from the combined data on the change in the place of dwelling/residence and lifestyle are contrary to earlier studies. For example, Catalin et al., (2013) found a significant positive association between the aforementioned variables. Chernev et al., (2011) and Krishnan (2011) also concluded that the strength of people’s brand preferences is a function of their need for self-expression, and Orth et al., (2005) findings confirmed the link between lifestyle and brand choice on different occasions. However, the findings are an indication of the behavioural responses of Cosmo City residents to a social disruption.

From the above discussions, it may be concluded that with reference to toilet-care product brands, lifestyle has no significant influence on the brand switching (choice) behaviour of the respondents. Table 7.1 summarises the decisions on the various hypotheses.

**Table 7.1: Summary of Decision on the Hypotheses**

Hypothesis	Significance level	Accept or reject
<b>H1:</b> There is a negative relationship between the consumers’ perception of the current brand’s benefits and their brand switching following a social disruption.	<b>p = 0.000</b>	
<b>H2:</b> There is a positive relationship between a change in the consumers’ place and type of residential dwelling (social change) and their brand switching behavior.	<b>p = 0.000</b>	
<b>H3:</b> There is a significant relationship between the consumers’ lifestyle and their brand switching behavior following a social disruption.	<b>p = 0.27</b>	
<b>H4:</b> There is a positive relationship between brand benefits and lifestyle	<b>p = 0.000</b>	
<b>H5:</b> There is a positive relationship between social disruption and lifestyle	<b>p = 0.000</b>	

#### **7.1.4. Conclusion**

The research framework provided adequate scope to address the objectives and hypotheses of the study. Through this study, it was possible to compare and contrast the findings with those of other leading researchers in the field of consumer behaviour. The findings also supported the relative CBI findings of the impact of a social disruption on brand choice, whilst refuting the influence of lifestyle change on brand switching behaviour. The implementation of the research framework and its findings provide a valuable base for future research and contributes to the development of useful theoretical insights to establish consumer decision-making frameworks.

The final chapter will present the conclusions and recommendations emanating from the discussions and interpretation of the survey results.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **8. Introduction**

This study aimed to establish whether a change in the place (and type) of residence contributes to product brand switching with respect to toilet-care products. To investigate this relationship, the study examined the impact of a change in the place and type of residential dwelling on brand choice behaviour; assessed the critical factors influence brand choice of toilet-care products; determined the significance of social mobility on brand choice and brand switching behaviour; and explored the relationship between the changes in Living Standard Measures and brand choice. In the process of developing the research hypotheses, secondary research was conducted through a literature review using various sources. The literature reviewed was also used to compare, contrast and validate the research results presented in Chapter six. This chapter completes the study by presenting the main conclusions from the findings and the recommendations based on the research objectives. The chapter concludes with areas proposed for further research.

#### **8.1. Conclusions**

The findings supplement the existing body of knowledge of similar studies in other product market categories like, Rubio, Villasenor and Oubina (2015) in the food category, and Beneke et al., (2015) in the South African breakfast cereal product category. However, this study becomes the first study centred on the toilet-care product category.

The findings indicate that marketers have to move beyond simple demographic factor segmentation and use a multi-faceted approach in understanding brand switching behaviour, because consumers have adapted well to changes in the market. In addition, residential developments like Cosmo City have blurred the demographic distinctions of pre-2000, making consumer behaviour universal.

Based on the findings, it is recommend that socio-psychological factors are important issues that should be considered in researching consumer choice behaviour. This study ascertained that ‘out-of-market’ disruptions like a change in the type and place of residence have significant impact on brand switching behaviour, as ‘in-market’ disruptions like the introduction of an

innovative new brand. It is concluded that sociological factors like consumer identity, consumer brand congruency, and social change are essential to the development of a holistic picture of consumer product brand choice.

Another conclusion drawn from the findings is that marketers need to be cognizant of the rapid change in consumers' perception of their lifestyle changes, and how they (consumers) relate to these changes. The finding that there is a significant positive correlation between a change in the place and type of dwelling and lifestyle, indicating that marketers need to consider lifestyle segmentation more carefully in conjunction with other functional approaches, in analysing consumer brand choice decision making behaviour.

## **8.2. Managerial Implications**

The findings present some interesting implications that marketing practitioners and managers need to be cognizant of, namely, the finding that consumers use a product's price as an indicator of its quality, toilet-care product consumers make quality comparisons between store brands and national brands. Marketers need to incorporate these aspects in developing and implementing a holistic brand positioning strategy in a specific market.

The correlation between the out of market (social) disruption and lifestyle change indicates that managers need to take lifestyle more seriously by incorporating its (lifestyle's) elements in their product positioning strategies.

The proliferation of premium quality store brands poses a significant challenge to manufacturer brands. The findings revealed that especially in the low income segment, respondents chose private brand 'liquid' toilet-care products more than manufacturer brands. It is evident that not all toilet-care product formats are relevant to the three income groups, however, the findings indicate that pricing and availability at the time of purchase, were critical brand switching factors hence, marketers need to factor these in developing a sustainable differentiated product strategy.

The world is pushing for eco-friendly products that protect and preserve the environment. However, marketers need to be sensitive in developing and promoting toilet care products,

since the adoption of eco-friendly product brands have been found to be of less significance in this research.

### **8.3. Recommendations**

Based on the above conclusions, the following are recommended:

- Marketers need to formulate marketing strategies that incorporate both the functional and socio-psychological aspects of consumer behaviour. This research affirmed that consumers do not only consider functional product attributes but also socio-psychological attributes when choosing a brand. Marketers should adopt consumer-centric segmentation and in-depth psychographic approaches to gain insights into brand choice motivators, (utility based and socio-psychological motivators), that influence product brand consumption and purchasing behaviour. This will assist in the development of core competencies of winning product brand strategies.
- Product brand marketing cannot be complete if it does not consider lifestyle marketing. Product market research needs to incorporate lifestyle issues so as to adequately guide product development and positioning in the marketplace. Such an approach will yield better competitive advantage, improved brand equity, better product profitability and shorter product payback times. In the South African context and similar African markets, marketers are encouraged to recognise that as consumers' lifestyles' improve, so does their brand choices. However, this relationship is not *carte blanche*, since marketers need to appreciate the differences in product categories. The current research study has produced insights that indicate a positive relationship between brand benefit choices and lifestyle change, meaning that in the toilet care products category, markets can innovate and position new products along a lifestyle continuum.
- Marketers need to consider social disruptions in the same light as 'in-market' disruptions such as a price war, innovative product introductions, etc., because the impact is the almost the same on consumer product brand choice. Both types of disruptions lead to fractured consumer-brand relationships, which result in either brand switching or increased loyalty, as consumers seek to re-equilibrate their socio-economics brand benefits.



- Private label brands have become a significant market player and marketers need to factor this into their marketing strategies, in particular, pricing, functional product benefits and lifestyle. The introduction of premium toilet-care product brands at competitive prices, such as the PnP green range, make competition with manufacturer brands fierce, as consumers may choose either a premium store brand or low cost store brand, without even considering the manufacturer brand. Products and services are selected, purchased and consumed by individuals in order to define, actualize or extend their life style identity. This means that marketers need to incorporate lifestyle marketing in product planning en- route to market activation. In the case of national brand products being unable to compete with private labels, the research findings line with literature, indicate that national marketers may be better positioned to co-produce private labels to gain economies of scale. The incremental economies of scale would have positive spill over effects on national brands and marketing budgets.
- Consumers need to be better educated on the finer aspects of toilet-care product brand formats. There is confusion on the role and use of “In-the-Cistern” brands and “In-the-Block” brands, as consumers think that these product formats are the same and don’t fulfil the same role. The opportunity is to educate consumers and differentiate these product formats, as they are complementary and not necessarily substitutes since this increases the amount of product sold and the sub-category profitability. Furthermore, the two product formats, ‘in-the-cistern’ and ‘in-the-bowl’ are less elastic, therefore less price sensitive. Marketers are encouraged to consider these formats as cash-cows with low sales volumes whilst the ‘liquid’ products are price sensitive and can be used to drive volume in the market and greater brand visibility.

## **8.4.Limitations of Study**

### **8.4.1. Product Selection**

The study focused on toilet-care product brands, and evaluated the impact of a radical social change, brought about by a change in the place (and type) of residence, on consumer brand choice and switching behaviour. The approach categorised the products into two broad classes, namely, private or store labels, and manufacturer brands. This method was practically useful

and economical for study purposes. On the other hand, the study could have been more robust in determining brand switching had it named leading private labels and manufacturer brands, so that respondents could indicate the specific product brands which they used before and after moving to Cosmo City.

#### **8.4.2. Sample Selection**

The sample in this study was selected from Cosmo City in Johannesburg as this selection proved to be effective in controlling cost and gathering data quickly and efficiently. The study segmented respondents into three income/residential groups namely, freehold government housing income group (RDP), bonded low cost housing group, and bonded high income housing group. This segmentation was informed by the manner in which the government determined the allocation of housing in Cosmo City.

#### **8.4.3. Question Depth and Quality**

The lack of representative product samples especially of the ITBs and ITCs proved to be a challenge as the interviewer had to spend a lot of time explaining the nature of the two products and their differences. Most of the respondents thought the two products were the same.

### **8.5. Future Research Options**

The findings show that an external radical social disruption has the same effect as an internal radical market disruption, in that consumers are motivated to functionally and socio-psychologically compare different brands to satisfy their altered needs after a lifestyle disruption. It is suggested that a similar study be conducted at store level, including informal wholesalers, to determine the actual toilet-care product brands that consumers purchase, and then link this with residential location attributes. This approach though very expensive and time consuming, could yield more comprehensive results as product choice results would be easy to verify, compared to an at-home study, where responses were primarily from memory recall, with no physical evidence of the product. This approach would also assist respondents to correctly classify and differentiate the two toilet-care sub-categories of ITCs and ITBs.

It is further recommended that a larger sample of respondents from different locations around the country be selected in order to generalise the findings to the entire population in South

Africa. The population sample can be drawn from different geographical locations around the country that have a similar set up as Cosmo City, and these can include the new residential locations like Cornubia in Durban, Walmer in Port Elizabeth, Joe Slovo Cape Town, Lerato Park in Kimberley, Phomolong in Hennenman, Klarinet in Emalahleni, Rebuile in Groot Marico, and Ga-Rena Rental Village in Polokwane.

## **8.6. Conclusion**

This study aimed at providing marketers and academics with greater insight into consumer brand choice behaviour in general, and brand switching in particular, as it relates to the use of toilet-care product brands post an external non-market disruption. It is evident that residential location, changes in social positions, inclusive of place and type of residence, lifestyle changes, and functional benefits, are essential factors for consideration in the development of a coherent brand strategy that seeks to adequately address the toilet-care product brand needs of consumers in the new democratic South Africa.

The main objective of the study was to examine the impact of, and factors motivating brand switching by Cosmo City households' toilet-care product brand choice following a disruptive social change. The overall findings are summarized by way of decisions on three hypotheses formulated to conceptualize the study. The leading factors motivating brand switching are brand benefits, social factors driven by social mobility, social creativity and consumer-brand identity. It was confirmed that there is a positive correlation between a change in the type of residence and lifestyle however, there was no relationship between a change in lifestyle and brand switching. This study illustrated that although the change in the place of residence and lifestyle are positively correlated, marketers need to be sensitive of category intricacies as consumer behaviour and decision making may differ according to different product categories. The findings and conclusions are based on a low involvement product category, and this may differ with high-involvement categories such as the durable goods sectors.

## REFERENCES

- Aaker, D. (2014). The First Step in Building a Brand. *Marketing News*, October 2014, pp. 20-21.
- Aaker, D. A. and Joachimsthaler, E. (2000). *Brand Leadership*. 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. New York: The Free Press.
- Aaker, D.A., Kumar, V., Leone, R.P. and Day, G.S. (2013). *Marketing Research- International Student Version*. 11<sup>th</sup> Ed. Singapore: Wiley and Sons.
- Adamowicz, W. et.al. (2008). Behavioural Frontiers in Choice Modelling. *Springer Science and Business Media*, 19(1), pp. 215-228.
- Aguiar, F. and de Francisco, A. (2009). Rational Choice, Social Identity, and Beliefs about Oneself, *Philosophy of the Social Sciences*, 39 (4), pp. 547-571.
- Ahearne, M., Bhattacharya, C.B, and Gruen, T.W. (2005). Antecedents and Consequences of Customer-Company Identification: Expanding the Role of Relationship Marketing, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90 (3), pp. 574-585.
- Ailawadi, K. L., Pauwels, K., and Steenkamp, J.B. (2008). Private Label Use and Store Loyalty, *Journal of Marketing*, 72(3), pp. 19–30.
- Aitchison, G. (2010). *Consumers see Little Difference Between National and Store Brands. Global Consumer*. Available from <http://www.ipsos-na.com/news-polls/pressrelease.aspx?id=4740>. [Accessed on 7 April, 2015].
- Alicke, M.D. and Sedikides, C. (2009). Self-Enhancement and Self-Protection: What They Are and What They Do? *European Review of Social Psychology*, 20(1), pp. 1-48.

Al-Kwif, O.S. and Ahmed, Z.U. (2015). An Intellectual Journey into the Historical Evolution of Marketing Research in Brand Switching Behaviour – Past, Present and Future, *Journal of Management History*, 21(2), pp. 172-193.

Ambler, T. (2008), *Marketing Metrics*, in Baker, M.J. and Hart, S.J. (Editors), *The Marketing Book*, 6th Ed. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Aperia, T., and Back, R. (2004). *Brand Relations Management: Bridging the Gap Between Brand Promise and Brand Delivery*. Sweden: Liber AB.

Armstrong, G. and Kotler, P. (2007). *Marketing: An Introduction*. 7th Ed. Upper Saddle River: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Arnold, R.A. (2011). *Principles of Microeconomics*. 10<sup>th</sup> Ed. Australia, South-Western: Cengage Learning.

Arshad, R., Akbar, I., Muqtadir, A., Shafique, U., Naseer, H.U.W., and Amin, S.H. (2013). Impact of Brand Switching, Brand Credibility, Customer Satisfaction and Service Quality on Brand Loyalty, *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, pp. 12-20.

Babie, E. (2013). *The Practice of Social Research*. 13th Ed. Wardsworth: Cengage Learning.

Baek, T.H., Kim, J and Yu, J.H. (2010). The Differential Roles of Brand Credibility and Brand Prestige in Consumer Brand Choice, *Psychology Marketing* 27, pp. 662–78.

Baisya, R.K. (2013). *Branding in a Competitive Marketplace*. 8<sup>th</sup> Ed. Singapore: Sage Publication Asia Pacific.

Ballantyne, R., Warren, A. and Nobbs, K. (2005). The Evolution of Brand Choice. *Brand Management*, 13, (4/5), pp. 339–352.

Baltas, G., Doyle, P., and Dyson, P. (2013). A Model of Consumer Choice for National vs. Private Label Brands, *Journal of the Operational Research Society*, (48), pp. 988-995.

Banerjee, S. (2008). Dimensions of Indian Culture, Core Cultural Values and Marketing Implications: Cross-Cultural Management, *An International Journal*, 15(4), pp. 367-378.

Bao, Y., Bao, Y., and Sheng, S. (2011). Motivating Purchase of Private Brands: Effects of store Image, Product Signatureness and Quality Variation, *Journal of Business Research*, 64, pp. 220–226.

Barroso, C. and Picon, A. (2012). Multi-dimensional Analysis of Perceived Switching Costs, *Industrial Marketing Management*, 41(3), pp. 531-543.

Bately, M. (2010). *Brand Meaning*. 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. New York: Psychology Press, Taylor and Francis Group.

Baye, M.R., and Prince, J.T. (2013). *Managerial Economics and Business Strategy*. London: McGraw-Hill Education.

Beneke, J. (2010). Towards A Better Understanding of Private label – How Consumers Respond To In-Store Extrinsic Cues and Brand Familiarity, *School of Management Studies*, UCT.

Beneke, J. and Carter, S. (2015). The Development of a Consumer value Proposition of Private Label Brands and The Application Thereof in a South African Retail Context, *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*. 25 (2015), pp. 22–35.

Beneke, J., Brito, A., and Garvey, K.N. (2014). Propensity to Buy Private Label Merchandise: The Contributory Effects of Store Image, Price, Risk, Quality and Value in the Cognitive Stream, *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 43 (1), pp. 43-62.

Beneke, J., Flynn, R., Greig, T. and Mukaiwa, M. (2013). The Influence of Perceived Product Quality, Relative Price and Risk on Customer Value and Willingness to Buy: A Study of Private Label Merchandise, *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 22(3), pp. 218-228.

Berger, C., Jonah, T., and Ward, M (2010). Subtle Signals and Inconspicuous Consumption, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37 (December), pp. 555–69.

Bernard, H.R. (2014). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, 7<sup>th</sup> Ed. California: Sage Publications Inc.

Bernoussi, C. and Mouchiroud, A. (2008). An Empirical Study of the Construct Validity of Social Creativity, *Learning and Individual Differences*, 18 (4), pp. 372–380.

Bhattacharya, C.B and Sen, S. (2003). Consumer-company Identification: A Framework for Understanding Consumer's Relationships with Companies, *Journal of Marketing*, 67, pp. 76-88.

Bhattacharjee, A. (2012). *Social Science Research: Principles, Methods, and Practices*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Washington: University of South Florida, Scholar Commons. Available on [http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/oa\\_textbooks/3](http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/oa_textbooks/3). [Accessed 15 June 2015].

Bick, G.N. (2009). Increasing Shareholder Value Through Building Customer and Brand Equity, *Journal of Marketing Management*, 25(1-2), pp. 117-141.

Biedenbach, G., Bengtsson, M., and Marell, A. (2014). Brand Equity, Satisfaction, and Switching Costs: An Examination of Effects in the Business-to-Business Setting, *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 33 (2), pp. 164-178.

Billot, A. (2011). Are Choice Rationality and Social Consistency Two Sides of a Same Coin? *Springer Science and Business Media*, 20, pp. 239–254. doi 10.1007/s10726-009-9174-x.

Blackwell, R. Miniard, P and Engel, J. (2006). *Consumer Behaviour*. 10th Ed. New York USA: Thomson Higher Education.

Blanchard, S.J., DeSarbo, W.S., Atalay, A.S. and Harmancioglu, N. (2012). Identifying Consumer Heterogeneity in Unobserved Categories, *Mark Lett* 23, pp. 177–194. doi 10.1007/s11002-011-9145-2.

Blankson, C., and Kalafatis, S.P. (2007). Positioning Strategies of International and Multicultural Oriented Service Brands, *Journal of Services Marketing*, 21(6), pp. 435-150.

Blut, M., Beatty, S.E., Evanschitzky, H. and Brock, C. (2014). The Impact of Service Characteristics on the Switching Costs–Customer Loyalty Link, *Journal of Retailing* 90 (2), pp. 275–290.

Blythe, J. (2013). *Consumer Behaviour*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. London: Sage Publications.

Bogomolova, S. and Grudinina, O. (2011). Under the Marketers' Radar: Commonly Ignored Triggers for Brand Repertoire Changes, *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27, (13–14), pp. 1378–1403.

Braak, A., Deleersnyder, B., Geyskens, I. and Dekimpe, M.G. (2013). Does Private-Label Production by National-brand Manufacturers Create Discounter Goodwill? *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 30, pp. 343–357.

Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., and Zarantonello, L. (2009). Brand Experience: What Is It? How Is It Measured? Does It Affect Loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 73, pp. 52–68. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.73.3.52>.

Brianna, R., Wang, Y. and Stoner, J. (2014). When a Brand Caught Fire: The Role of Brand Equity in Product-harm Crisis, *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 23 (7), pp. 532-542.



Broyles, S.A., Schumann D.W., Leingpibul, T. (2009). Examining Brand Equity Antecedent/Consequence Relationships, *Journal of Marketing Theory*, 17(2), pp. 145–146.

Brymann, A., and Bell, E. (2011). *Business Research Methods*. 3rd Ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burns A, C., and Bush, R, F. (2014). *Marketing Research*. 7<sup>th</sup> Ed. Boston: Pearson Publication.

Bush, A. C. (2013). *Marketing Research*. 7<sup>th</sup> Ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Carpenter, J.M. (2008). Consumer Shopping Value, Satisfaction and Loyalty in Discount Retailing, *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services* 15 (5), pp. 358–363.

Catalin, M. C. and Andreea, P. (2013). Brands As A Means of Consumer Self-Expression and Desired Personal Lifestyle, *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 10 (9), pp. 103 – 107.

Chan, C., Berger, J., and Van Boven, L. (2012). Identifiable but Not Identical: Combining Social Identity and Uniqueness Motives in Choice, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39, pp. 345-354.

Chang, C. and Dibb, S. (2012). Reviewing and Conceptualising Customer-Perceived Value, *Marketing Research*.12 (3), pp. 253–274.

Chang, H. and Wang, H. (2011). The Moderating Effect of Customer Perceived Value on Online Shopping Behaviour, *Journal of Information Review*, 35(3), pp. 333–359.

Charamine, R.B., Hartel, C. and Wortington, S. (2013). Exploring a functional approach to attitudinal brand loyalty, *Australasian Marketing Journal* 21 (2013), pp. 43–51.

Chernev, A., Hamilton, R. and Gal, D. (2011). Competing for Consumer Identity: Limits to Self- Expression and the Perils of Lifestyle Branding, *American Journal of Marketing*, 75 (May 2011), pp. 66 –82.

Chimundu, R., McNeill, L.S., and Hamlin, R.P. (2015). Manufacturer and Retailer Brands: Is Strategic Coexistence the Norm? *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 23, pp. 49–60.

Choi, B., and Ahluwalia, R. (2014). Determinants of Brand Switching: The Role of Consumer Inferences, Brand Commitment, and Perceived Risk, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 43, pp. 981–991.

Christense, M. (2014). Heterogeneity in Consumer Demands and the Income Effect: Evidence from Panel Data, *Journal of Economics* 116(2), pp. 335–355.

Christodoulides, G. and Michaelidou, N. (2010). Shopping Motives as Antecedents of E-satisfaction and E-loyalty, *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27(2), pp. 181-197.

Christodoulides, G., and De Chernatony, L. (2009). Towards the Holy Grail of Defining Brand, *Marketing Theory* 9, (1), *Marketing Theory* 9, (1), March, pp.101-105.

Christodoulides, G., and De Chernatony, L. (2010). Consumer-Based Brand Equity Conceptualisation and Measurement: A Literature Review, *International Journal of Market Research*. 52 (1), pp. 43-66.

Christodoulides, G., Cadogan, J.W., and Veloustou, C. (2014). Consumer-Based Brand Equity Measurement: Lessons Learned from an International Study, *International Marketing Review*, 32 (3/4), pp. 307-328.

Churchill, G.A., and Iacobucci, D. (2010). *Marketing Research Methodological Foundations*, 10<sup>th</sup> Ed. Canada: South- Western, Cengage Learning.

Colander, D.C. (2008). *Microeconomics*. 7<sup>th</sup> Ed New York: McGraw-Hill.

Coleman, N., and Williams, P. (2013). Feeling Like My Self: Emotion Profiles and Social Identity, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 40, pp. 204-222.

Cooper, D., and Schindler, P. (2010). *Business Research Methods*. 9<sup>th</sup> Ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cosmo City housing profile. City of Johannesburg: *Cosmo City is a thriving suburb*. Available from: Available from:  
[http://joburg.org.za/index.php?option=com\\_content&task=view&id=2089&Itemid=168](http://joburg.org.za/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=2089&Itemid=168).  
[Accessed 13 July 2014].

Crawford, I., and Pendakur, K. (2012). How many types are there? *The Economic Journal*, 123 (March), pp. 77–95.

Davcik, N.S. (2013). An Empirical Investigation of Brand Equity: Drivers and Their Consequences, *British Food Journal*, 115(9), pp. 1342-1360.

Davcik, N.S. and Sharma, P. (2015). Impact of Product Differentiation, Marketing Investments and Brand Equity on Pricing Strategies: A Brand Level Investigation, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 49(5/6), pp. 760-781.

Davcik, N.S., da Silva, R.U. and Hair, J.F. (2015). Towards A Unified Theory of Brand Equity: Conceptualizations, Taxonomy and Avenues for Future Research, *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 24/1 (2015), pp. 3–17.

Dellaert, B.G.C., and Haubl, G. (2012). Searching in Choice Mode: Consumer Decision Processes in Product Search with Recommendations, *Journal of Marketing Research*, XLIX, pp. 277 –288.

Dietrich F and List C (2013): A Reason-Based Theory of Rational Choice, *Nous* (47)1), pp. 104-134.

Ding, M., Ross, W., Rao, V. (2010). Price as An Indicator of Quality: Implications for Utility and Demand Functions, *Journal of Retail Management*, 86(1), pp. 69–84.

DoHS (2007). *White Paper on Human Settlement*, Available from: [http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/documents/national\\_housing\\_2009/1\\_Simplified\\_Guide\\_Policy\\_Context/2%20Vol%201%20Part%202%20The%20Policy%20Context.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/documents/national_housing_2009/1_Simplified_Guide_Policy_Context/2%20Vol%201%20Part%202%20The%20Policy%20Context.pdf) [Accessed 21 July 2015].

DoHS (2009). *National Housing Code 2009: Incremental Interventions*. Available from: [http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/docnts/national\\_housing\\_2009/4\\_Incremental\\_Interventions/3%20%204%20Integrated%20Residential%20Development%20Programme.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/docnts/national_housing_2009/4_Incremental_Interventions/3%20%204%20Integrated%20Residential%20Development%20Programme.pdf). [Accessed: 19 May 2015].

DoHS. (2012). *Finance Linked Individual Subsidy Programme*. Available from: <http://www.dhs.gov.za/content/finance-linked-individual-subsidy-projects>. [Accessed 19 May, 2015].

DoHS. (2014a). *Human Settlements 20-year book 2004-2014*, Available from: <http://www.dhs.gov.za/content/human-settlements-20-year-book>. [Accessed 18 May, 2015].

DoHS. (2014b). *Annual Performance Plan, 2015-2016*. Available from [http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/annual\\_reports/Annual%20report%202015\\_web.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/annual_reports/Annual%20report%202015_web.pdf). [Accessed 19 May 2015].

DoHS (2014c). *Human Settlements: Programmes and Subsidies*. Available from: [http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/docnts/publications/human\\_settlements\\_programmes\\_and\\_subsidies.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/docnts/publications/human_settlements_programmes_and_subsidies.pdf). [Accessed 18 May, 2015].

Dube, J., Hitsch, G.J., and Ross, P. E. (2010). State Dependence and Alternative Explanations for Consumer Inertia, *Journal of Marketing Review*, 16(2), pp. 145-154.

Edwards M R (2005): Organizational Identification: A Conceptual and Operational Review, *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 7 (4), pp. 207–230.

Elbedweihi, A.M., and Jayawardhena, C. (2014). Consumer-Brand Identification: A social Identity Based Review and Research Directions, *The Marketing Review*, 14 (2), pp. 205-228.

Elliott, R. R., Percy, L. and Pervan, S. (2011). *Strategic Brand Management*, 2nd Ed. Oxford, University Press.

Erica, A., Unal, S., Candan, F. B. and Yildirim, H. (2012). The Effect of Brand Satisfaction, Trust and Brand Commitment on Loyalty and Repurchase Intentions, *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences* 58, pp. 1395 - 1404.

Escalas, J.E., and Bettman, J.R. (2009). Self-Construal, Reference Groups, and Brand Meaning, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(3), pp. 378-389.

Euromonitor. (2015). *Homecare in South Africa*. Euromonitor International, March 2015. Available from: <http://www.euromonitor.com/home-care-in-south-africa/report>. [Accessed 10 July 2015].

Euromonitor. (2014b). *Consumer Lifestyles in South Africa: Consumer Lifestyles*, 04 February 2014. Available from: <http://www.euromonitor.com/Consumer-lifestyles-in-south-africa/report>. [Accessed 10 July 2015].

Euromonitor (2014c). *The New Face of Private Label: Global Market Trends to 2018*. January 2014. Available from: <http://www.euromonitor.com/the-new-face-of-private-label-global-market-trends-to-2018/report>. [Accessed 10 July 2015].

Fong, S., Kian, T., Fern, Y., and Woo, V. (2015). Monetary and Image Influences on the Purchase Decision of Private Label Products in Malaysia, *Journal of Advanced management Sciences*, 3(4), pp. 312–318.

Foxall, G.R., and Sigurdsson, V. (2013). Consumer Behaviour Analysis: Behavioural Economics Meets the Marketplace, *The Psychological Record*, 63, pp. 231–238.

Ghauri, P. and Gronhaug, K. (2010). *Research Methods in Business Studies, A Practical Guide*, New York: Prentice Hall.

Gooner, R.A., and Nadler, S.S. (2012). Abstracting Empirical Generalizations from Private Label Brand Research, *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 20 (1), pp. 87–104.

Grosh, M.E., and Glewwe, P. (1998). The World Bank's Living Standards Measurement Study Household Surveys, *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 2, (1), winter, pp. 187-196.

Hair, J, Robert, B & Ortinau, D. (2006). *Marketing Research Within a Changing Environment*. 3rd ed. Irwin: McGraw Hill.

Hampson, D.P. and McGoldrick, P.J. (2013). A Typology of Adaptive Shopping Patterns in Recession, *Journal of Business Research* 66 (7), pp. 831–838.

Hands, D.W. (2013). Foundations of Contemporary Revealed Preference Theory, *Springer Science and Business Media*.78, pp. 1081–1108. DOI 10.1007/s10670-012-9395-2.

Hardesty, D., and Bearden, W. (2009). Consumer Behaviour and Retailing, *Journal of Retailing*, 85(3), pp. 239-244.

Haslam, A. and Alexander, S. (2004). *Psychology in Organizations: The Social Identity Approach*. London: Sage Publications.

Hausman, D.M. (2012). *Preferences, Value, Choice, and Welfare*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hawkins, K. and Prakash, R. (2014): Attitudinal Loyalty, Behavioural Loyalty and Social Media: An Introspection, *The Marketing Review*, 13 (2), pp. 125-141.

He, H. and Li, Y. (2010). Key Service Drivers for High-Tech Service Brand Equity: The Mediating Role of Overall Service Quality and Perceived Value. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27, (1-2), pp. 77-99.

He, H., Li, Y., and Harris, L. (2011). Social Identity Perspective on Brand Loyalty, *Journal of Business Research* 65, pp. 648–657. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.03.007.

Heding, T., Knudtzen, C.F., and Bjerre, M. (2010). *Brand Management, Research, Theory and Practice*, London: Routledge, Taylor and Francis Group.

Hedstrom, P. (2006). *Dissecting the social: On the principles of analytical sociology*. 6<sup>th</sup> Ed. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Hogg, M.A., and Reid, S.A. (2006). Social Identity, Self-Categorization, and the Communication of Group Norms, *International Communication Association*, 16, pp. 7–30. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2885.2006.00003.x.

Hollebeek, D.E. (2011). Demystifying Customer Brand Engagement: Exploring the Loyalty Nexus, *Journal of Marketing Management* 27, (7–8), pp. 785–807.

Homburg, C., Wieseke, J., and Hoyer, W. (2009). Social Identity and the Service-Profit Chain, *Journal of Marketing*, 73(2), pp. 38-54.

Hornsey, M. J. (2012). Social Identity Theory and Self-Categorization Theory, *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, (2/1), pp. 204–222.

Housing Act of 1997. *Housing Act 107 of 1997*, Available from: [http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/legislation/Housing\\_Act\\_107\\_of\\_1997.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/legislation/Housing_Act_107_of_1997.pdf). [Accessed 21 July 2015].

Hult, T., Mena, J.A., Ferrell, O.C. and Ferrell, L. (2011). Stakeholder Marketing: A Definition and Conceptual Framework, *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 1(1), pp. 44-65.

Interbrand (2010). *Best Global Brands Methodology*. Available from: [www.interbrand.com/en/best-global-brands-methodology/overview.aspx](http://www.interbrand.com/en/best-global-brands-methodology/overview.aspx). [Accessed: 23 May 2015].

Ismail, A.R., Melewar, T.C., Lim, L., and Woodside, A. (2011). Customer Experiences With Brands: Literature Review and Research Directions, *Marketing Review*, 11(3), pp. 205-225

Jaafar, S., Lalp, P. and Naba, M. (2012). Consumers' Perceptions, Attitudes and Purchase Intention Towards Private Label Food Products in Malaysia, *Asian Journal of Business Management Sciences*, 2(8), pp. 73–90.

Jansson-Boyd, C.V. (2010). *Consumer Psychology*. 2<sup>nd</sup>Ed. England: McGraw-Hill Education.

Jayasankaraprasad, C. and Kumar, P. 2012. Antecedents and Consequences of Customer Satisfaction in Food and Grocery Retailing: An Empirical Analysis, *Decision* 39 (3), pp. 101-140.

Jiang, Y., Zhan, L., and Rucker, D. (2010). Power and Action Orientation: Power as a Catalyst for Consumer Switching Behaviour, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 41, pp. 183-186. doi 10.1086/6757.23.

Johannessen, J. and Olaisen, J. (2008). A Systemic Critique of Neoclassical Utility Theory, *Emerald Group Publishing Limited*, 37 (2), pp. 250-257.

Johnson, M. D., Morgeson, F.P., and Hekman, D.R. (2012). Cognitive and Affective Identification: Exploring the Links Between Different forms of Social Identification and Personality with Work Attitudes and Behaviour, *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 33(8), pp. 1142-1167.



Kabiraj, S. and Shanmugan, J. (2011). Development of a Conceptual Framework for Brand Loyalty: A Euro-Mediterranean Perspective, *Brand Management*, 18(4/5), pp. 285-299.

Kahneman, D. and Thaler, R.H. (2006). Anomalies- Utility Maximization and Experienced Utility, *Journal of Economic Perspective* 20, (1) - winter, pp. 221–234.

Kakati, R.P., and Choudhury, S. (2013). Measuring Customer-Based Brand Equity Through Brand Building Blocks for Durables, *The IUP Journal of Brand Management*, X (2), pp. 24-41.

Kang, J., Tang, L., and Lee, J. (2015). Self-Congruity and Functional Congruity in Brand Loyalty, *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 39(1), pp. 105-131.

Kapeller, J., Schutz, B. and Steinerberger, S. (2012). The Impossibility of Rational Consumer choice: A Problem and Its Solution, *Journal of Evolutionary Economics*, 23, pp. 39–60.

Kaswengi, J. and Diallo, M.F. (2015). Consumer Choice of Store Brands Across Store Formats: A Panel Data Analysis Under Crisis Periods, *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services* 23, pp. 70–76.

Katigari, M.J.A., and Monsef, S.M.S. (2015). Investigation the Relationship between Brand Equity, Customer Satisfaction and Customer Loyalty, *GMP Review*, 16 (3), pp. 54-69.

Kaytaz, M. and Gul, M.C. (2014). Consumer Response to Economic Crisis and Lessons for Marketers: the Turkish Experience, *Journal of Business Research* 67(1), pp. 2701–2706.

Kaze, V., and Skapars, R. (2011). Paradigm Shift in Consumer Segmentation to Gain Competitive Advantages in Post-Crises FMCG Markets: Lifestyle or Social Values, *Journal of Economics and Management* (16), pp. 1266-1273.

Kearne, M., and Wasi, N. (2012). Comparing Alternative Models of Heterogeneity in Consumer Choice Behaviour, *Journal of Applied Economics* 28, pp. 1018–1045.

Keller, K. L. (2008). *Strategic Brand Management – Building, Measuring, and Managing Brand Equity*, 3rd Ed. Pearson Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

Keller, K. L. (2012). Research Dialogue: Understanding the Richness of Brand Relationships: Research Dialogue on Brands as Intentional Agents, *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 22, pp. 186– 190.

Keller, K. L., Aperia, T. and Georgson, M. (2012). *Strategic Brand Management. A European perspective*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. England: Pretence Hall. Pearson Education Press.

Keller, K.L. and Lehmann, D.R. (2006) Brands and branding: research findings and future Priorities, *Marketing Science*, 25 (6), pp. 740–759.

Khrishnan, J. (2011). A Tool for Understanding Buyer Behaviour, *International Journal of Economic and Management* 5(1), pp. 283-298.

Kim, J., Morris, J. D. and Swait, J. 2008. Antecedents of True Brand Loyalty, *Journal of Advertising* 37(2), pp. 99-117.

Kim, S., Holland, S., Han and H. (2013). A Structural Model for Examining How Destination Image, Perceived Value, and Service Quality Affect Destination Loyalty: A Case Study of Orlando, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 15(4), pp. 313-328.

Kimberlin, C.L., and Winterstein, A.G. (2008). Validity and Reliability of Measurement Instruments Used in Research, *Research Fundamentals*, 65(23), pp. 2276-2284.

Kirk, C.P., Ray, I. and Wilson, B. (2013). The impact of Brand Value on Firm Valuation: The Moderating Influence of Firm Type, *Journal of Brand Management*, 20 (6), pp. 488-500.

Klipfel, J.A., Barclay, A. C., and Bockorny, K.M. (2014). Self-Congruity: A Determinant of Brand Personality, *Journal of Marketing Development and Competitiveness*. 8(3), pp. 130-143.

Kotler, P., and Keller, K. (2009). *Marketing Management*. 13th Ed. New Jersey: Pearson Education Ltd.

Kotler, P., Keller, K., Brady, M., Goodman, M., and Hansen, T. (2012). *Marketing Management*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Kressmann, F., Sirgy, M. J., Herrmann, A., Huber, S., and Lee, D. J. (2006). Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-image Congruence on Brand Loyalty, *Journal of Business Research* 59(6), pp. 955-964.

Kuenzel, S., and Halliday, S. (2010). The Chain of Effects From Reputation and Brand Personality Congruence to Brand Loyalty: The Role of Brand Identification, *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 18(3), pp. 167-176.

Kumar, N. and Steenkamp, J. (2007). *Private Label Strategy: How to Meet the Store Brand Challenge*. Cambridge: Harvard Business School Press.

Kumar, N., Radhakrishnan, S., and Rao, R. C. (2010). Private Label Vendor Selection in a Supply Chain: Quality and Clientele Effects, *Journal of Retailing*, 86 (2), pp. 148–158.

Kumar, R.R., and Charlas, D.L. (2011). Brand Switching in Cellular Phone Service Industry Because of Bill-Related Issues Faced by Clients, *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 1(5), pp. 231-235.

Labrecque, L.I., Krishen, A.S., and Grzeskowiak, S. (2011). Exploring Social Motivations for Brand Loyalty: Conformity versus Escapism, *Journal of Brand Management* (18), pp. 457 – 472.

Lam, S. K., Ahearne, M., and Schillewaert, N. (2012). A Multinational Examination of the Symbolic- Instrumental framework of Consumer-brand identification, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 43(3), pp. 306-331.

Lam, S. K., Ahearne, M., Hu, Y. and Schillewaert, N (2010). Resistance to Brand Switching When a Radically New Brand is Introduced: A Social Identity Theory Perspective, *Journal of Marketing* 74(6), pp. 128-146.

Lamb, C.W., Hair, J.R. and McDonald, A. (2011). *Introduction to Marketing*. 11th Ed. Australia: South Western College Publishing, Cengage Learning.

Lee, J. and Lee, H. (2013). Does Satisfaction Affect Brand Loyalty? *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 17, (2), pp. 133-144.

Leedy, P.D., and Ormrod, J.E. (2013). *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. New Jersey: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Liu, T., and Wang, C. (2008). Factors Affecting Attitudes towards Private Labels and Promoted Brands, *Journal Marketing Management*, 24, (3/4), pp. 283-298.

Lowengart, O. (2010). Heterogeneity in Consumer Sensory Evaluation as a Base for Identifying Drivers of Product Choice, *Journal of Business and Management* 16, (1), pp. 37-50.

Lynn, F.B., and Walker, M.H. (2013). The Embedded Self: A Social Networks Approach to Identity Theory, *Social Psychology Quarterly* 76(2), pp. 151–179.

MacInnis, D.J., Park, C.W., and Priester, J.R. (2009). *Handbook of Brand Relationships*. New York: M.E. Sharpe Publication.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., and Podsakoff, N. P. (2011). Construct Measurement and Validation Procedures in MIS and Behavioural Research: Integrating New and Existing Techniques, *MIS* 35(2), pp. 293-334.

Malhotra, N.K. (1993). *Marketing Research - An Applied Orientation*. Prentice Hall: New Jersey.

Mankiw, G. N. (2006). *Essentials of Economics*. 3rd Ed. Australia: South-Western Publications.

Marchant, L., Prescott, P., and Jackson, N. (2011). An Improved, Practical Model of Consumer choice, *International Journal of Market Research*, 54 (1), pp. 71-92. doi: 10.2501/IJMR-54-1-071-092.

MarketLine (2014a). *MarketLine Industry Profile: South Africa - Household Products*. October 2014, Reference Code: 0044-2080. Available on: <http://0-advantage.marketline.com.ujlink.uj.ac.za/Product?pid=MLIP1404-0023>. [Accessed: 23 March 2015].

MarketLine (2014b). *Supermarket Private Labels: Growth following Economic Downturn*. August 2014. (Online), Reference Code: ML00017-036. Available from: <http://0-advantage.marketline.com.ujlink.uj.ac.za/Product?pid=ML00017-036>. [Accessed: 20 September 2015].

MarketLine. (2015). *Marketline Data Analytics*, Available on: <http://0-mdm.marketline.com.ujlink.uj.ac.za/Default.aspx>. [Accessed: 15 September, 2015].

Markus, H. R., and Schwartz, B. (2010). Does Choice Mean Freedom and Well-Being? *Journal of Consumer Research* 37 (2), pp. 344–55.

Martin, N. (2008). *Habit: the 95% of Behaviour Marketers Ignore*. New Jersey: Upper Saddle River.

Martnez, E., and Polo, Y. (1999). Determining Factors in Family Purchasing Behaviour: An Empirical Investigation, *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 16(5), pp. 461-481.

Martos-Partal, M., and González-Benito, O. (2011). Store Brand and Store Loyalty: The Moderating Role of Store Brand Positioning, *Mark Lett* 22, pp. 297–313. DOI 10.1007/s11002-010-9126-x

Masterson, R. and Pickton, D. (2014). *Marketing: An Introduction*. 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed. Los Angeles: Sage Publications Ltd.

Matthews, D.R., Son, J., and Watchravesringkan, K. (2014). An Exploration of Brand Equity Antecedents Concerning Brand Loyalty: A Cognitive, Affective, and Conative Perspective, *Journal of Business and Retail Management Research*, 9 (1), pp.26-39.

McCraen, G (2005). *Culture and Consumption II: Markets, Meanings and Brand Management*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

McGovern, G., and Moon, Y. (2007). Companies and the Customers Who Hate Them, *Harvard Business Review*, 85(6), pp. 167-174.

Michaelidou, N., and Dibb. S. (2006). Brand Switching as a Function of Variety Seeking Behavior and Product Characteristics: Testing the Hoyer and Ridgway Model, *Journal of European Advances in Consumer Research*, 7, pp. 123-129.

Mirzaei, A., Gray, D., and Baumann, S. (2011). Developing a New Model for Tracking Brand Equity as a Measure of Marketing Effectiveness, *The Marketing Review* 11, (4), pp. 323-336.

Moore, D., and Wurster, D. (2007). Self-Brand Connections and Brand Resonance: The Role of Gender and Consumer Emotions, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 34, pp. 64-65.

Moore, D.J., and Homer, P.M. (2008). Self-brand Connections: The Role of Attitude Strength and Autobiographical Memory Primes, *Journal of Business Research*, 34, pp. 64-65.

Nagar, K. (2009). Evaluating the Effect of Consumer Sales Promotion on Brand Loyalty and Brand Switching Segments, *Journal of Business Perspective*, 13, (4), pp. 234-239.

Nam, J., Ekinci, Y. and Whyatt, G. (2011). Brand Equity, Brand Loyalty and Consumer Satisfaction, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38 (3), pp. 1009–1030.

National Department of Housing (2000). *White Paper: A New Housing Policy and Strategy for South Africa*. Available from:

[http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/legislation/Policies\\_Housing\\_White\\_Paper.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/legislation/Policies_Housing_White_Paper.pdf)

[Accessed: 10 May 2015]

Nenycz-Thiel, M., Romaniuk, J., (2011). The Nature and Incidence of Private Label Rejection, *Australasia Marketing Journal*, 19 (2), pp. 93–99

Nielsens , (2014a). *How Private-Label and Retailers Are Disrupting The Trading Environment in Western Europe*. Available from:

<http://www.nielsen.com/za/en/insights/news/2014/how-private-label-and-retailers-are-disrupting-the-trading-environment-in-western-europe.html>. [Accessed: 21 September,

2015)

Nielsens, (2014b). *The State of Private Label Around The World*. Available from:

<http://www.nielsen.com/za/en/insights/reports/2014/the-state-of-private-label-around-the-world.html>. [Accessed: 21 September, 2015].

Nickic, M. (2012). When Do Consumers Switch Brand? The Impact of Demographics and Lifestyle on Benefits Sought and Brand Switching, *University Wien*. September, 2012.

O’Cass, A. and McEwen, H. (2006). Exploring Consumer Status and Conspicuous Consumption, *European Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 4(1), pp. 25-39.

Oliver R L (1999): Whence Consumer Loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, (63), pp. 33-44.

Olson, E. L. (2012). Supplier Inferences to Enhance Private Label Perceptions, *Journal of Business Research*, (65), pp. 100–105.

Orth, U.R. (2005). Consumer Personality and Other Factors in Situational Brand Choice Variation, *Brand Management*, 13(2) pp. 115-133.

Osborne, M. (2011). Consumer Learning, Switching Cost and Heterogeneity: A structural Examination, *Quant Mark Econ* 9, pp. 25–70.

Padney, A.C., and Padney, M.K. (2013). Impact of Lifestyle on Brand Preference of Buyer Behaviour, *International Journal of Research In Management and Technology*, 2 pp. 151-165.

Park, C.W., MacInnis, D.J. and Priester, J. (2008), “Brand attachment and a strategic brand exemplar”, in Schmitt, B.H. and David L. Rogers (Eds), *Handbook on Brand and Experience Management*, Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publication.

Park, C.W., MacInnis, D.J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A.B. and Iacobucci, D. (2010). Brand Attachment and Brand Attitude Strength: Conceptual and Empirical Differentiation of Two Critical Brand Equity Drivers, *Journal of Marketing* 74 (1), pp. 1–17.

Parker, B.T., (2009). A Comparison of Brand Personality and Brand User-Imagery, *The Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 26(3), pp. 175-184.

Perloff, J.M. (2007). *Microeconomics*. 4th Ed. New York: Pearson - Addison Wesley.

Pervan, M., Visic, J., and Parvic, I. (2015). Inconsistency in Consumer Preferences: Some Interesting Insights, *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 23, pp. 726 – 732.

Peter, P. J., and Olson, J. C. (2010). *Consumer Behaviour and Marketing Strategy*. 9th Ed. Singapore: McGraw-Hill.

PicknPay Housebrands (2015). Available from: <http://www.picknpay.co.za/house-brands>. [Accessed: 20 August 2015].

Pike, S. and Ryan, C. (2010). Destination Positioning Analysis Through a Comparison of Cognitive, Affective, and Conative Perceptions, *Journal of Travel Research*, (42), pp. 333-342.



Pike, S., Bianchi, C., Kerr, G. and Patti, C. (2010). Consumer-based Brand Equity for Australia as a Long-haul Tourism Destination in an Emerging Market, *International Marketing Review*, 27 (4), pp. 434-449.

Pion, C. (2014). Perceived Status Enhancement, Brand Investment and Brand Loyalty, *Journal of Brand Strategy* 3, (4), pp. 387-398.

PnP Instore Pictures (2015). Available Instore at PnP Hypermarket, Northgate. [Accessed: 27 August 2015].

Porral, C.C., and Levy-Mangin, J. (2015). Do Store Image and Price Perception Matter to Store Brand Equity? *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, (21), pp. 102–122. [Accessed: 25 July 2015] <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10454446.2013.843486>.

Punch, K.F. (2013). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. 3rd Ed. California: Sage Publications Inc.

Punj, G. (2011). Impulse Buying and Variety Seeking: Similarities and differences, *Journal of Business Research* 64, pp. 745–748.

Rao, T. S., Shariff, A.R.M., Shafi, S., and Hasim, N.H.H. (2014). Application of Consumer Lifestyle Research in Marketing Perspective, *Engineers and Technologists Review*, 4(1), pp.10-15.

Recket Benkisser (2014). *RB 2014 Annual Report and Financial Statements*. Available from: [https://www.google.co.za/url?url=https://www.rb.com/docntdownload.axd%3Fdocntresourceid%3D84374&rct=j&frm=1&q=&esrc=s&sa=U&ved=0CBwQFjABahUKewj5gb\\_xxtPIAhWlQBQKHTUpA5o&usg=AFQjCNFswbNH\\_xdriM6xQ5mejOypvKKeMQ](https://www.google.co.za/url?url=https://www.rb.com/docntdownload.axd%3Fdocntresourceid%3D84374&rct=j&frm=1&q=&esrc=s&sa=U&ved=0CBwQFjABahUKewj5gb_xxtPIAhWlQBQKHTUpA5o&usg=AFQjCNFswbNH_xdriM6xQ5mejOypvKKeMQ) [Accessed: 23 August 2015].

Rockwell, C. 2008. The Mathematics of Brand Satisfaction, *Management Review*, 19(1), pp. 75-83.

Rubio, N., Villasenor, N. and Oubina, J. (2015). Consumer Identification with Store Brands: Differences between Consumers According to their Brand Loyalty, *BRQ Business Research Quarterly* 18, pp. 111-126.

Russell-Bennett, R., Hartel, C.E.J., and Worthington, S. (2013). Exploring a Functional Approach to Attitudinal Brand Loyalty, *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 21, pp. 43–51.

Rustichini, A., and Siconolfi, P., (2014). Dynamic Theory of Preferences: Habit Formation and Taste for Variety, *Journal of Mathematical Economics* 55, pp. 55–68.

SAARF (2015). Available from: <http://www.saarf.co.za/lifestyle-presentations/lifestyle.asp>. [Accessed: 11 June 2015].

SA Habitat III National Report (2015). *National Report by the Republic of South Africa for the Third United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Development Habitat III*.

Available from:

[http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/docnts/related\\_docs/HABITAT%20III%20NAT%20REPORT\\_web.pdf](http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/docnts/related_docs/HABITAT%20III%20NAT%20REPORT_web.pdf). [Accessed: 27 August 2015].

Sahin, A., Zehir, C. and Kitapaci, H. (2011). The Effects of Brand Experiences, Trust and Satisfaction on Building Brand Loyalty; An Empirical Research On Global Brands, *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 24, pp. 1288–1301.

Sanchez-Garcia, I., Pieters, R., Zeelenberg, M., and Bigne, E. (2012). When Satisfied Consumers Do Not Return: Variety Seeking's Effect on Short- and Long-Term Intentions, *Psychology and Marketing*, 29(1), pp. 15–24.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2013). *Research Methods for Business Students*. 7th Ed. Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Schiffman, L.G., and Kanuk, L.L. (2007). *Consumer Behaviour*, 10th Ed. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Schiffman, L.G., and Wisenbli, J.L. (2015). *Consumer Behaviour*. 11<sup>th</sup> Ed. Toronto: Pearson Education Limited Ed.

Sethuraman, R. (2009). Assessing the External Validity of Analytical Results from National Brand and Store Brand Competition Models, *Marketing Science*, 28(4), pp. 759–781.

Sharma, P., Bharadhwaj, S., and Roger, M. (2010). Impulse Buying and Variety Seeking: A Trait-correlates Perspective, *Journal of Business Research* 63(3), pp. 276–83.

Sheau-Fen, Y., Sun-May, L., and Yu-Ghee, W. (2012). Store Brand Proneness: Effects of Perceived Risks, Quality and Familiarity, *Australasian Marketing Journal* 20, pp. 48–58.

Shi, W., Chen, J., and Ma, J. (2011). A Study of Customer Loyalty Based on Switching Cost and Brand Attachment, *The Journal of China Universities of Posts and Telecommunications*, September 2011, 18(1), pp. 136–141.

Shiraz, A., Lorestani, H.Z., and Mazidi, A.K. (2013). Investigating the Effects of Brand Identity on Customer Loyalty from Social Identity Perspective, *Iranian Journal of Management Studies*, 6 (2), pp. 153-178.

Shukla, P., Banerjee, M. and Adidam, P. T. (2013). The Moderating Influence of Socio-demographic Factors on the Relationship Between Consumer Psychographics and the Attitude Towards Private Label Brands, *Journal of Consumer Behaviour* 12, pp. 423–435. doi: 10.1002/cb.1441

Singh, P., and Pattanayak, K. (2014). The Impact of Brand Loyalty on Consumers' Sportswear Brand Purchase, *The IUP Journal of Brand Management*, XI, (4), pp. 40-52.

Sloan, H. (2015). *The Private Label Predicament*. Available from: <http://www.worldtrademarkreview.com/issues/article.ashx?g=ffcbaa12-8275-48c2-afdc-12afa38b0c3d>. [Accessed: 20 September, 2015].

Solomon, M.R., Russel-Bennett, R., and Previte, J. (2012). *Consumer Behaviour, Buying, Having, Being*. 6<sup>th</sup> Ed. Australia: Pearson Publications.

Sondoh, S.L., Omar, M.W., Wahid, N.A., Ismail, I., and Haru, A. (2007). The Effect of Brand Image on Overall Satisfaction and Loyalty Intention in the Context of Colour Cosmetic, *Journal Asian Academy of Management* 12(1), pp. 83-107.

South African Advertising Research Foundation (2015) Available from: <http://www.saarf.co.za/LSM/Isms.thm>. [Accessed: 2 October 2015]

South Africa Millennium Development Goals. *Ensure environmental sustainability: Where we are?* Available from: [http://www.za.undp.org/content/south\\_africa/en/home/mdgoverview/overview/mdg7/](http://www.za.undp.org/content/south_africa/en/home/mdgoverview/overview/mdg7/). [Accessed 18 May 2015].

South African Institute of Race Relations. (2012). *South Africa Survey: The Living Conditions and Communication*. Available from: <http://irr.org.za/reports-and-publications/south-africa-survey/south-africa-survey-2012>. [Accessed: 18 May 2015]

Soweto Informal Settlement: Available from: <http://www.soweto.co.za/gallery/SowetoLife/squatter1.html> [Accessed: 20 October 2015].

Stahl, F., Heitmann, M., Lehmann, D.R., and Neslin, S.A. (2012). The Impact of Brand Equity on Customer Acquisition, Retention, and Profit Margin, *Journal of Marketing* 76, pp. 44 –63.

Statistics South Africa, 2014. *General Household Survey, Statistical release P0318*, Pretoria from <http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0318/P0318April2014.pdf> [Accessed 20 August 2015].

Stokburger-Sauer, N. (2010). Brand Community: Drivers and Outcomes, *Psychology and Marketing*, 27 (4), pp. 347-368.

Sutikno, B. (2011). Does Consumers' Brand Identification Matter: The Mediating Roles of Brand Loyalty, *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences*, 6 (3), pp. 319-331.

Tavakol, M. and Dennick, R. (2011). Making Sense of Cronbach's Alpha, *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, pp. 53-55. DOI: 10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd.

Thomas, C.R. and Maurice, S.C. (2011). *Managerial Economics*. 10<sup>th</sup> Ed. London: McGraw-Hill Publication.

Tiger Brands (2014). *Annual Financial Report*. Available from: <http://www.tigerbrands.co.za/annual-integrated-financial-report-2014/>. [Accessed: 23 August 2015].

Townsend, C. and Sood, S. (2012). Self-Affirmation Through the Choice of Highly Aesthetic Products, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39(2), pp. 415-428.

Tsai, S.P. (2011). Fostering International Brand Loyalty Through Committed and Attached Relationships, *International Business Review*, 20(5), pp. 5521-534.

Tsai, Y.C., Chang, H.C and Ho, H.C. (2015). A Study of the Relationship among Brand Experiences, Self-concept Congruency, Customer Satisfaction and Brand Preference, *Contemporary Management Research*, 11(2), pp. 97-116.

Tsao, H.Y., Pitt, L., and Campbell, C. (2012). Discriminating Between Behaviour Using Market Data from Panels, *International Journal of Market Research*, 56(1), pp. 73-88.

Tuskej, U., Golob, U., and Podnar, K. (2011). The Role of Consumer-Brand Identification in Building Brand Relationships, *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (1), pp. 53-59.

Urban Dynamics (2010). *Cosmo City An Integrated Housing Project*. Available from: <http://www.urbandynamics.co.za/index.php/latest-articles/98-cosmo-city-an-integrated-housing-project.html> [Accessed 12 February, 2014].

Usunier, J.C., and Lee, J. A. (2009). *Marketing Across Cultures*. 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited Ed.

van Veelen, R., Otten, S., and Hansen, N. (2013). Social Identification When an In-Group Identity is Unclear: The Role of Self-anchoring and Self-stereotyping, *British Journal of Social Psychology* 52, pp. 543–562.

Veloutsou, C. and Moutinho, L. (2009). Brand Relationships through Brand Reputation and Brand Tribalism, *Journal of Business Research*, 62(3), pp. 314–22.

Veloutsou, C., Christodoulides, G. and de Chernatony, L. (2013). A Taxonomy of Measures for Consumer-Based Brand Equity: Drawing on the Views of Managers in Europe, *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 22 (3), pp. 238–248.

Vieceli, J., and Shaw, R.N. (2010). Brand Salience for Fast Moving Consumer Goods: An Empirically Based Model, *Journal of Marketing Management*, 26, 13–14, pp. 1218–1238.

Vyncke, P. (2002). Lifestyle Segmentation: From Attitudes, Interests and Opinions, to Values, Aesthetic Styles, Life Visions and Media Preferences, *European Journal of Communication* 17(4), pp. 445–463.

Walker, L. J. (2014). Strategic Brand Orientation and its Antecedents, *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 18, (2), pp. 49-65.

Walsh, G. and Mitchell, V. (2010). Consumers' Intention to Buy Private Label Brands Revisited, *Journal of General Management*, 35 (3), pp. 3-24.

Wang, H.J. (2012). A New Approach to Network Analysis for Brand Positioning, *International Journal of Market Research*, 57(5), pp. 727-742.

Wang, L., and Finn, A. (2014). A Consumer-based Brand Equity Study for Small Market Share Brands, *Market and Social Research*, 22(2), pp. 231-239.

Warrens, M.J. (2015). Some Relationships between Cronbach's Alpha and the Spearman-Brown Formula, *Journal of Classification*, 32, pp. 127-137.

Weit, S.H., Santos, C., Sevilla, A., and Sofer, C. (2013). Sharing of Resources within the Family and the Economics of Household Decision Making, *Journal of Marriage and Family* 75, pp. 625 – 639. DOI:10.1111/jomf.12032.

Wells, V.K., and Foxal, G.R. (2013). Brand Demand Maximisation and Consumer Choice, *The Psychological Record*, 2013, (63), pp. 239–258.

Wen-hua, S., Jia-jia, C., and Jian-mei, M. (2011). A Study of Customer Loyalty Based on Switching Cost and Brand Attachment, *The Journal of China Universities of Posts and Telecommunications*. September, 18(1), pp. 136–141.

Whelan, S. and Davies, G. (2006). Profiling Consumers of Own Brand National Brands Using Human Personality, *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, (13), pp. 393–402. doi:10.1016/j.jretconser.2006.02.004.

White, K., and Dahl, D. W. (2007). Are All Out-groups Created Equal? Consumer Identity and Dissociative Influence, *Journal of Consumer Research*, (34), pp. 525-536.

Winer, R.S. and Dhar, W. (2011). *Marketing Management*. 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. New Jersey: Pearson

Yang, D. and Wang, W. (2010). The Effect of 2-Tier Store Brands' Perceived Quality, Perceived Value, Brand Knowledge and Attitude on Store Loyalty, *Frontiers of Business Research in China* 4(1), pp. 1-28.

Yin, R.K. (2014). *Case Study Research: Design and methods*, 5th Ed. California: Sage Publication.

Zhang, J., Kuwano, M., Lee, B., and Fujiwara, A. (2013). Modelling Household Discrete Choice Behaviour Incorporating Heterogeneous Group Decision-making Mechanisms, *Transportation Research Part B* 43, pp. 230–250.

Zikmund, W.G., Babin, B.J., Carr, J.C., and Griffin, M. (2013). *Business Research Methods*. 9th Ed. South Western: Cengage Learning.



**APPENDIX 1a**

**Residential Segmentation**

**Segment 1: RDP Freehold**



**Segment 2: Low Income Bonded Houses**



**Segment 3: High Income bonded Houses**



## APPENDIX 2a

### Toilet-care Product Segments



Liquids



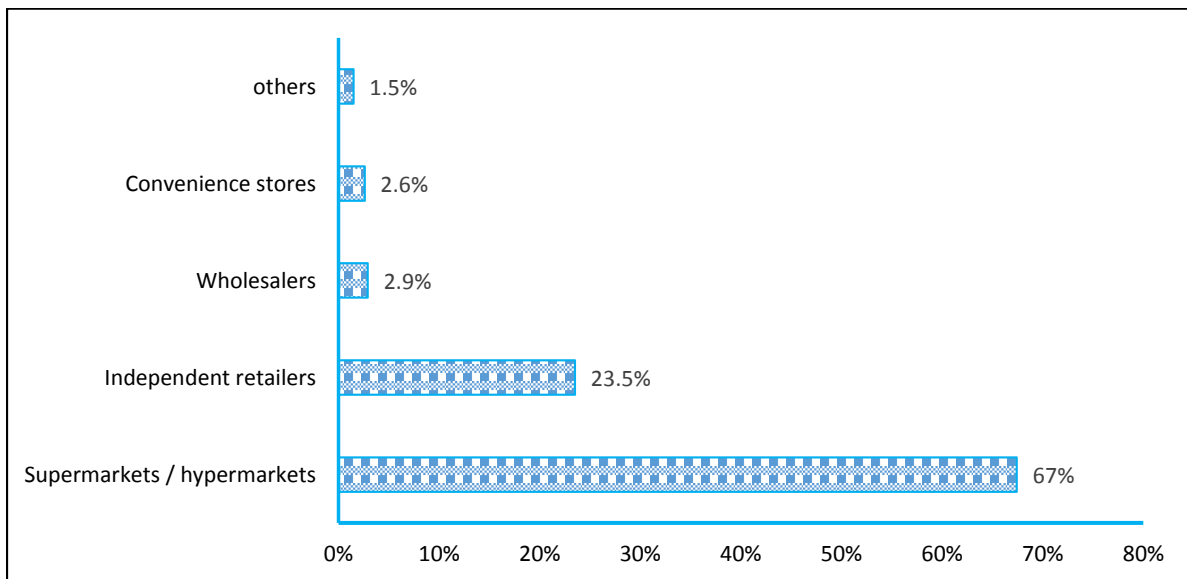
In-the-Bowl (ITBs)



In-the-Cistern (ITCs)

## APPENDIX 2b

### Distribution Channels Shares



Source: MarketLine (2014a)

APPENDIX 2c

Private Label Brands



PnP Private Label Brand



Shoprite-Checkers Private Label Brand



Spar Private Label Brand

APPENDIX 2d

Manufacturer Brand Labels





APPENDIX 5a

**Soweto Informal Settlement Dwelling Place**



Source: [www.soweto.co.za](http://www.soweto.co.za)

## APPENDIX 6

### UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

School of Management, IT and Governance

#### **TOILET CARE PRODUCT BRAND SWITCHING BEHAVIOUR: A CASE STUDY OF CONSUMERS OF COSMO CITY, GAUTENG PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA**

Student: Mr T Masuku 071 759 2852  
Supervisor: Professor Krishna Govender 079 895 6233  
Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

#### **CONSENT**

I \_\_\_\_\_ (*full names of respondent & contacts*) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time should I so desire. The information that you will supply in this study is purely for educational purposes only and no names or personal details will be made public.

Respondent signature: \_\_\_\_\_

*(Leave behind with respondent)*

**APPENDIX 7**

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**  
School of Management, IT and Governance

Student: Mr T Masuku 071 759 2852

Supervisor: Professor Krishna Govender 079 895 6233

Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

**TOILET CARE PRODUCT BRAND SWITCHING BEHAVIOUR: A CASE STUDY OF CONSUMERS OF COSMO CITY, GAUTENG PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA**

Interviewer's Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Interviewer Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Respondent's name: \_\_\_\_\_ Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

House address:  
\_\_\_\_\_

1. Total time: 20-25 minutes
2. This questionnaire will be retained for 5 years.
3. You are free to withdraw from this study at any stage and for any reason.
4. Participation in this study is voluntary.
5. Your identity is confidential.,
6. Please answer the questions to the best of your ability

**TOILET CARE PRODUCT BRAND SWITCHING BEHAVIOUR: A CASE STUDY  
OF CONSUMERS OF COSMO CITY, GAUTENG PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA**

**SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS**

Tick ONE option for each of the following questions:

1. Race of Household family

Black	
White	
Coloured	
Indian	

2. Number of people who live in the house

1 – 4	
5 – 6	
more than 6	

3. Do you own this house?

Yes	
No	

4. What is your main source of income?

Formal employment	
Informal employment	
Social grant	
Other: Please specify	

5. Which monthly income bracket does your family fall into?



R0 – R3 000	
R3 001 – R6 000	
R6 001 – R9 000	
More than R9 001	

**SECTION B: BRAND SWITCHING**

6. Have you *changed* toilet cleaning brands or products since moving to Cosmo City?

Yes	
No	

7. Indicate your usage of the following types of toilet cleaners BEFORE moving to Cosmo City

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
7.1 <i>Retailer</i> toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner					
7.2 <i>National</i> branded products e.g. Domestos					
7.3 <i>Informal</i> market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel					

8. Indicate your usage of the following types of toilet cleaners AFTER moving to Cosmo City

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
8.1 <i>Retailer</i> toilet brands e.g. PnP toilet cleaner					
8.2 <i>National</i> branded products e.g. Domestos					
8.3 <i>Informal</i> market toilet products e.g. Reggae or pine gel					

9. Indicate your usage of different forms of toilet cleaning products BEFORE moving to Cosmo City

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
9.1 <i>liquids</i> in bottles					
9.2 <i>ring</i> blocks					
9.3 <i>cistern</i> blocks					

10. Indicate your usage of different forms of toilet cleaning products AFTER moving to Cosmo City

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
10.1 <i>liquids</i> in bottles					
10.2 <i>ring</i> blocks					
10.3 <i>cistern</i> blocks					

11. Indicate the quantities of the following types of toilet cleaning products which you used per month BEFORE moving to Cosmo City

	0 units	1 unit	2units	More than 2 units
11.1 Liquid in bottles				
11.2 Ring blocks				
11.3 Cistern blocks				

12. Indicate the quantities of the following types of toilet cleaner that you used per month AFTER moving to Cosmo City

	0 units	1 unit	2units	More than 2 units
12.1 Liquids in bottles				
12.2 Ring blocks				
12.3 Cistern blocks				

**SECTION C: PHYSICAL HOUSEHOLD CHANGE**

13. What ***type*** of house did you ***previously*** live in before moving into Cosmo City? (Select **ONE** option only)

Informal settlement	
Townhouse or flat	
Stand-alone house	
Backyard room	
Other: specify	

14. From the list below chose the ***type*** of house that you ***now*** have in Cosmo? (Select **ONE** option only)

RDP house – ext 2, 4 & 6	
Low cost bonded house- ext 0, 8, 9 & 10	
High cost bonded houses – ext 3, 5 and 7	
Other: specify	

15. The type of toilet system .....

	Flushing toilet using water	Bucket system	Pit toilet	Bush (no toilet)	Communal toilet
15.1 In my <b><i>previous</i></b> house was a...					
15.2 In my <b><i>current</i></b> house in Cosmo City the type of toilet is a...					

16. Indicate your kind of toilet cleaning behaviour before and after moving into Cosmo Toilet cleaning behaviour

	More than once a day	Once a day	At least weekly	At least monthly	Less often than once a month	Never
16.1 My <b><i>previous</i></b> toilet was cleaned .....						
16.2 My <b><i>current</i></b> toilet is cleaned....						

17. Indicate the degree of difficulty to the following statements with regards to cleaning your toilet

Using toilet cleaning products in...	Very difficult	Difficult	Neutral	Easy	Very easy
17.1 ... my <i>previous</i> home was...					
17.2 ... my <i>current</i> home in Cosmo City is...					

#### **SECTION D: PRODUCT BRAND BENEFITS**

18. Indicate your agreement with the following statements regarding qualities that are important to you when choosing a toilet cleaning product:

It is important that my toilet cleaner...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
18.1 Cleans effectively: gives a deep clean with less scrubbing					
18.2 Smells clean and fresh					
18.3 Has a long lasting fragrance					
18.4 Has a fragrance that matches my room spray					
18.5 Removes stains in the chamber					
18.6 Removes bad smell (odour) in the chamber					
18.7 Does not damage the environment					
18.8 Gives good value for money					
18.9 Is a socially acceptable product to use					
18.10 Is readily available when I go to buy it					

If you **HAVE** changed toilet cleaning brands or products since moving to Cosmo City, answer the following question (q19):

19. Indicate your agreement with the following statements:

<b>Since moving to Cosmo City, I have changed toilet cleaning products because I want a product that.....</b>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
19.1 ...smells better					
19.2 ...cleans better					
19.3 ...is cheaper					
19.4 ...is recommended by friends/family					
19.5 ...gives me more status					
19.6 ...is more suited to the type of toilet I have					
19.7 ...is on promotion and therefore costs less than usual					
19.8 ...matches my personality					
19.9 ...matches my new lifestyle					

### **SECTION E: LIFESTYLE CHANGE**

20. Indicate your agreement with the following statements regarding a *change in your lifestyle* since moving to Cosmo City

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
20.1 Now I participate in more social events and activities than					
20.2 There are better job opportunities here					
20.3 The toilet systems in Cosmo have improved my health and					
20.4 Moving into Cosmo City has improved my social status in society					
20.5 My family and I are more confident about a better future					
20.6 I am happy to spend more time in my home than before					
20.7 I feel that my family and I have achieved a better life					
20.8 My life is more comfortable as I have more space/rooms than					

## APPENDIX 8

### Ethical Clearance Letter



06 March 2015

Mr Trust Masuku (212561218)  
School of Management, IT & Governance  
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Masuku,

Protocol reference number: HSS/0130/015D

Project title: Toilet-care product brand switching behaviour: A case study of Consumers of Cosmo City, Gauteng Province, South Africa

#### Full Approval – Expedited Approval

With regards to your application received on 05 March 2015. The documents submitted have been accepted by the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee and **FULL APPROVAL** for the protocol has been granted.

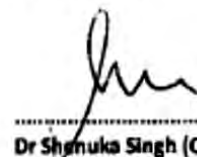
Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully



.....  
Dr Shyamuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Professor Krishna Govender  
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Brian McArthur  
Cc School Administrator: Mr Debbie Cunynghame